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Michigan, Gov. Luce on carrying weapons, 24, decline in Republican majority, 305, 376, strong vote for prohibition amendment, 376, liquor-tax bill, 418, local option and taxation laws, 519—Maine Constitution vs. United States excise duty, 499 — Massachusetts, Gov. Ames on the Sunday laws, 24, Berkshire Republican Club, 239, Legislature passes bill exempting soldiers from civil-service examinations, 481, 519, passes no prohibition amendment, 519—Missouri Legislature refuses appropriation to militia, 218—Milwaukee, defeat of Socialists at the polls, 305—Morocco, American consul removed, 131—Secretary Manning's letter on the fisheries, 107, reply as to greenbacks and silver, 108—Mahone for Chairman of National Republican Committee, 284—Levi P. Morton defeated for Senator, 65—Rev. Dr. McGlynn will not go to Rome, 25, 500, tribute from his flock, 43, Archbishop Corrigan's statement, 66, case not likely to produce a schism, 109, on the Catholic support of Blaine, 375, 396, Anti-Poverty Society, 396.

New York, State: Hiscock elected Senator, 65, Senate passes Labor-Day Bill, 66, Legislature favors Hill or Blaine for President, 108, bill to tax short sales of stocks, 132, woman suffrage bill passed (Senate), 155, defeated (House), 219, Saturday holiday bill, 175, Field code passed by the Assembly, 198, High License Bill passed by Assembly, 259, and Senate, 283, Labor bills, 396, Senate will not confirm Gov. Hill's nominations, 283, Prison Labor Reform Commission on jute bag manufacture, 480; City: Fatty Walsh's example, 2, 3, Excise Commissioners to restrict licenses, 108, Republican Club Sherman boom, 133, Liquor-dealers' meeting against the High License Bill, 155, J. C. Bayles made President Board of Health, 240, garbage collecting, 261, want of back alleys, 377, Mayor Hewitt's cabinet meetings, 354, enforcement of Sunday liquor law, 397, Anti-Saloon Republican meeting, 459 —*N. Y. World* on Cleveland's renomination, 89—*N. Y. Tribune* on Cleveland's election, 305, on the state of the *Atlanta*, 307—New Jersey Senatorial contest ended, 198, Chancellor Runyon not reappointed, 284—New Mexico, partisan plans to make a State of, 2—Nevada lottery vetoed, 284—North Carolina, coalition Speaker for House, 24—National Labor party in opposition to Henry George, 132.

O'Brien, Mayor, Boston, sound vetoes, 2—William O'Brien cuts the Henry-Georgites, 481.

Pennsylvania, high-license law, 419—Philadelphia Mayor under new charter, 283, Philadelphia Brigade would restore Confederate battle-flags, 519—Consul-General Porch removed, 108—Tom Platt offers to resign Quarantine Commissionership, 460 — Pelletier claim against Hayti, 131, 132—Pensions for those who offered to serve, 89, Pension Bill pushed by Grand Army, 499, Powderly endorses the Declaration of Independence, 306, and orders boycotting the carpet-weavers, 480—Pinkerton's men, legislation against, 66, District-Attorney Martine on, 154, Missouri legislation promotive of, 217—President's right to sign bills after Congress adjourns, 197—Postal Savings Bank Bill's prospects, 153—Prohibitionists organizing anew, 2—Printers' Protective Fraternity, 218—Pacific Railroads, proposed investigation of, 44.

Quay, Matthew S., nominated U. S. Senator from Penn., 24.

Rhode Island's experience with prohibition, 24, election carried by Democrats, 305, effect on Presidential election, 375, 396, civil-service bill introduced, 481—Richmond *State* on the Virginia compromise, 499, 500—Edmund Randolph's account with the U. S., 177—Theodore Roosevelt dinner in N. Y., 417—Sam. J. Randall's reelection secured by Republican district-ing, 259—Geo. Riddle shakes the dust of Boston from his feet, 331—Real-estate boom at the West, 306—Railroad vestibule train, 354.

South Carolina, more than ante-bellum prosperity, 3—W. P. St. John on silver limit, 1—Senator Sherman on the use of the surplus, 133, on Democratic neglect to reduce taxation, 217, speech at Nashville, 259, 541, to Philadelphia Young Republicans, 307, at Springfield, Ill., 479, 541, on sugar bounties, 520, on financial troubles from Cleveland Administration, 541—O. S. Straus, Minister to Turkey, 260—Jacob Sharp trial in N. Y., 481, 521, 542, 543 — State Department and the Tangier abuses, 23, trouble with Congress over estimates, 176, account against Edmund Randolph, 176, 177—Supreme Court, U. S., decision on salesmen tax, 219 — Silver, Louisville *Courier-Journal* on discrimination against, 66, silver market not controllable by New York, 459, increase of silver certificates, 541—Society's responsibility for burglars, 109—Saloons diminished by high license, 259—Socialist apostles' extravagance, 25—Strikes, legislation needed for, 88, House Committee report on Southwestern strike, 198, silversmiths' strike in N. Y., 480, bricklayers', Chicago, 542—Steel-rail prices permit importation, 330.

Tennessee, Governor and Speaker of House, youthful, 24, House doubles school fund, 218, Senate substitutes an equivalent measure, 261—Texas Prohibition campaign, 393, stringent liquor law, 438—T. De Witt Talmage plagiarized by Canon Fleming, 460—Craig Tolliver killed, 541—Trade Dollar Bill ought to be vetoed, 153—Treasury on fresh fish, 23, 24, surplus reduction by anticipating interest, 395, by bond purchases, 542—Tornado refuge caves, 354.

Union Pacific R. R. and steel-rail monopolists, 23—Union Labor Party of New York, 520.

Virginia, Tazewell Court-house affray, 89, drummer license coupon decision by Judge Bond, 108, conference with creditors, 284, abortive, 417, Richmond *State*'s apology, 499, 500—Vermont Central railroad accident, 109—Judge Van Vorst retires, 3—Cornelius Vanderbilt gives the "Horse Fair" to the Metropolitan Museum, 307.

West Virginia, a motherless lyncher, 133—Wisconsin abolishes its Board of Immigration, 177—Washington Territory, Chinese persecutions squelched by Governor, 397—Judge W. B. Woods deceased, 418—Western Union Telegraph unjustly taxed by N. Y., 418.

Yale Mugwumps, 521.

ABROAD.

GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND:—Death of Lord Iddesleigh, 45, Mr. Goschen defeated at Liverpool, 89, Parnell's amendment to address to the Queen lost, 133—Commission of Inquiry's report on Irish land question, 177—Salisbury Ministry floundering, 219—Corporation of City of London manufactures public sentiment, 241—New Coercion Bill, 261, 285, not new, as Mr. Bryce shows, 307—Chamberlain's violent speech at Ayr, 331—*Times* prints alleged letter of Parnell's sympathizing with the Phœnix Park assassins, 331, Gladstone's testimony, 377, Parnell's ill-health, 419—Irish outrages and the bloody shirt, 355—Irish Woollen Manufacturing Company to seek American custom, 376—Goschen proposes to reduce the sinking-fund, 395—Board of Trade to report on overrunning by foreign workmen, 500—Quarrel with Hayti over Tortoise Island, 355—Convention with Turkey for evacuation of Egypt, 501—Walter Besant on publishers and authors, 241—British emigration increasing, 240—Fall of death-rate, 240, in London, 377—Working of Corrupt Practices Act, 177—Marriage rate not advancing with cheap food, clerical improvidence, 155—Canon Fleming borrows from Talmage, 460—*Spectator* on the anti-Irish party in the U. S., 481—*Economist* on long-haul and short-haul, 1—W. H. Mallock on the labor problem, 241—Cardinal Manning supports Knights of Labor, 376 —Wear of gold coinage, 419—Jewish incomes in the London community, 461—Buffalo Bill a London lion, 521.

FRANCE:—Overeducation of girls in Paris, 25—Earthquake on the Mediterranean Coast, 177—Moderation in the Schnaebelé affair, 355—Goblet Ministry beaten on the budget, 419, question of Boulanger's retention as war minister, 439, 461, Rouvier Ministry sans Boulanger, 461.

BELGIUM:—Labor troubles and suffrage agitation, 439—Belgian Liberal programme, 501.

SWITZERLAND:—Government voted the monopoly of liquor making and sale, 460.

GERMANY:—Bismarck and Moltke's speeches on the Army Bill, 45, danger of crying war to influence the elections, 109, 155, Government victorious, 155, 219—Renewal of triple alliance with Austria-Hungary and Italy, 219—Bismarck's peaceful career since 1871, 355 —Schnaebelé arrest, 355.

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: Andrássy's bargain with Gortchakoff in 1877, 501—Hungarian Parliament's obsequious acts, 501.

ITALY: Earthquake on the Riviera, 177—Question of the Pope's successor, 199—Renewal of alliance with Germany and Austria-Hungary, 219.

BULGARIA:—Revolutionary outbreaks, 199.

INDIA:—Treasure trove of the Maharajah of Gwalior, 419.

CANADA:—Wm. O'Brien and the Orangemen, 419, mobs, 439.

MEXICO:—Law making citizens of foreigners, 23, question of Diaz's successor, 199, 285, attitude of the *Diario* and of Diaz, 355.

AFRICA:—Italians defeated at Massowah by Abyssinians, 89, 109—American consular abuses at Tangier broken up, 354.

Notes.

Announcements, 13, 34, 53, 77, 98, 118, 143, 164, 186, 207, 230, 250, 272, 283, 318, 343, 364, 386, 404, 426, 449, 470, 490, 508, 530, 553—Aristotle's Rhetoric, Welldon's translation, 233—G. B. Airy on the Roman dominion in S. E. Britain, 511—E. Atkinson on labor's share of profit, 320—Astor Library increase and Catalogue, 165—American Annual Catalogue, 320.

Browning, Robert, works on, by M. E. Burt and A. Symons, 36—Chas. Bigot's impressions of America, 121 —British Birds, Folk-lore of, 189—Battles and Leaders of the Civil War, 510—Boston Museum of Fine Arts, catalogue of Greek and Roman casts, 344—*Bibliothèque Universelle*, 100, 101, 406.

Cox, Sir G. W., Concise History of England, 36—Carlyle's garbling of Cromwell, 56—Caine's Coleridge, 472—Coleridge's "Dejection" and Wordsworth, 510—Benjamin Constant's Diary, 210, 367—Prof. Conrad on a cultured proletariat, 555—Canadian Annual Register, 78—Coöperation in Minneapolis, 15, in New England, 209—Copyright entries in United States and England, T. W. Higginson on, 450.

Deschanel, É., lectures on French literature, 15—Maxime Du Camp and *Le Livre*, 472—Dunlap Society's publications, 78—*Deutsch-Amerikanisches Magazin*, 120.

Emin Bey in Equatorial Africa, 36—Ersch und Gruber's Encyklopädie, 79—Emerson's poetry criticised by Prof. C. C. Everett, 232—England, Sir G. W. Cox's Concise History of, 36, English governmental methods following the American, 188—Euphuists, Vollmöller's, 296—*English Historical Review*, 450.

Foster, Abby Kelley, deceased, 55—Paul Féval, deceased, 274—Prof. Willard Fiske's Icelandic book catalogue, 56—Franklin's Works edited by John Bigelow, 121, 531, 532—Judge Fornander's Polynesian researches, 428—French Academy reception of É. Hervé, 189, 210, feeling against M. Gréard, 210—Benedictine provincial histories reëdited, 296—Men of Letters series (Hachette's), 492.

Goethe's Italian diaries and correspondence, 101, correspondence with Zelter, 209, 210—Prof. Gneist on Irish autonomy, 232 — Lord Gifford's lectureship, 532—Greek in English, Goodell's, 274—German university demoralization in the 16th century, 233, university slang, 253—Government, text-books on, 144—*Gazette Anecdotique*, 493.

Hamilton, Alexander, works (Lodge's ed.) completed, 35 —Hamerton Higginson discussion on literary celebrity, 252—Wm. Hazlitt celebrated by Geo. Saintsbury, 345—J. O. Halliwell-Phillipps's Shakspere Tours, 492—Hindu mathematicians, 121, Hindûstânî textbook, 166—John Harvard's relation to John Rogers, 345, Harvard College Observatory report, 296, *Harvard Law Review* and Report of Organization of Law School Association, 366,

Irish MSS.; report of Historical MSS. Commission, 209—Ixil language, Otto Stoll on, 472.

Junker, Dr. Wilhelm, African explorations, 56—J. Janssen on German university life in 16th century, 233—Jefferson and the Kentucky Resolutions of '98, 389—John Paul Jones's burial in France, 406.

Kraszewski, J. I., deceased, 406—M. Kempson's Taubatûn-nasûh, 166.

Laveleye's Balkan Peninsula translated, 405—Lick Observatory lenses transported, 233—"Lohengrin" in Paris, 451—*Les Lettres et les Arts*, 252, 321, 389, 511.

Marston's Works edited by Bullen, 450, 451—H. J. Morgan's Annual Register, 78—Col. Mallery's N. A. Indian Photographs, 366—Methuen, Mass., Public Library and catalogue, 345—Mauritius, population and industry of, 145—Milan and the statue of Napoleon III., 79 —Minneapolis coöperative industries, 15—Minusinsk Museum antiquities, 321—Modern Language Association at Baltimore, 55—Magazines for January, 14, February, 100, 120, 252, March, 188, 209, 252, 320, April, 252, 273, 274, 320, 345, May, 366, 388, June, 450, 471, 492, 510, July, 532, 554, 555.

Necrology of 1883, 36—*New England Historic-Genealogical Register*, 345.

Oil on troubled waters, antiquity of, 78, 531.

Poe, Edgar A., supposed satire by, 531—Hector Pessard's 'Mes Petits Papiers,' 511—Pascal, new edition of, 253—Pushkin's works edited by Morozoff, 428, 429—Piloty's pictures, copies sold for originals, 36—Prof. A. F. Pott on Carl Abel, 367.

Quarterly Journal of Economics, 100.

Racot, Adolphe, 493—Renan's New Studies in Religious History, 472—D. A. Rovinsky's Russian Iconography, 166—Rogers pedigree traced by H. F. Waters, 345—Russian popular pictures, 166—Roman dominion in S. E. Britain, 511.

Stanton, Henry B., deceased, 56—W. W. Story's Roba di Roma reëdited, 252—Léon Say on E. About, 15—Rémi Siméon's Nahuatl Dictionary, 555—Leslie Stephen's Dictionary of National Biography, 55, 295— Thos. Sinclair's 'Humanities,'79—Shakspere's Tours, 492, Outlines (7th ed.), 510—Otto Schroeder favors free orthography and grammar, 165, 166—Schuchardt's 'Romanisches und Keltisches,' 428—Otto Stoll on the Ixil language, 472—Selden Society founded, 428—St. Louis, Billon's Early Annals of, 145— Southwestern R. R. system strike, official history of, 145—Stock and bond issues in Europe and U. S., 189.

Taine, H., Napoleon Bonaparte, 296—Thackeray Letters in *Scribner's*, 273—Tolstoi described by George Kennan, 492, "Kingdom of Darkness," drama, 511, religious works, 532.

Usener, Prof., on St. Marina, 15—Octave Uzanne's Modern Binding, 555.

Vietor, Wilhelm, Elements of Phonetics, 274.

Ward, Geo. Cabot, deceased, 406—Virgil Williams's art thoughts, 320—E. P. Whipple on "desipient," 366—B. B. Warfield's introduction to N. T. Textual Criticism, 405—Wagner opera performances in Germany in 1885, 492.

Zola, Émile, new novel, 'La Terre,' 345.

Editorial and Miscellaneous Articles.

American Application of English Election Methods 359
Andover Decision, Some Bearings of.. 525
Anti-Poverty Society..... 380
Arbitration..... 112
Bachelors of Art..... 505
Battle-Flag Flurry..... 524
Beecher, Henry Ward..... 225
Beverly Incident..... 422
Churches, Vacations in..... 547
Church Union, Question of..... 485
Cleveland and the Republicans 264
Cleveland Has Done, What..... 202
Congress, Forty-ninth..... 202
Coöperation in England..... 526
Country Living for City People..... 204
Criminal Classes, Rule of the..... 159
Dawes on the Crisis 289
Demagogy, Ineffective..... 289
Democratic Preparations..... 244
Diamonds..... 424
Dirt Roads..... 466
Doubtful Remedy..... 29
Drink Bill, Formerly and Now..... 354
Dumb Legislation..... 464
England, Coöperation in..... 526
European Zollverein..... 546
Field Code at Albany..... 265
Fisheries Fallacies..... 443
Fishery Question, Edmunds's Report on..... 71
Forests as Playgrounds..... 505
French Crisis..... 444
German Opera Season..... 182
German vs. American University Salaries..... 7
Germany, Emigration from..... 245
Germany, Pope's Interference in..... 137
Getting their Eyes Open..... 335
Government on Business Principles.... 288
Gresham's, Judge, Decision in the Wabash Case..... 48
Home Rule and English Journalism... 444
Importance of the Finish..... 334
Indiana State Prison Investigation..... 224
Ingersoll's, Col., New England Mystery..... 548
Inter-State Commerce Bill will Work, How the..... 93
Inter-State Commerce Decision..... 524
Ironsides, After the, on a Tricycle. 311, 336
Judges, U. S. District, Salaries of..... 6
Jury System, Reform of our..... 546
Knights and the Trades..... 358
Labor Legislation..... 48
"Labor Problem"..... 112
Labor Reformers, Great Chance for.... 158
Linen Paper vs. Cotton Paper 115
Liquor, Taxed and Untaxed..... 266
Mexican Legislation, Some Recent..... 7
Missouri Demagogy..... 289
Money Power in Politics.....180, 204, 222
Mormon Theocracy, Decline of the..... 29
Mugwump Idea..... 381
Mugwumpism, Growth of..... 204
New York Assembly Committee and the Strikes..... 130
Next Party Issue..... 158
Normirofka, The..... 181
One Thing Needful..... 358
Pacific Coast and the Commerce Act... 400
Pennsylvania vs. Anthracite Coal Companies..... 222
Pension Bill Veto..... 136
Pensioners, Our Standing Army of..... 92
People Voted, How the..... 49
Pinkerton's Men 70
Pope's Interference in Germany 137
President's Hindrances, Some of the... 288
Prohibition as a Solvent of Parties..... 504
"Pulls"..... 223
Readjuster Incident..... 244
Reform, Progress of..... 422
Refunding the Debt..... 464
Rhode Island Politics..... 114
Rule of Honor..... 401
Saloons and Workingmen..... 158
Shameful Business..... 28
Sharples Portraits..... 49
Socialistic Platitudes..... 504
"Soldier Vote"..... 159
South and the Commerce Act..... 484
"Speeches, Great"..... 311
Sugar Bounties and Socialism 28
Sugar, Protection for..... 484
Supreme Court and Parties..... 442
Sweden, Secondary and Higher Education in..... 290
Taxation, Love of..... 180
Tobacco 6
Trades-Unions, Composition of the..... 400
Trusts and Confidences..... 380
United States District Judges, Salaries of..... 6
University Salaries, German vs. American..... 7
Victorian Jubilee..... 526
Virginia Coupon-Killing..... 113
Virginia, Failure to Compromise in.... 465
Wabash Case, Judge Gresham's Decision in..... 48
Wagner Letters, Some..... 266
Weather Bureau, Reorganization of the..... 70
Woman Suffrage in Operation..... 310

Special Correspondence.

Domestic—Bradford's Index to Clemencin's Commentary on Don Quixote..... 267, 292
Kentucky Resolutions in a New Light..... 382, 467
Spring Meeting of the American Oriental Society..... 423
West Indies—Notes on the W. I. Islands 337
England—Nebulous English Politics.... 50
The Land War in Ireland..... 51
Laborers' Allotment Grounds..... 72
Irish Juries, the Lord Mayor's Banquet, Evictions..... 94
The Late Lord Iddesleigh..... 138
Are Englishmen Interested in Politics?..... 160
Why has Interest in Politics Declined?..... 245
Five Years of the Land Law..... 183
British Politics and Society..... 226
Report of Lord Cooper's Commission..... 227
Introduction of the Jubilee Coercion Bill..... 313, 338
Moral Responsibility of Political Parties..... 314
The Conquest of Upper Burmah..... 339
Exhibition of Photographs at Liverpool 384
Questions for the Jubilee..... 401
The Warwickshire Laborer..... 468
Present Condition of Ireland..... 485
"Alcestis" in Oxford..... 506
Bodyke Evictions..... 527
France—A New View of La Bruyère.... 9
The First Mme. Guizot..... 30
A Rising French Critic..... 73
Dumas's "Francillon"..... 139
The Princesse de Ligne..... 183
The Rémusats..... 205
Scherer's Grimm..... 247
The Peace of Europe..... 292
Dumas on Victor Hugo..... 340
Flaubert's Correspondence..... 385
Moral of the Schnaebelé Affair..... 424
Marriage of Louis XV..... 445
France and the Armed Peace..... 487
Boissier's Mme. de Sévigné..... 528
Geffroy's Mme. de Maintenon..... 550
Italy—Daily and Periodical Press.....8, 139
Carducci..... 95
Italian Army, 1887..... 360
Cathedral of Orvieto..... 361
Duomo of Florence..... 507
First Pilgrimage to Caprera..... 548
Germany—Ibsen's "Spectres"..... 116
Weimar and the Goethe Gesellschaft—A New Faust..... 488

Occasional Correspondence.

A. B., Degree of..... 97, 163, 207
Advertisements, Disguised..... 163
American Ancestry..... 553
American Archæological Expedition to Italy..... 341, 361, 386, 426, 469
"American" Architecture..... 142
American Teacher in Ireland 97
Anderson's, R. B., Translation of Brandes..... 186
Anglo-Saxon Pirating..... 271, 293
Archæology at Athens..... 317
Archæology in the Mediterranean 341, 361, 386, 426, 469
Athens, Archæology at..... 317
Baltimore "Politics"..... 207
Beekman and Clinton Coats..... 426
Beverly Incident 447, 470, 508
"Billion"..... 490
Blaine? Why Not Forget..... 317
Blind Guide..... 162
"Blizzard"..... 271
Brazilian River Sources..... 117
Careless Author..... 250
Chicago, Results of Sanitary Inspection in..... 228, 249
Church Union, Question of..... 552
Cincinnati Election..... 341
Civil-Service Reform in Michigan..... 13
Civil Service Reform, The People Not Hostile to..... 33
Coeducation.—A Straw..... 404
Comparative Politics..... 75
Congress, Sectional Paralysis of..... 248
Conventual Pastimes..... 249, 316
Corrections 98 539
Cotton, John, The Wrong..... 163, 249, 269
Coxe's, Bishop, English Pallology 12, 97, 140, 185
Cranston Arms..... 447
Crime, Secret Sympathy with..... 13
Crotona, Excavations at.. ..... 341, 361, 386, 426, 469
Davis, Jefferson, Was He a Republiator?..... 207, 248
Disreputable Review, A..... 317
Divorce Statistics..... 249
Domestic Service 11, 33, 75
Elective System, Introduction of the 163, 228
Female Suffrage in Kansas..... 362
Female Suffrage, Progress of..... 362
Fisheries, The Administration and the. 98
French Finances..... 551
Gilman Arms..... 490
Goethe Society..... 508
History and the Group System..... 11, 33
Hoar, Senator, or Citizen..... 506
Immigration, How to Control..... 140
"Influential"..... 140
Inn, How to Keep an..... 508
Inter State Commerce Bill..... 52
"Is Being Built"..... 447
Israelite in Maryland, The First 479
Kansas, Woman Suffrage in..... 362
Katheder Socialists, A Question for..... 142
Kentucky State Convention and the President 403
Labor Vote in Philadelphia..... 162
Land Tenure, Ethics of..... 161
Lee's "Countrymen"..... 363, 403
Library, How to Collect a..117, 142, 163, 247
Literary Morality..... 33
Local-Option Village, A..... 363
Longevity, Extreme 490
Louisiana Lottery..... 402
Machine Candidates, A Bad Day for.... 529
Maryland, First Israelite in..... 470
Massachusetts, Woman Suffrage in..249, 269
Means and Ends..... 270
Medford, Mass., Brooks's History of.... 97
Metempsychosis, Something New on... 448
Michigan, Civil-Service Reform in..... 13
Michigan, The President's Excuse in.... 53
Municipal Government, Important Element of..... 552
Nevada Oranges..... 163
New Jersey Chancellorship..... 317
Office-holders as Political Workers..... 162
Oil on Stormy Waters, Effect of..... 13
Old Clothes for the Free List..... 186
One-Man Power 206
Opéra Comique, Fire at the..... 553
Orvieto, Cathedral of..... 490
Pensions, Next Thing in..... 117
Perversion of History..... 74
Philadelphia, Labor Vote in..... 162
Philadelphia Postmastership..... 228
Plagiarism, Psychic..... 342
Plastounoff's Book Swindling..... 117, 142, 163, 207, 363
Postal Savings Banks..... 315
President and the Constitution..... 206
Protection against Western Wheat.... 76
Public and Private Interest..... 161
Railroad Evil, The Real..... 32
Reichstag, The New, Composition of .. 342
"Reliable," etc..... 97
Religious Statistics..... 10, 76
Russian Beggar, A..... 117, 142, 163, 207
Saunter, Derivation of..... 76, 185
Sharples Portraits..... 74
Silver and Greenbacks..... 31, 53
Silver, Discrimination against..... 31, 98
Skylarks? Why Have We No 479
Slip of the Pen..... 98
Soldier's Patriotism 142
South, The New..... 207
Stevens, Alfred, Another View of..... 447
Stone, Gen. Chas. P., The Late..... 98
Story without an End..... 53
Surnames, Transformation of..... 228, 250, 272, 294, 318, 342, 404
Surplus Revenue and the Bonds..... 529
Tariff and Socialism..... 227
Taxation of Personal Property 207
Teachers, the Supply of..... 32, 96
Tennessee, State Debt of 489
Tolstoi's "Autobiography"..... 12
Versifying Made Easy..... 363
Ways and Means..... 141
Western Mortgages..... 386, 425, 446
West Virginia Senatorial Situation..271, 448
Wolseley on Lee..... 362, 316, 362, 403
Woman Suffrage in Massachusetts..249, 269
Working Classes, Legislation for the. 32, 75
Workingman's Thoughts on Labor..... 270

Leading Reviews.

Adams's Emancipation of Massachusetts..... 189
American School of Evolutionists..... 121
Artistic Imagination..... 16
Asia, Central..... 475
Bancroft's British Columbia..... 367
Bancroft's Conquest of California..... 59
Blake, Admiral..... 511
Blockade-Runner, A..... 19
Brazil, Recent Works on..... 389
British Power in India..... 556
British Sergeant, A..... 535
Carlyle's Early Letters..... 97
Carlyle's Indebtedness to Goethe..... 391
Catharine II., Crimean Journey of 60
Channing, William Henry..... 101
Conway's Early Flemish Artists..... 214
Criticule Rampant, A..... 515
Divina Commedia, Time References in the 322
Dowden's Shelley..... 146
England's Case against Home Rule..... 59
English Letter Foundries, Old..... 347
Etymology, Some Recent Works on.... 82
Franklin in France..... 368
French Books, Recent..... 192, 275
French Constitutionalist on the English Constitution..... 451
Fyffe's Modern Europe..... 297
Gardiner's Great Civil War 233
Ghiberti 81
Greville Memoirs..... 108
Hannington, Bishop..... 408
Hauser, Kaspar, Story of..... 254
Hayward's Correspondence..... 212
Heraldry, Crazy..... 390
Israel, Ancient..... 211, 235
Italian Sculptor, A Modern..... 101
Jebb's Introduction to Homer..... 429
Ladd's Physiological Psychology..... 473
Law Books, Recent..... 109, 495
Lee, Robert E..... 321, 346
Loftie's London..... 407
McClellan's Own Story..... 57, 79
Mathematical Works, Recent 400
Maudsley on the Supernatural..... 253
Non-English Settlements in North America..... 302
Novels, Recent..... 17, 123, 147, 278, 299, 429, 453, 533
Oliver's Madagascar..... 190
Oriental Story-book..... 324
Philosophic Literature, Recent..... 370
Plumptre's Translation of the Divine Comedy..... 102
Poetry, Recent..... 208
Pomeroy's International Law..... 277
Price's London Guildhall..... 513, 534
Primitive Races..... 104
Railway Publications..... 556
Religious and Ethical Literature, Recent..... 61
Scherer's Essay on Goethe..... 514
Schumann Letters, More..... 493
Seeley's Napoleon..... 37
Skeats's Piers Plowman..... 274
Stage, Books about the..... 473
Stephens's French Revolution..... 166
Thayer's Greek-English Lexicon of the New Testament..... 83
Verdi, Giuseppe..... 210
Walker's Second Army Corps..... 149
Year Books, The Latest..... 82

Titles of Books Reviewed.

(For lesser notices see also the Notes.)

Agnes Surriage (Bynner's)..... 17
Agriculture in its Relations with Chemistry (Storer's)..... 350
Algebra (Chrystal's)..... 409
Algebra, (Oliver, Walt, Jones's) Treatise on..... 409
Alston, (Peabody's) Last Evening with 302
America Heraldica (Vermont's)..... 390

American Ancestry (Hughes's)..... 477
American Home Rule (Robertson's)..... 517
American Literature (Richardson's)..... 172
America, (Bernard's) Retrospections of 170
Ancient Cities (Wright's)..... 63
André Maynard, peintre (Mairet's)..... 193
Angleterre, (Boutmy's) Développement de la Constitution en..... 451
Arguments to Courts and Juries (Johnston's)..... 495
Art, (Van Dyke's) Principles of..... 411
Aztecs (Biart's)..... 415
Bachelor's Blunder (Norris's)..... 17
Baldine (Edler's)..... 453
Ballads of Books (Matthews's)..... 236
Baltimore and 19 April, 1861 (Brown's)..... 412
Bank of England, (Rogers's) First Nine Years of..... 558
Baptists, Armitage's) History of the..... 536
Basque Provinces, (Monteiro's) Legends of..... 195
Bede, Venerable..... 194
Between Two Loves (Barr's)..... 123
Biographical Annals (Lanman's)..... 349
Bishops in the Town (Lackock's)..... 302
Blake, Admiral (Hannay's)..... 511
Book Fancier (Fitzgerald's)..... 41
Book worm, (Beeby's) Diversions of a..... 302
Borderland (Fothergill's)..... 278
Boston, Old, (Porter's) Rambles in..... 394
Bow of Orange Ribbon (Barr's)..... 123
Brain, (Ferrier's) Functions of the..... 173
Brazil, (Andrews's)..... 389
Brazil, (Wells's) 3,000 Miles through..... 389
Bride of the Nile (Ebers's)..... 429
British Columbia (Bancroft's)..... 367
British Isles, (Bartholomew's) Gazetteer of the..... 371
British Power in the East, (Elphinstone's) Rise of..... 556
British Trade to the East Indies (Stevens's)..... 348
Bugle Echoes (Browne's)..... 299
Bulgarians, (Rubin's) Struggle of the, for national independence..... 127
By Woman's Wit (Alexander's)..... 278
California (Bancroft's)..... 39
Cannibals and Convicts (Thomas's)..... 519
Canning, George (Hill's)..... 497
Carlyle, Thomas, (Norton's) Early Letters of..... 37
Cassiodorus, (Hodgkin's) Letters of..... 279
Celebrities of the Century (Sanders's)..... 393
Central America (Bancroft's)..... 518
Chace, Geo. Ide (Murray's)..... 282
Channing, Wm. Henry, (Frothingham's) Memoir of..... 101
Channing's, Dr., Note Book..... 214
Child of the Century (Wheelwright's)..... 453
Chinese Ghosts, (Hearn's) Some..... 456
Chivalry, (Ashton's) Romance of..... 69
Christian Platonists of Alexandria (Biggs's)..... 372
Cities, (Tenth Census) Social Statistics of..... 256
Civitas (Campbell's)..... 290
Clay, Henry, (Schurz's) Life of..... 536
Coach, (Champlin's) Chronicle of the..... 21
Collisions in U. S. Waters (Preble's)..... 170
Colors for Naturalists, (Ridgway's) Nomenclature of..... 216
Conception of the Infinite (Fullerton's) 370
Constitutional Law of the United States (Holst's) 495, (Thompson's)..... 169
Contemporains, Les (Lemaitre's)..... 276
Contracts, (Bishop's) Commentaries on the Law of..... 495
Contracts, (Black's) Constitutional Prohibitions against Impairing the Obligation of..... 495
Contracts, (Hare's) Law of..... 170
Contre le Flot (Claveau's)..... 276
Count Xavier (Gre-ville's)..... 147
Customs, (Elmes's) Law of..... 493
Cycling (Bury and Hilller's)..... 476
Dante (Ward's)..... 537
Dante, (Plumptre's) Commedia and Canzoniere of..... 102
Dante, (Scartazzini's) Handbook to..... 454
Dean Maitland, (Grey's) Silence of..... 17
Demigod, A..... 123
Dictionnaire étymologique (Pourret's). 82
Diman, Rev. J. L, (Hazard's) Memoirs of..... 40
Divina Commedia, (Moore's) Time References in the..... 322
Dogaressa (Melmont's)..... 302
Dragon, Image, and Demon (Du Bose's).. 126
Due North (Ballou's)..... 537
Dupré, G., Life (Pennell's)..... 191
Thoughts on Art..... 191
East Indies, (Stevens's) British Trade to the..... 348
Easton, Mass., (Chaffin's) History of..... 255
Ecclesiastical English (Moon's)..... 515
Eglise Française à la Nouvelle York, Registers of the..... 20
Egypt, Ancient, (Rawlinson's) Story of. 477
Egyptian Campaigns (Royle's)..... 516
Electric Motor (Martin and Wetzler's). 86
Elements of Right and of the Law (Smith's)..... 170
Eminent Authors of the Nineteenth Century (Brandes's)..... 20
England and Russia Face to Face in Asia (Yate's)..... 474
England, Bank of (Rogers's)..... 558
England's Case against Home Rule (Dicey's)..... 59
English and Scottish Popular Ballads (Child's)..... 325
English History, (Wheeler's) Sketches from..... 151
English Prose and Prose Writers, (Hunt's) Representative..... 257
English, The New (Oliphant's)..... 236
Essays (Vila Blake's)..... 85
Estoppel, (Bigelow's) Law of..... 170
Ethics, (Sidgwick's) Outlines of the History of..... 61
Ethik (Wundt's)..... 61
Europe, Modern, (Fyffe's History of... 297
Evangelical Revival in the Eighteenth Century (Overton's)..... 455
Expression, (Brown's) Synthetic Philosophy of..... 172
Factory System, (Taylor's) History of.. 85
Familiar Studies of Men and Books (Stevenson's)..... 517
Feud of Oakfield (Teck Rovee's)..... 453
Flandre, (Dehaisnes's) Histoire de l'Art dans la..... 280
Flemish Artists, Early, (Conway's)..... 214
Forty Years, (Gibb's) History of the..... 224
Française, (Brunot's) Grammaire historique de la langue..... 82
France, D'Ancienne, (Fiach's) Origines de..... 349
Francis (Dal Vero's)..... 17
Franklin in France (Hale's)..... 368
Frau Wilhelmine (Stinde's)..... 147
Fredericksburg, Campaign of..... 278
French Explorations and Settlements in North America (Winsor's)..... 392
French Language, (Brachet's) Etymological Dictionary of the..... 82
French Revolution, (Stephens's) History of..... 166
From the Forecastle to the Cabin (Samuels's)..... 517
Fuster, Madame (Fabre's)..... 192
Geological Field, (Winchell's) Walks and Talks in..... 302
German Classics (Lichtenstein's)..... 477
Ghiberti et son école (Perkins's)..... 81
Gilchrist, Anne (Gilchrist's)..... 476
Goethe and Carlyle, (Norton's) Correspondence between..... 391
Goethe, (Scherer's) Aufsätze über..... 514
Goethe's Faust (Saunder's)..... 127
Golden Justice (Bishop's)..... 278
Great Civil War (Gardiner's)..... 233
Greek British Legation of the New Testament (Thayer's)..... 83
Greek Lessons (Keep's)..... 559
Guildhall of London (Price's) Account of..... 513, 534
Halfa (Oliphant's)..... 466
Hannington, James (Dawson's)..... 408
Hausen, (Van de Weyer in Linde's)..... 454
Hayward, Abraham, Correspondence.. 212
Histoire et Littérature (Brunetière's).. 276
Home Life of Great Authors (Griswold's)..... 85
Homer (Jebb's)..... 429
Homeward Yarns (Whitney's)..... 299
Horse-keeper, (Fleming's) Practical.. 237
Huguenots and Henry of Navarre (Baird's)..... 433
I Am That I Am (Warriner's)..... 299
Imagination in Landscape Painting (Hamerton's)..... 16
Impôt, le revenu, (Lyon's) Rapport sur les questions relatives à l'..... 538
Impôts, (Say's) Solutions démocratiques de la question des..... 414
Indice de las Notas de D. Diego Clemencin (Bradford's)..... 267
Infinite, (Fullerton's) Conceptions of the..... 370
In One Town (Downey's)..... 453
International Law in Time of Peace (Pomeroy's)..... 277
International Law of the United States, (Wharton's) Digest of..... 169
International Law (Davis's) Outlines of..... 496
Interpretation, (Farrar's) History of... 61
Inter-State Commerce, (Harper's) Law of..... 495
In the Clouds (Murfree's)..... 147
In the Wrong Paradise (Lang's)..... 299
Ireland, (Towle's) Young People's History of..... 302
Irish Life, (Gregg's)..... 21
Israel, (Stade's) Geschichte des Volkes.. 211, 235
Jeanne Avril (Bonnières's)..... 277
Jenseits von Gut und Böse (Nietzsche's) 61
Jess (Haggard's)..... 429
Jesuit's Ring (Hayes's)..... 429
Kalia (Merrill's)..... 232
Katy of Catoctin (Townsend's)..... 17
Klaus Bewer's Wife (Lindau's)..... 299
Knight-Errant (Lyall's)..... 532
Lamarck, Darwin, et Haeckel, (Vianna de Lima's) Exposé sommaire des théories transformistes de..... 106
Landlord and Tenant, (Taylor's) American Law of..... 495
Lawrence, Sergeant Wm., Autobiography of..... 535
Law, (Dole's) Talks about..... 496
Lee, Robert E. (Long's)..... 321, 346
Letter Writers, (Reed's) Old English.. 299
Liber Amoris (Carpenter's)..... 299
Ligne, Prince de, Lettres du..... 60
Lorimer (Gift's)..... 453
Locksley Hall Sixty Years After (Tennyson's)..... 298
Logan, John A., (Dawson's) Life of..... 557
Logic, (Carroll's) Game of..... 456
London (Loftie's)..... 407
Longfellow, H. W., (Longfellow's) Final Memorials of..... 431
Look Round Literature (Buchanan's).. 411
Lovely Wang (Wingfield's)..... 453
Mc Clellan's Own Story..... 67, 79
Machinery, (Kennedy's) Mechanics of.. 410
Madagascar (Oliver's)..... 190
Mahogany Tree (Thackeray's)..... 21
Mammalia in their Relation to Primeval Times (Schmidt's)..... 149
Margaret, (Martin's)..... 299
Marquis of Peñalta (Valdés's)..... 17
Martyr of Golgotha (Escrich's)..... 147
Massachusetts, (Adams's) Emancipation of..... 189
Mathematical Teaching (Safford's)..... 173
Maximilian's Empire, (Schroeder's) Fall of..... 237
Mediæval and Modern History, (Stubbs's) Seventeen Lectures on... 193
Mémoires d'aujourd'hui (Bonnières's). 276
Merry Men (Stevenson's)..... 429
Messis Vitæ (Blackie's)..... 299
Mexican Guide (Janvier's)..... 126
Microscopy for Beginners (Stokes's)..... 350
Millionaire of Rough and Ready (Harte's)..... 278
Mineral Physiology and Physiography (Hunt's)..... 538
Minerals, Common, (Crosby's) Tables for the Determination of..... 257
Minister's Charge (Howells's)..... 123
Miss Maple's Romance..... 532
Miss Churchill (Reid's)..... 429
Modern Idols (Thorne's)..... 84
Money and Other Things, About, (Craik's)..... 62
Morale, (Letourneau's) L'Evolution de la..... 61
Morals, (Wilson and Fowler's) Principles of..... 61
Mural Painting (Crowninshield's)..... 105
Muramasa Blade (Werthelmer's)..... 40
Musical History, (Davis's) Studies in..... 414
Napoleon I, (Seeley's) Short History of 37
Natural Causes and Supernatural Seemings (Maudsley's)..... 253
Naturvölker (Schneider's)..... 104
Nemra (Graham's)..... 17
New England Idyll (Greene's)..... 429
New Haven, (Levermore's) Republic of. 194
New Testament, (Thayer's) Greek-English Lexicon of..... 83
New York (Roberts's)..... 456
New York, (Lanman-r's) Story of a..... 532
Nordafrika (Diercks's)..... 195
Normans, (Jewett's) Story of the..... 477
Nouveaux Mélanges d'histoire et de littérature..... 275
Obiter Dicta (Birrell's)..... 559
Odyssey (Carnarvon's)..... 298
Ohio Corporations (Brewer and Lauscher's)..... 170
Onnalinda (McNaughton's)..... 299
Opera Français, Nouvelle and Thoinan's) Origines de l'..... 474
Oratorios, (Upton's) Standard..... 105
Origin of the Fittest (Cope's)..... 121
Pairing, (Greville's) Impressions on.... 433
Papacy during the Reformation (Creighton's)..... 325
Parleyings with Certain People (Browning's)..... 298
Parliament, (Skottowe's) Short History of..... 278
Pêcheur d'Islande (Viaud's)..... 192
Perley's Reminiscences (Poore's)..... 434
Perry's Journal (Winsor's)..... 106
Persia, (Benjamin's) Story of..... 350
Pharaohs of the Bondage and the Exodus (Robinson's)..... 394
Phelps, Samuel, (Phelps's) Life of..... 473
Phillips Exeter Lectures..... 537
Philosophical Study, (Starck's) A..... 497
Philosophy, Aristotle (Mcish's)..... 370
Philosophy, (Alexander's) Scme Problems of..... 370
Physiology, (Foster's) Text-book of..... 173
Piers the Plowman (Skeats's)..... 274
Pleadings in Personal Actions (Heard's) 170
Poetical Works (Parnell's)..... 298
Police Power in the U. S., (Tiedman's) Limitations of..... 169
Princess Casamassima (James's)..... 123
Private Soldier in the Army of the Potomac (Wilkeson's)..... 236
Psychological Theory, (Bowne's) Introduction to..... 370
Psychologist (Bishop's)..... 17
Psychology (Dewey's)..... 370
Psychology (McCosh's)..... 370
Purpose of the Ages (Morison's)..... 298
Question of Identity..... 299
Railway Law, (Patterson's)..... 170
Railway Practice (Alexander's)..... 556
Railway Problems (Jeans's)..... 556
Railway Rates (Fairlie's)..... 556
Railway Supplies, (Kirkman's) Handling of..... 556
Raleigh (Gosse's)..... 85
Rankeiu Reader (Wendell's)..... 123
Reade, Charles (Reades')..... 455
Real Property (Washburn's)..... 170
Recollections of My Mother (Lesley's).. 516
Registers of the French Church of New York..... 20
Religion, (Bienbam's) Dictionary of.... 478
Religion, (Dahl's) Die Nothwendigkeit der..... 61
Religion, (Pfleiderer's) Philosophy of.. 61
Religionersatzes, (Druskowitz's) Moderne Versuche eines..... 61
Reminiscences of a Country Journalist (Frost's)..... 279
Revisers' English (Moon's)..... 515
Revolution, (Taylor's) Ballads of the... 299
Rhetoric, Practical (Clark's)..... 195
Rhode Island, (Austin's) Genealogical Dictionary of..... 413
Road and the Roadside (Coster's)..... 170
Rodman the Keeper (Woolson's)..... 299
Roland Blake (Mitchell's)..... 17
Romanischen Philologie, (Gröber's) Grundriss der..... 280
Romantisme français (Crane's)..... 371
Rome, (Muirhead's) Private Law of.... 170
Romische Reisebilder (Reinsmoullié's). 325
Sabina Zembra (Black's)..... 532
Salem, (Silsbee's) Half-Century in..... 194
Saracens, (Ameer Ali's) Story of the.... 127
Saracinesca (Crawford's)..... 532
Schumann's Briefe, Robert..... 493
Scotland, (Macgibbon and Ross's) Castellated and Domestic Architecture of..... 279
Second Army Corps, (Walker's) History of..... 149
Sentimental Calendar..... 299
She (Haggard's)..... 532
Shelley, P. B., (Dowden's) Life of..... 146
Siam (Cort's)..... 301
Siddons, Mrs. (Kennard's)..... 473
Sidney, Sir Philip (Symonds's)..... 349
Sigrid (Thoroddsen's)..... 532
Silent Workman (Ross's)..... 147
Sir Percival (Shorthouse's)..... 123
Sketches and Impressions (Goodwin's). 372
Sketches from My Life (Robart Pasha's)..... 19
Sne (Kjelland's)..... 326
Socrates, Talks with, about Life..... 171
Sonnets (Pfeiffer's)..... 299
Sons and Daughters..... 299
Souvenirs of My Time (Frémont's)..... 216
Spies, (Lossing's) Two..... 151
Spiritismus, In Sachen des, und einer naturwissenschaftlichen Psychologie (Bastian's)..... 61
Squire of Sandal-Side (Barr's)..... 299
Stage d'Adhémar (Rabusson's)..... 193
Step Aside (Dunning's)..... 17
Strike in the B—— Mill..... 453
Surveying (Gillespie's)..... 410
Taken by Siege..... 299
Templars in Cyprus (Lewis's Werner's)..... 299
Tennessee, (Lindsley's) Confederate Military Annals of..... 215
Teresa Itasca (MacAlpine's)..... 147
Théâtre, (Régnier's) Souvenirs et Etudes de..... 473
Théâtres de 1800 à 1880, nos (Leveaux's)..... 473
Towards the Gulf..... 147
Tramp Trip (Sierwether's)..... 173
Two Gentlemen of Boston..... 453
Two Gentlemen of Bohemia..... 453
Tzar, Archidiscevese of Burgraves (Lubomirski's)..... 193
United States, (Lanman's) Biographical Annals of the Civil Government of. 349
United States Constitutional Law (Holst's), 495 (Pomeroy's)..... 169
United States, (Moore's) Digest of the International Law of..... 169
United States Supreme Court, (Kinney's) Digest of the Decisions of.... 169
Universities, (Laurie's) Rise and Early Constitution of..... 215
Verdi (Oppenheim's)..... 210
Victims (Gift's)..... 453
Victoria, Queen, (Greville's) Journal of the Reign of..... 168
Village Photographs (Larned's)..... 301
Wade, Benj. F. (Riddle's)..... 104
Wages, (Tenth Census) Statistics of.... 125
Waste-Land Wooings (Abbott's)..... 475
When I Was a Boy in China (Li's)..... 559
Whole Truth (Chadwick's)..... 453
Without Blemish (Meredith's)..... 532
Woman Suffrage, (Stanton, Anthony, Gage's) History of..... 432
Woodlanders (Hardy's)..... 429
Woodland Tales (Stinde's)..... 532
Words as the Symbols of Ideas, (Darmesteter's) Life of..... 82
Wordsworth, Dorothy Lee's..... 256
Year Books of Edward III. (Pike's)..... 82
Year in Eden (Preston's)..... 299
Years of Peril (Brown's)..... 413
Zealot in Tulle (Wildrick's)..... 453
Zyte (Malot's)..... 193

Books of the Week.

21, 41, 64, 86, 106, 128, 151, 173, 195, 237, 257, 281, 303, 326, 350, 372, 394, 415, 434, 457, 478, 497, 518, 539, 560.

Fine Arts.

Salmagundi Club Exhibition..... 86
Water-Color Exhibition..... 128
Etching Club Exhibition..... 129
Academy Exhibition..... 327, 373
Exhibition of Photographs at Liverpool..... 384
Society of American Artists..... 415, 435
American Art Association..... 457

ERRATA.

Page 15, col. i, line 21. For "Pittsburgh" read "Pilsbury."

Page 40, cols. ii and iii *passim*. For "Wertheimer" read "Wertheimber."

Page 43, col. i, bottom line. Omit all after "obey" to end of sentence.

Page 54, col. iii, line 6 from bottom. For "Red" read "Swiss."

Page 134, col. iii, line 32. For "forty-eight" read "thirty-eight."

Page 140, col. iii, line 37 from bottom. For "acceped" read "accepted."

Page 165, col. iii, line 42. Omit "or preposition."

Page 185, col. ii, line 12 from bottom. For "*rile*" read "*vile*."

Page 321, col. iii, line 6 from bottom. Dele "Scott had no children."

Page 385, col. ii, line 17 and *passim* in the same letter. For "Comanlville" read "Communville." Col. iii, line 4. For "caro" read "Caro."

Page 390, col. i, lines 6 and 10. For "Depauw" read "De Pauw." Line 8. For "Indianapolis" read "the Palmer House, Chicago."

Page 447, col. iii, line 28 from bottom. For colon substitute a period.

Page 472, col. i, line 4. For "F. G. Stimson" read "F. J. Stimson."

Page 509, col. ii, line 34. For "Mrs." read "Mr."

Page 511, col. i, line 30 from bottom. For "Gustave" read "Frédéric."

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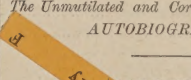

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 1

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS 4

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:
- Salaries of the United States District Judges 6
- Tobacco 6
- Some Recent Mexican Legislation 7
- German vs. American University Salaries 7

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:
- The Daily and Periodical Press in Italy 8
- A New View of La Bruyère 9

CORRESPONDENCE:
- Religious Statistics 10
- History and the Group System 11
- Domestic Service from a Western Point of View 11
- Bishop Coxe's Half-Knowledge 12
- Tolstoi's "Autobiography" 12
- The Inter-State Commerce Bill 13
- Civil-Service Reform in Michigan 13
- Secret Sympathy with Crime 13
- The Effect of Oil on Stormy Waters 13

NOTES 13

REVIEWS:
- Artistic Imagination 16
- Recent Novels 17
- A Blockade-Runner 19
- Eminent Authors of the Nineteenth Century 20
- Registers of the Births, Marriages, and Deaths 20
- Chronicle of the Coach 21
- The Mahogany Tree 21
- Irish History for English Readers 21

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 21

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 6, 1887.

The Week.

THE remarks made by Mr. Wm. P. St. John, President of the Mercantile National Bank, at the dinner of the Commercial Club of Providence, embody very sound opinions upon the silver question and the national-bank question, yet without carrying conviction that the plan which he favors is either feasible or desirable. The course of reasoning that he follows leads to the conclusion that the country can carry a great deal more silver in its circulation than it now carries, and that, therefore, it would be wise to come to an agreement with the silver men and fix the maximum amount of compulsory coinage now, at (say) $500,000,000. Mr. St. John points to the example of France to show that it does not follow that a great silver currency causes a nation to lose its gold, or prevents it from importing more gold. The fact stated by Mr. St. John, that France has made net gold imports of nearly $300,000,000 during the past eleven and one-half years, in spite of her $550,000,000 of silver coin, is a very telling one. It coincides with our own experience, which shows that the movement of gold to and from this country goes on regardless of the operations of the mint, being as indifferent to them, indeed, as to the production of Bessemer steel, or to the construction of cruisers for the navy. The significance of this fact will be learned after a little by the silver men themselves, and when they learn it they will stop the compulsory coinage without any bargain with the anti-silver men, provided they are not strong enough to secure free coinage.

The significance of the observed facts in both France and the United States is only half understood, or, at all events, only half explained, by Mr. St. John. He perceives clearly that movements of gold between the different nations are controlled by the balance of trade —not the balance shown by the custom-house, which may be very illusory, but the real balance of debit and credit arising from the exchange of all other things except gold. Now in countries where the gold standard prevails silver falls into the category of "all other things," no matter how much of it may be in circulation or in warehouse. That portion which is in circulation is three parts value and one part "fiat." The greenback is all fiat and no value whatever. Now if we can divest ourselves for a moment of all preconceptions concerning silver as a "precious metal"—a character which it does not now enjoy in the commercial world, except as platinum may be called one of the precious metals—we shall see that for all purposes of expelling gold the greenback dollar is quite as powerful an agent as the silver dollar under present conditions. What they might be under conditions of free silver coinage or of unlimited greenbacks it is not necessary now to inquire. We may play with silver as much as we like, and we may give it what names we like, its effect, so long as the gold dollar is *de facto* the standard and *de jure* the unit of value, as a gold-expelling agent is no greater than that of the greenback, but may conceivably be much less, since silver has intrinsic value equal to three-fourths of its face value. Mr. St. John seems to think that the coinage of some considerable amount of silver above $500,000,000 under the present law would expel gold and bring on some kind of crisis, and that therefore it would be wise to compromise on $500,000,000 as a maximum now. His apprehensions on this point coincide with the hopes of the silver men. If he or anybody can convince them that continued coinage will have the effect to expel gold and bring the country to the silver standard, no compromise can be got out of them, because that is just what they want. But evidence is not wanting that their leaders are becoming doubtful whether the $2,000,000 per month law, or anything less than free coinage, will bring the country to the silver standard. It was for this reason that Mr. Bland made such a vigorous push at the last session for the free coinage of silver. His failure has undoubtedly led him to contemplate the stoppage of the present coinage within some determined limit which shall have the appearance of a victory for the silverites.

Ex-Gov. Hoadly writes to us, as illustrating the needlessness of the Cullom and Reagan Inter State Commerce Bills, that in Ohio, while he was Governor—that is, from January, 1884, to January, 1886—not one complaint of railroad management reached the office of the Commissioner of Railroads and Telegraphs, and he thinks this is also true of the past year. The only railroad trouble in Ohio, he says, arises out of the practice of discrimination between large and small shippers, and the courts have shown themselves fully able to take care of such cases without the aid of legislation. Since Judge Baxter removed Gen. Pease from his office as receiver of the Cleveland and Marietta Railroad for granting a rebate to the Standard Oil Company, and the Supreme Court enjoined any discrimination between large and small shippers in the case of Scofield vs. the Lake Shore Railway Company (43, Ohio State Reports, 571), there has been no doubt of the power of the courts to abate this evil. Within a fortnight, too, the Attorney-General of the State has begun proceedings in quo warranto to forfeit the charters of two other railroads for alleged discriminations of this kind.

The Chicago *Tribune*, discussing with Mr. Geo. R. Blanchard the same question as raised in the Inter-State Commerce Bill, makes the ingenious argument that since our long lines of railway from the Mississippi to the Atlantic are made up of separate lines pieced together, and since the operation of the short-haul section is limited by the words "under substantially similar circumstances and conditions," the short-haul clause does not necessarily apply to such long distances as between Milwaukee and New York. It says:

> "The bill does not legalize as great a rate from Racine and Evanston as from Milwaukee to New York, but leaves the associated carriers to justify it if they can. Nor does it require the charge between Racine and Evanston by a single common carrier to be determined or measured by any percentage the connecting roads between Milwaukee and New York may agree to pay the Milwaukee and St. Paul, be the same more or less; and it is just there that Mr. Blanchard misinterprets the bill—the result, doubtless, of hasty or superficial reading.
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> . . . . . .
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> "The rate from St. Paul to New York must be fixed by a combination of carriers, each acting for and by itself; that from Racine to Evanston by a single carrier acting individually between its own terminals. The first transaction as compared with the second is remote and unrelated, and neither rate would be necessarily dependent on the other.
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> "The Milwaukee roads taking grain from Milwaukee to Chicago without loading at one point or unloading at the other would not perform the service under 'conditions and circumstances' similar to those in the case of a shipment between Racine and Evanston, where the roads would perform station services at each place."

This means that the bill is nugatory, or may be made so, as between connecting lines. That Senator Cullom does not so understand it is made plain by a letter addressed by him a few days ago to Mr. Datus C. Smith of New York, in which he says that "if goods or grain should be shipped from Chicago to New York on a given line of road, that road should not charge more from, say, Fort Wayne, if the line should be the Pennsylvania Road, to New York, than from Chicago to New York—not per mile, but the total or aggregate charge; Fort Wayne being 140 miles nearer New York than Chicago. The provision also says that the Commission may in special cases, on application by the railroad, after investigation, give the railroad relief from the operation of the short-haul provision if it sees proper to do so." As the distance from Fort Wayne to New York by any route requires a haul on two or three separate lines of railway, it is evident that Mr. Cullom does not see the matter in the same light as the Chicago *Tribune*.

The long-haul and short-haul question has been a subject of increasing agitation in England for some years, and is to be examined in Parliament in the course of the next session, together with other railway problems. The *Economist* considers the charging of a greater price for a short haul than for a long one on the same line of rails indefensible. The argument on the other side, which maintains that English railways must take goods destined for the Continent at any rate they can get above cost of hauling, or lose the traffic altogether, allowing it to pass into the hands of foreign competitors, to the detriment of English manufacturers, it meets by saying that this is requiring British consumers to pay an indirect tax to enable the producers to compete with the German, French, and Belgian manufacturers. The operation has this appearance undoubtedly, but the question is still to be answered, How would the consumer be helped by stopping the export trade, or that portion of it which depends upon the minimum freight

charge and could not be carried on at all without it? Surely the railroads may be trusted to charge all that this traffic will bear. They will never let a penny slip through their fingers by reason of not charging enough. If the law steps in and says you shall not carry goods from Manchester to Dover for less than you charge from Manchester to any intermediate point, the railway will have to sacrifice one or the other sort of traffic. It will not sacrifice that portion from which it gets nine tenths of its revenue. It will let go the one-tenth. The nine-tenths will be no better, but may be worse off than before, as being called on to make good the loss of the one tenth.

Mr. A. J. Falls, a Washington attorney, is endeavoring to secure the passage of a bill, which Representative Morrow has in charge, providing for an appeal to the Attorney-General from decisions of the First Comptroller adverse to the claims of marshals and commissioners of the United States courts. It appears that the present Comptroller has been disallowing many claims for expenses and charges for services preferred by such officers, and pressed with great diligence by their attorneys in Washington, to the great consternation and loss of both, who had no idea that any Treasury official would attempt to deprive them of those perquisites which for so many years have been duly allowed when properly "looked after." These disallowances thus made must stand. It is not in the power of the President or of the Secretary of the Treasury to change or reverse any of the Comptroller's decisions. The right to do so was constantly claimed by heads of departments from the beginning of our Government. It was strengthened by opinions of attorneys-general, and frequently admitted by the accounting officers, but at last the vexed question, which had caused in the Treasury more dispute than any other, was set at rest by the act of 1868, which declared the decisions of the Comptroller conclusive upon the executive branch of the Government. The bill in question, if it should become a law, would constitute an exception to this act of 1868, for the Attorney-General is now a part of the executive branch of the Government, he having been made the head of the Department of Justice in 1870. And of all the heads of departments, he is the last who should be permitted to disturb the rulings of the Comptroller upon the accounts of marshals and other officers of the United States courts, for the very excellent reason that he is their head. They are his subordinates; many of them are his appointees; he approves their accounts before they are submitted to the Comptroller; he is in consequence naturally prejudiced in their favor.

But there is no good reason why any claimant dissatisfied with a decision of a comptroller should not be allowed, without unreasonable delay or expense, to attack the grounds upon which it rests, before some appellate tribunal having jurisdiction only of such cases. There are thousands of instances in which an appeal to the Court of Claims is out of the question, because the amount involved is small; and a petition addressed to Congress is labor lost, for the reason, as Mr. Springer has lately said in his report, that the history of past legislation shows that only a fraction over 1 per cent. of the bills introduced for the relief of citizens for private and domestic claims against the Government (not including war claims) pass that body. The right of appeal would cause more consideration to be given to claims in the first instance by comptrollers, and it would diminish the labor of the Congressional Committee on "Private Claims." Indeed, it might be enacted that the adverse decision of the appellate tribunal should be the end of the matter. Why can we not have in the Treasury a method of procedure similar to that of the Patent Office, which has proved so satisfactory, namely, an appeal from one comptroller to the Board of Comptrollers, and from it, if it should be found necessary, to some one supreme over all?

"The proposition to make the small, illiterate, ill-assorted, three-fourths 'Greaser' population of New Mexico a State with two Senators, a Congressman, and three electoral votes, is one which even the most partisan Democrat should hesitate to press," says a Republican organ, and very properly too. But it is only fair to remember that a dozen years ago a Republican House did not "hesitate to press" and to adopt this same proposition. In May, 1874, a bill for the admission of New Mexico as a State passed the lower branch of Congress, then Republican by more than two to one, by an overwhelming majority; Mr. Kasson of Iowa rebuking a criticism of the illiteracy of the population, on the ground that such talk was unworthy a party which had given suffrage to 4,000,000 negroes in the South. But it must be remembered that in 1874 "Steve" Elkins was delegate from New Mexico, and the Republicans then expected the Territory to be a Republican State. "Circumstances alter cases."

Mayor O'Brien promptly justified the confidence of the Independents who supported him for a third term, by two vetoes which he sent to the Boston City Council on Monday week. One refused his signature to an order rescinding the proviso attached to the police item in the Appropriation Bill, that no money should be expended for the police signal system—on the grounds that if the Police Commissioners had, as was reported, contracted certain bills for the signal system in disregard of a direct prohibition, they should not be relieved from responsibility in the matter, and that every department must live up to the letter of the city charter, which forbids the incurring of liabilities for any purpose beyond the appropriation duly made therefor. The other veto was of an order requesting the Mayor to petition the Legislature for an act raising the limit of indebtedness established for next year from 2 per cent. to 2½ per cent., Mr. O'Brien holding that the act ought to have a fair trial, and that "it will be a check on extravagant schemes and expenditures which speculators are preparing to force upon the city." Both vetoes were sustained, and the Mayor's defence of the taxpayers' claims in the latter case was so unanswerable that only one Alderman voted to override him.

A gentleman who is interested in the question how the practice of "trading" and "selling out" at the polls shall be broken up, calls our attention to the system adopted in Boston. At the recent municipal election the "regular Republican ticket" bore this inscription: "This certifies that this ballot is the regular and genuine ballot of the Republican party, to be used at the election on December 14, 1886, in the city of Boston," with facsimiles of the signatures of the President and Treasurer of the Republican City Committee. In like manner the "regular Democratic ticket" bore a certificate, signed by the Chairman of the Printing Committee, that "this ballot contains only the regular Democratic nominees, and is issued by the Democratic City Committee of Boston." Such a certificate is an important aid to the identification of the ticket and a serious obstacle to the business of trading, and therefore a great advance upon the system—or rather lack of system—which we have in this city. But it ought to be possible to make improvements upon this, and it would hardly be possible to do a greater service in the cause of honest politics just now than to devise a practicable plan for State supervision of the distribution of ballots, to be submitted to the approaching Constitutional Convention.

The Prohibitionists are so much encouraged by the large increase in their vote at the recent elections that they are already reorganizing for the next campaign. The State Central Committee of the party in Minnesota recently held a meeting and laid plans for holding meetings throughout the State and for circulating prohibition literature. Great reliance is felt in this method of proselyting; and the fact that the steady increase in the number of newspapers devoted to the cause is accompanied by a similar growth in the dimensions of the party vote, appears to justify the confidence of the managers. Nowhere are any signs of weakening to be detected. On the contrary, the believers in prohibition appear to be resolved to make a stronger fight in 1888 than they did in 1884.

We spoke last week of the evil effects on the young rowdy population of this city of "Fatty" Walsh's appointment, owing to the fact that his career has been precisely that on which a large proportion of them are entering, or think they are entering. He began what we may call his public life as a member of the gang known as the "Dead Rabbits," who were a great terror to the city and trouble to the police before the war. The *Evening Post* reproduces from the columns of the New York *Times* of 1859 an account of his training for a prize-fight, as the custom is among the more muscular young men of his class. His opponent was "Mike" Norton, now another successful municipal statesman of the same school, for he has secured the

position of Civil Justice in the First District. The fight never came off, as the two young rufflans were captured and brought up before Mayor Tiemann. After that, Walsh's career followed the regular course. His pugilistic prowess raised him to eminence in ward politics. Eminence in ward politics made him influential with the police and District Attorney, so that he was able, during the next twenty years, or until he began to get old, to go on with impunity assaulting, fighting, carrying concealed weapons, getting drunk, gambling, opening liquor-stores and gambling-houses, cheating at the elections and in the primaries, or, in other words, leading a life of crime and vice. When hauled up, as he was two years ago for keeping a gambling house, he had only to tell the District Attorney that he had "reformed" in order to get the matter dropped.

Now, as we have said, Walsh's career is that which thousands of men in this city are following, and which thousands more mean to follow if they can. They form a stream of vice and crime which our religious people and philanthropists are constantly struggling to stem, and too often feel that they are struggling in vain. It was to keep these men out of the public service, and above all to keep their protégés and cronies out of it, that the Civil-Service Act was passed and made compulsory in the great cities. What, then, must be the effect on this vicious, idle, and lawless element of seeing one of their own chiefs and heroes, a man whose whole life has been a defiance of law and a menace to order, actually put in charge of the prison in which malefactors await their trial? We understand Commissioner Porter, who helped to appoint Walsh, is wagging his head, Hedden fashion, and declaring that he knows what he is about, and does not mind what the newspapers say, and is sure that "Walsh is a good man for the place." But how does he know it? He has not a single reason for supposing it. The only way of knowing whether a man is good for any place, is by observation of his character and career. If his life has been a vicious one, and he has never followed any regular calling, all the marks of fitness for any place of trust, however small, are wanting. We venture to assert there is not a business man in this city who would take Walsh as a janitor or elevator-man. Moreover, if the Commissioners, and men like Mr. Beekman, now in office, who signed Walsh's recommendation, suppose that this little escapade of theirs is going to be forgotten after they get Walsh into the place, they are hugely mistaken. It will never be forgotten as long as they show their noses in public life. People cannot afford in our time to overlook gentlemen who think old criminals are just the men to have charge of jails. There is something "distingué" about this which is a sure protection against oblivion.

The advantages of the fourteen years' term for judges of the courts of record, have been well illustrated during the past few days in the formalities which have attended the retirement of Judges Davis and Van Vorst from the bench of the Supreme Court. Fourteen years is about equivalent on the average to a life tenure, because it is not often that a man who has reached the age at which he becomes a suitable candidate for judicial honors has more than fourteen years' good work left in him. But in addition to this it is long enough to enable a good judge to make both a personal and professional impression on the bar and the public, and to make the close of his term an event which touches the imagination of everybody who cares to see the laws faithfully executed. The retirement of Judge Daly last year, and the retirement of Judges Davis and Van Vorst this year, are occurrences, therefore, which even those who care least for ceremony do not feel disposed to let pass unnoticed. Judge Davis has been an able and upright judge, who has carried his court through very exciting times without any other impeachment of his integrity than that he was too good a Republican, and too well satisfied that only half the American people had any interest in the maintenance of the Government, to hold the scales with an impartiality which all men would acknowledge. But this was a fault from which the greatest judicial luminaries both here and in England have not been exempt, and against which men of strong natures and decided opinions find it almost impossible to guard themselves. Those who love to see a judge live in a wholly judicial atmosphere, and to pursue without fear and without reproach, but most quietly and unostentatiously, the path of judicial duty, will find Judge Van Vorst a more attractive figure. When he left the bench, it lost a good man, in all senses of the word—an upright magistrate, whose integrity of purpose no one has ever had reason to question, and who will be followed into well-won repose by everybody's thanks and good wishes. Both judges have done honor to the elective system to which they owed their elevation.

There are a great many side-lights thrown upon American history in the biography of Abraham Lincoln by John G. Nicolay and John Hay, which seems likely to take a high place in our political literature. One of the most valuable of these, illustrating the character and forecast of Mr. Lincoln himself, is an extract from a letter written by him December 17, 1840, soon after the election of President Harrison, to John T. Stuart, member of Congress from the Springfield, Ill., district. Mr. Stuart and Mr. Lincoln were entitled, according to party usage, to the "patronage of the district." Mr. Lincoln, however, privately advised Mr. Stuart that he was not in favor of removing postmasters for mere political differences. He said:

> "This affair of appointments to office is very annoying, more so to you than to me doubtless. *I am, as you know, opposed to removals to make places for our friends.* Bearing this in mind I express my preferences in a few cases, as follows, etc."

In other words, although there was no Civil-Service Reform Society in existence, or even dreamed of, Mr. Lincoln was a civil-service reformer at heart. The letter now published was written only for the eye of the person to whom it was addressed. It was a confidential communication. It expressed his inmost thought, and we cannot doubt that the motive which prompted him to give this advice to his friend Congressman Stuart was a lively sense of the dangers of the spoils system inaugurated in the Presidency of Gen. Jackson, twelve years before. It is no small thing to have the testimony of Mr. Lincoln, obtained in this way, recorded in behalf of civil-service reform. It may be said that when Mr. Lincoln himself became President he did not act upon the principles laid down in this letter. But such a criticism has no force, since the torrent of war which met him at the threshold of office never gave him rest or opportunity to consider any policies unconnected with secession and slavery.

The steady improvement of business is freshly illustrated by the report of the Massachusetts Savings Bank Commissioners for the year ending with October. The amount of deposits is $16,199,488 larger than in 1885, which is a gain of nearly one-third upon the increase in 1885 over the record in 1884. There is no more sensitive business barometer than the savings bank, and the uniformity with which large gains in deposits are shown by the reports in the different States is therefore a matter of much significance. The improvement of business is not the only cause of this increase in savings. Another important element is the continued and growing cheapness of provisions. Tables compiled by the *American Grocer* show that the wholesale cost of staple articles of food has, with one or two exceptions, been lower in 1886 than in 1885, the average price of flour, $4.43 per barrel for straight winter wheat, being the lowest on record. It seems quite safe to say that it costs less to live now than at any previous time for a generation.

That the abolition of slavery was a boon to the South, solely from the material point of view, is already capable of demonstration. The Charleston *News and Courier* has just established this fact beyond question, so far as the State of South Carolina is concerned, by a comparison of its condition in the year before the war with the record for 1886. Last year the total value of the farm products was $44,109,501, which, despite the decline in prices of late, is very nearly as much as the value in 1860, while the number of manufacturing establishments has advanced during this period from 1,230 to 3,242, the capital invested has more than trebled, the number of hands employed has increased nearly five-fold, and the value of the products now reaches $29,951,551. Adding to agricultural products the products in the different branches of manufacturing and the outputs of the mines and quarries, the *News and Courier* considers it evident that the total income of the State is now fully 50 per cent. larger under freedom than in the most prosperous era of slavery. Allowing for the increase in population, the average income of each person is already about as large as before the war, and is growing larger rapidly every year. It is evident that the time for speaking of the South as "still impoverished by the war" has passed, and that in fact she is already better off than before the outbreak of the rebellion.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, December 29, 1886, to TUESDAY, January 4, 1887, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND resumed his official duties on Tuesday, though still suffering from rheumatic pains.

President Cleveland some months ago withdrew his name as honorary Vice-President of the American Exhibition in England.

The public-debt reduction during December was $9,358,202.

The body of Senator Logan, after brief ceremonies at his late residence, was on Thursday afternoon taken to the Senate Chamber, where it lay in state until Friday. At noon the funeral services were held in the presence of a distinguished assembly. The solemn services were begun by the reading of the Ninth Psalm by Bishop Andrews. Dr. Butler read as the burial service a portion of the Fifteenth Corinthians. Prayer was offered by Dr. Tiffany, and the funeral sermon was delivered by Dr. Newman. The body was then taken to Rock Creek Cemetery for temporary interment in a vault.

A movement has been started in Chicago to pay off Gen. Logan's debts, which amount to $30,000. This is in addition to the amount that is being raised for Mrs. Logan.

The Civil-Service Commissioners, after a careful investigation of the New York Custom-house, have submitted a report to the President recommending that promotion be made from class to class by a process of examination, upon certification of the whole list of eligibles to the promoting officer. The regulations which the President is considering will supersede the so-called "Hayes rules," under which promotions have heretofore been made in the New York Custom-house.

A movement is in progress among Southern men in Congress who are in favor of the reduction of the surplus, to form a combination by which the taxes upon fruit brandy and tobacco and its manufactures shall be abolished, and there is some expectation that Mr. Randall will coöperate in this scheme. It is also said by Democrats who ought to know that Mr. Morrison, during the holiday recess, has become convinced that it will be expedient for him to move again to consider revenue bills, and that it is not improbable that he will have a larger vote than he had before.

Prior to the recent discussion of the Inter-State Commerce Bill, the Merchants' and Manufacturers' Association of Cincinnati passed a resolution endorsing the measure and urging its adoption. On Thursday, after discussion, the former action was rescinded, and a resolution adopted setting forth that the bill in question in some of its features aims at a radical interference with the business interests of the country.

Mr. V. P. Snyder, Deputy Comptroller of the Currency, was on Saturday appointed Examiner of National Banks at the cities of New York, Brooklyn, and Jersey City, in place of Mr. A. M. Scriba.

The New York Legislature convened at 11 A. M. on Tuesday at Albany. James W. Husted (having received the caucus nomination of the Republicans) was elected Speaker of the Assembly by 73 votes to 51 for W. F. Sheehan (Dem.). Charles A. Chickering (Rep.) was reëlected Clerk.

The annual message of Gov. Hill was sent to the New York Legislature on Tuesday. He renews and enumerates sixteen recommendations of his previous messages which have not yet been embodied in legislation. Among the new recommendations which he makes are the following: (1) Some means to lessen the present burden of taxation on real estate, and provide for the taxation of that species of property which now almost entirely escapes assessment, to wit, the indebtedness of corporations, joint-stock companies and associations represented in the scrip, bonds, or certificates of indebtedness issued by such bodies. (2) A representation of all interests of the State in the coming Constitutional Convention. It is suggested that the Convention should consist of 110 delegates, of which 68 should be elected by districts, 2 from each Congressional district, and 42 should be elected from the State at large, no elector being permitted to vote for more than 15 delegates, and the 42 delegates receiving respectively the highest number of votes should be declared elected. (3) A legal holiday to be known as "Labor Day"; a special labor commission to examine the whole subject of the grievances of labor; and the making of manual training a part of the public-school system.

Presiding Justice Noah Davis of the Supreme Court of this city was on Thursday presented with an engrossed address by the New York bar in view of his retirement from the bench after a service of twenty-six years. His portrait by Huntington was presented to the Supreme Court. A reception was given him by the Bar Association in the evening.

Abram S. Hewitt sent his first message as Mayor of New York city to the Board of Aldermen on Monday. In it he says: "The change in the law which gave the appointment of commissioners to the Mayor has enabled my predecessor to make eight appointments by which the character of the commissions has been greatly improved. So far as the appointments may be made during my term of office, I shall endeavor not to fall below the standard of excellence which he has set up. Inasmuch, however, as I am necessarily lacking at the outset in the knowledge of municipal government which, fortunately, my predecessor possessed when his power of appointment was enlarged, I shall endeavor to supply it from the larger experience of the heads of departments, by calling them together from time to time for consultation. This course would seem to be especially necessary in view of the fact that the Legislature will begin its annual session to-morrow, and will be asked to consider measures of vital consequence to the city." He proposes to have a thorough investigation made by the Commissioners of Accounts before making any specific reform recommendations.

The Supreme Court of Pennsylvania rendered on Monday a decision relative to the penal statute of May 21, 1885, prohibiting the manufacture and sale of oleomargarine, which declares the law to be constitutional and valid.

Official count of the vote on the Minnesota State ticket was made on Monday. The result on Governor was: A. R. McGill (Rep.), 107,064; A. A. Ames (Dem.), 104,464; T. E. Childs (Proh.), 18,966; scattering, 37. Dr. Ames will contest the election.

The County Judges of the drought-stricken district of Texas met recently. Twenty counties were represented. They reported in the aggregate 27,900 persons in actual need of food and clothing. They have made an official report and published an appeal to the Legislature, and ask the endorsement of the Governor. They also make an appeal to charitable people for immediate relief.

It is announced that John Roach, the shipbuilder, is suffering from a cancer in the mouth, and that there is no longer any hope of his recovery.

James A. McMaster, for forty years the editor of the *Freeman's Journal*, a well-known Roman Catholic paper in this city, died on Wednesday in Brooklyn, aged sixty-seven years. In 1862 he was imprisoned in Fort Lafayette for publishing articles in favor of the rebellion.

Gen. William W. Loring (Loring Pasha) died at the St. Denis Hotel in this city on Thursday evening, having been taken ill with pneumonia on Wednesday. He was born in North Carolina in 1817. His father died at sea when he was a child, and the family moved to Florida. The son, as a boy, was a volunteer in the Seminole war, then became a student at Georgetown, D. C., and next studied law. He was a member of the first Legislature of Florida. In May, 1846, he was appointed a captain of Mounted Rifles, United States Army. Serving through the Mexican war, he lost an arm at Chapultepec, and was promoted for gallantry to the rank of Lieutenant-Colonel. After that he was actively engaged in Indian warfare. He resigned from the army at the outbreak of the Rebellion and joined the Confederate service, in which he became a Major-General. In 1868 Gen. Loring accepted an offer from the Khedive of Egypt to take a position in his army, and remained there ten years, during which he held the rank of General, or Pasha, and was engaged in active service against the Abyssinians. He returned to this country with a competency, and invested largely in orange-groves and real estate in Florida. About three years ago he published 'A Confederate Soldier in Egypt,' a book descriptive of life in the Khedive's army, and at the time of his death was engaged in writing an autobiography.

Hilborne L. Roosevelt died on Thursday in this city. He was thirty-seven years old. While very young he studied the manufacture of church organs, and then made several trips to Europe for the same object. He identified himself particularly with electric inventions as applied to organ building, which he began in this city on his own account in 1871. Among the organs that he built were those in the Garden City Cathedral, in Grace Church, and in the main building of the Centennial Exhibition at Philadelphia. Mr. Roosevelt invented several important details of the telephone.

Ex-Gov. Gibbs, known as the War Governor of Oregon, died in London on Thursday. He had been lecturing on temperance in Great Britain.

Gen. Albert Gallatin Lawrence of Newport, R. I., died on Saturday night, aged fifty-two years. A son of the late William Beach Lawrence, he served with conspicuous gallantry in the war, and particularly distinguished himself at the capture of Fort Fisher. After the war he was appointed Minister to Costa Rica.

Gen. George W. Palmer died on Sunday evening at his home in this city. He was born in Ripley, Chautauqua County, in 1835. When the war broke out he went to Washington, was soon appointed in the War Department, and held various military positions at Washington and in this State. In 1869 he took up the practice of law in this city and was appointed Appraiser of the Port. He resumed the practice of his profession in 1871. He was prominent in Republican political circles.

Bishop Horatio Potter, of the Protestant Episcopal diocese of New York, died on Sunday at his home in this city, after several years of bodily feebleness. His last appearance in public service was on Ascension Day in 1883, when he administered the rite of Confirmation in the Church of the Incarnation. He was born in Dutchess County, N. Y., on February 9, 1802, was graduated from Union College in 1826, and ordained a deacon in the following year. In 1833 he became rector of St. Peter's Church, Albany, and he retained that position until September, 1854, when he was elected Provisional Bishop of the diocese of New York. In 1861, on the death of Bishop Onderdonk, who was under suspension at the time of his death, he succeeded to the full Bishopric. He performed the laborious duties of his office with marked ability and faithfulness. In September, 1883, he was relieved of diocesan duties by the election of the Rev. Dr. Henry C. Potter, his nephew, as Assistant Bishop, who will succeed him as Bishop.

FOREIGN.

From a private letter of the Marquis of Salisbury the following account of the origin of the British Cabinet crisis is given: About two weeks ago Lord Randolph Churchill informed Lord Salisbury that unless the total army and navy estimates were very considerably below those of last year he would not continue as Chancellor of the Exchequer. After a discussion with the departments he resigned office in a letter which Salisbury received on Tuesday, December 21. Salisbury replied to his arguments, and said he could not take the responsibility of refusing the heads of the War Department and the Admiralty the sums which, after prolonged consideration, they thought necessary for the defence of the country, and least of all could he refuse the funds necessary for defending the ports and coaling stations, to which point Churchill had taken most objection. Churchill replied in a letter which Salisbury received at one A. M. on Thursday (Dec. 23), confirming his intention of resigning, and mentioning, much in the language used in his communication to the *Times*, his dissatisfaction with the legislative programme of the Government. Churchill had not before alluded to this subject in connection with his resignation. A few hours later the announcement of the resignation appeared in the *Times*.

Mr. George J. Goschen (Liberal Unionist) has finally consented to join the Tory Government, succeeding Lord Randolph Churchill as Chancellor of the Exchequer. The fact was officially announced on Monday. Lord Hartington fully approves Mr. Goschen's course. He joins the Ministry, the London *Times* says, on the understanding that he does so as a Liberal, and that his object is to strengthen the Unionist cause. He desires to be satisfied that he is in agreement with the Government on all important foreign and domestic questions. Mr. Goschen has not been offered the leadership of the Government in the House of Commons, but that will naturally revert to him after the pro tem. lead of Mr. W. H. Smith. Lord Salisbury has assured Lord Hartington that he is trying, with some hope of success, to overcome the reluctance of the Conservatives to accept Lord Hartington as Prime Minister.

Before accepting office in the Tory Cabinet, Mr. Goschen closely scrutinized the accounts and estimates of the War and Navy Departments in order to ascertain whether or not there were any grounds for Lord Randolph Churchill's charges of maladministration. He found that Lord Randolph had been misled by wrong data, which it is supposed were supplied through interested Treasury officials. Mr. Goschen is convinced that Lord Randolph is unable to prove his allegations, and that Lord Salisbury was right in refusing to reduce the estimates.

It is considered improbable that a change will be made in the British Foreign Office. Lord Iddesleigh denies that he has expressed a wish to retire, and Lord Morley denies that he has been offered the foreign portfolio. The Earl of Northbrook has consented to join Mr. Goschen in the Conservative Cabinet. He has heretofore been hostile to Lord Salisbury's foreign and Indian policies. He is suspected of sympathy with Mr. Gladstone. Mr. W. H. Smith has accepted the leadership of the House of Commons.

The *Pall Mall Gazette* asserts that Mr. Chamberlain has consented to have a private informal conference on the Irish question with Mr. Gladstone, Mr. Morley, and Sir William Vernon-Harcourt. Mr. Chamberlain denies this

Mr. Gladstone, in a letter to Sir William Vernon-Harcourt, has expressed his willingness for a free discussion of the differences in the Liberal party. The Birmingham *Post* announces that Sir William Vernon-Harcourt, Lord Herschell, Mr. Morley, Mr. Chamberlain, and Sir George Trevelyan will meet, probably next week, to discuss the Irish question in the spirit of Mr. Gladstone's letter.

The seventy-seventh anniversary of Mr. Gladstone's birth was celebrated on Wednesday by Liberal banquets in many places. Mr. Gladstone wrote as follows to the chairman of a banquet given at Chester in his honor: "The strain of the last year has been considerable, but never during my half century of labor have I more clearly seen that I was at work in behalf of my countrymen in all parts of the three kingdoms, and in behalf of the true union and greatness of the Empire, which in this year of her Majesty's jubilee we ought to cherish more warmly and loyally than ever. In this conviction the recent progress of events confirms me daily."

Mr. Gladstone, in his article in the *Nineteenth Century* on "Locksley Hall and the Jubilee," after praising the Laureate's verse, deals with the teachings of the poem. He admits that no greater calamity could happen to a people than that of breaking utterly from its past. This applies, however, he says, more to the aggregate than the immediate past. In the first three decades of this century England won great military glory, but her industry was brought to the lowest point of degradation. With the history of these three decades he says the history of the past fifty years contrasts favorably. He expresses the hope that his article will show that England is still young, though old, and in her latest days has not been unworthy of herself.

Mr. John Morley, writing in reply to Mr. A. V. Dicey's book on Ireland, argues that the question is not a theorem, but a problem; that it is not a matter of proving a thesis, but of curing a malady. If home rule is too mischievous to be tolerated, so is everything else. A crown colony is opposed to the Union; Irish representation is opposed to the Union. A provisional legislature on the model of the Legislature of Ontario or Quebec would be worse than repeal, and a local government would cure nothing and disturb everybody.

Mr. John Dillon on Thursday deposited £1,000 bail required by the recent decision against him in Dublin for agitating the plan of campaign.

Bernard Kelly, Parnellite M. P. for South Donegal, died suddenly on Sunday while visiting his constituents. He was secretary of the local branch of the National League and the son of a large merchant in Ballyshannon.

The Paris correspondent of the London *Times* affirmed on Thursday that he had information from an undoubted source that Russia and Germany signed a direct alliance a fortnight ago. "The Czar," said the correspondent, "was decided in taking this course by the attitude manifested towards Russia by Count Kálnoky, Austrian Minister of Foreign Affairs, and by the expectation that M. Floquet would be made Prime Minister of France."

Dr. Blowitz says that by the terms of this new alliance Russia binds herself to remain neutral in the event of war between France and Germany, and Germany binds herself to remain neutral in the event of war between Russia and Austria.

It is reported in Vienna that the German Government has assured Count Kálnoky that the statement that a treaty has been concluded between Germany and Russia to the detriment of Austrian interests, is not true.

Russia has suggested as a basis for negotiations between the signatories to the Berlin treaty for the settlement of the Bulgarian question that the Bulgarian regents resign; that a new Sobranye be elected for Bulgaria only; that two Zankoffites be admitted into the Bulgarian Cabinet; that Prince Nicholas of Mingrelia be proposed to the new Sobranye for the Bulgarian rulership, and that an ordinary provincial assembly be convoked for Rumelia.

Russia has concluded arrangements for obtaining from the Hersants of Paris a loan of 75,000,000 francs. The money is to be expended in constructing a canal from the eastern extremity of the Gulf of Perekop in the Black Sea, across the neck of land joining the Crimea to the mainland, to the Sea of Azov, in order to afford a direct water route from the river Don to the Black Sea.

The Vienna press is becoming convinced that Russia is determined on war. Reports of increased Russian armaments are continually coming to hand from various sources. The latest intelligence of this kind is to the effect that 300,000 Russian troops have been ordered to mass in Kieff, and that the occupants of 10,000 houses have received official notification that soldiers will soon be billeted on them.

The Servian Government has opened confidential negotiations for a confederation of the various Balkan States in the event of war.

M. Clémenceau in a recent interview said: "There can be no war between France and Germany unless Germany makes the first attack, because every responsible Frenchman is determined that France shall offer no provocation. Even if Russia and Germany should fight, France would remain passive. It would require a gross provocation indeed to rouse France to war. Of course, France will refuse to disarm. It must be admitted that France has been coquetting with Russia, but this was intended merely to frighten Germany."

At a recent grand reception given to the officers of the army by the Minister of War, Gen. Boulanger emphatically disclaimed the warlike intentions ascribed to him in Germany.

Diplomats consider the statements made by the French Government organs that Gen. Boulanger had not reduced his supplemental military estimates from $60,000,000 to $10,000,000, coupled with the *Journal Officiel's* list of his reappointments of the generals in command of the French fortresses, another evidence that war is not remote.

It is reported that a conference has been held by President Grêvy and MM. Ferry and Freycinet with a view to the speedy dissolution of the present Ministry and the formation of a Ferry-Freycinet Cabinet. It is also reported that M. Ferry has consented to support M. Freycinet as the successor of President Grévy. The Radicals are in high dudgeon at the prospect of having their plans upset in this manner.

It has been decided that M. de Brazza shall be permitted to return to the French Congo country, and there dispose of the grant made by the Chamber of Deputies in the manner he may deem best.

Madagascar has concluded arrangements for obtaining a loan of $3,000,000 for twenty-five years at 6 per cent. per annum from the Comptoir Escompte of Paris, guaranteeing therefor the customs revenue of six of the Madagascar ports. Of this sum $2,000,000 is to be devoted to paying off the French indemnity, and the balance will be expended on the native army.

It is rumored that Rasalula, the Abyssinian commander who undertook the relief of Kassala, which has been besieged by the followers of the late El Mahdi for upwards of two years, has succeeded in rescuing the city from the Arabs. Another report states that the dervishes defeated the Abyssinians at Sabderat.

The German Reichstag will meet on the 4th of January, the Army Bill Committee on the 5th, and the Landtag on the 12th.

Should the United States Congress reject the new treaty with Spain, a duty of 25 per cent. will be levied on American imports, and the Spanish Government will immediately make overtures to other European Powers in order to obtain new markets for West Indian exports. Spanish statesmen of all parties look with uneasiness and jealousy upon the increasing intimacy of the relations between Cuba and Porto Rico on the one hand and the United States on the other.

The followers of King Bo-Shwé, after his flight into the impenetrable forests of Burmah, submitted to the British authorities,

SALARIES OF THE UNITED STATES DISTRICT JUDGES.

The bill, which has passed the Senate more than once, to increase the salaries of the United States district judges, has been somewhat unfairly treated by the Judiciary Committee of the House. If brought to a vote, it would almost certainly pass, but the dominating influence of the Southern members of the Committee, for reasons not difficult of explanation, has been sufficient to smother it, notwithstanding a favorable report by a bare majority of the Committee. Except in cases controlled by paramount political considerations, either house should always facilitate a vote upon any public bill that has passed the other, and the process of strangling a measure, so situated, by hostile committees, cannot be in the interest of wholesome legislation. The practice too often permits the prejudices of one or two men to obstruct the wishes of a large majority of both houses of Congress. Because of this unfair treatment in the House, the Senate attached the bill it had previously passed, as an amendment to a bill passed in the House to create a new district in one of the Southern States. Reluctantly, this plan of forcing the measure to a vote in the House was abandoned by its friends, upon the hope, if not the promise, that at the present session the Committee in the House would permit a vote upon the Senate bill.

There is not much room for any argument against the increase of salary. The standard already fixed for the circuit judges is a meagre enough measure of compensation for all the judges. If travelling expenses be paid by the Government, or an allowance for them be added to the salaries of the circuit judges, there is no substantial reason for any discrimination between them and the district judges. In any given district the district judge does the greatest part of the work of the Circuit Court in addition to that which he does in the District Court. There should not be two courts, and there is no necessity for two judges of the same court; but this is not the fault of the judges, and the district judges are not those that could be dispensed with as superfluous. Doing as much work as or more than the circuit judges, there is no just reason for paying the district judges less salary; and, in one sense, it is degrading to them and the judgments they give, by far the most numerous in the court, to pay them unequally. All discriminations, whether of pay or rank, are injurious to the public service, and this is a most serious objection to the existing judicial system. The judges of a court being coördinate in authority, as the several judges holding a circuit court are, should be co-equal in both rank and pay. These judges are in fact, in practice, and in theory the equals of each other, except that certain necessary provisions, growing out of the absurdities of the system, are made for proceeding with a case when they disagree in judgment. Sitting alone, either of them is the equal of the other, and, sitting together, no other inequality should exist than that just mentioned. For the time being the judgment of the circuit judge prevails, as does that of the Supreme justice over his, when these two sit together; but the very fact of disagreement formerly suspended the case until the Supreme Court could decide between them, and now affords a basis of appeal without regard to amount, after the final judgment according to the opinion of the presiding judge.

There can be, then, no reason for paying one more than the other, expenses of travel excepted; and it was generally understood, when the salaries of the circuit judges were increased to $6,000, that those of the district judges should be fixed at $5,000. The delay in doing this has been caused by the subsequent difference in the political complexion of the two houses of Congress, and a feeling that the salaries of the district judges should be graded according to the amount of work done by each. How far the fact that nearly all the judges of all the courts belonged to one political party—a deplorable fact, no doubt—has influenced the neglect of the district judges, may be conjectural; but, whatever has been that influence, it should no longer operate, since the remedy is being rapidly applied as vacancies occur. Political considerations are unworthy of attention from any source in regard to this matter, and, perhaps, no member of Congress would confess that any such influence controls him. With possibly some rare exceptions, anomalous in their character, it may be affirmed that the judges of the United States courts have been commendably free from political motives in the discharge of official duties. These courts and their judges have not been exempt from that hostility which arises from the innate prejudices on the one hand of an exaggerated local opinion in favor of States' rights, or, on the other, from the favoritism which follows undue exaltation of the Federal notion; but, after all, they succeed in meeting the demands of the most intelligent public opinion for a judiciary that shall be reasonably free, in the judgments which they give, from bias in either direction.

The argument that the salaries should be graded is, under the circumstances, delusive, although speciously so. An act of Congress properly and sternly forbids all the judges from practising law or acting as counsel. Presumably, none of them has either a taste for or any adaptation by experience to any other remunerative calling. And it is wholly undesirable that the judges should engage in money-making pursuits—certainly in corporate enterprises, manufacturing concerns, stock speculations, or other doubtful employments, which, for obvious reasons, unfit any man for the judicial office. This is too plain to require anything more than a statement of the proposition to enforce it; and as long as Congress requires the judges to abstain from professional labor, it in effect disables them from all labor that would add anything to their salary as a means of support for themselves and their families. If the salaries were $500 a year, abundant applicants would offer for every place, no doubt, but the United States should pay a fair salary to secure the ablest men, and tolerate none other.

Much has been made of the singular suggestion that these judges should not be paid more than the State judges are paid. This would enable a parsimonious local influence to regulate the salaries of the national courts, and, in some States, deprive those judges of just compensation. The argument is the outgrowth of mere prejudice against the Federal courts, and is not entitled to the least serious consideration. The United States should set a good example, and not follow a bad one in deference to provincial prejudices of that kind.

TOBACCO.

It is customary to include the tobacco tax among "taxes on luxuries," and to point to it as an ideal source of revenue because nobody need pay it unless he chooses to do so. As compared with many other taxes, this is a correct description. Taxes on food and clothing are much more objectionable, whether levied under the tariff or otherwise. A statesman unbiassed by the demands of special interests, and looking only to the good of the community as a whole, would knock off thousands of other taxes before he would reduce that on tobacco, and he would do so in the interest of the poorer classes. He would first cheapen their sugar and their salt, their shirts and blankets, their medicines and their tools, before he would think of cheapening their tobacco. Yet it is not exactly right to say that the tobacco tax should be retained as long as the Government needs any revenue.

The dividing line between necessaries, comforts, and luxuries is a hard one to draw. The East Indian coolie can live on rice of a poor quality flavored with salt and washed down with common spring water. The West Indian laborer is compelled not seldom to subsist on this sort of diet with yams in place of rice, and the Irish cotter with potatoes instead of either. These, or their equivalent in corn-meal, or dates, or chestnuts, may be called the actual necessaries of life as regards food. Of course no one will consider that as necessary which civilized men never felt the need of, or knew the existence of, until the time of Sir Walter Raleigh. As the Romans conquered the world without using tobacco in any form, it cannot be considered an article indispensable to the dominant races. As neither Homer, nor Dante, nor Shakspere smoked or chewed, it cannot be regarded as essential to the highest intellectual activity.

Tobacco must be rated either as a comfort or as a luxury. Our treatment of it as a source of revenue will depend very much upon which category we put it into. If it is, strictly speaking, a luxury, then the tax should be retained, or at all events should not be disturbed at present. If it is a comfort depended upon by large numbers of poor people to soothe and soften their lot in life, then the same arguments hold good for reducing or repealing it that apply to a great multitude of things not necessary to civilized life, but in such common use that deprivation of them would be counted a great hardship, such as tea and coffee, both of which are of comparatively recent introduction to the civilized world. Tea and coffee being articles of food, as well as of comfort and solace, are much better entitled to consideration in the arrangement of taxes than tobacco. Yet neither of them can be called necessaries, seeing that neither Alexander the

Great nor Julius Cæsar, neither Demosthenes nor Cicero, ever tasted either of these articles, and yet reached very high standards.

Tea, coffee, and tobacco have been seized upon by governments as sources of revenue almost everywhere, not because they are the most appropriate subjects of taxation from the standpoint of justice, but because they are articles of universal use. Being such, they insure a very large income to the treasury, and this is very easily collected. The fact that the poor pay nearly as much of these taxes per capita as the rich is lost sight of, or purposely hidden, or, when brought forward as an accusation against the ruling authorities, is excused upon the ground that no other enforceable means can be devised for collecting the necessary amount. This country long ago discarded the taxes on tea and coffee. The repeal was unjustifiable only because it was adopted as a means of clearing the Treasury of surplus funds, in order to retain other taxes still more unjust and oppressive to the poorer classes, the proceeds of which go into the pockets of private persons and do not reach the Treasury at all. If this element of fraud could be left out of the reckoning, the repeal of the taxes on tea and coffee would be among the wisest financial measures ever adopted by any government, because it put an end to a disproportionate tax upon the poorer classes.

The question of repealing or reducing the tobacco tax comes before us with the same complications. We are not permitted to discuss it apart from the tariff taxes, which oppress the poor much more severely than the rich. The question which presents itself to a rational mind is, whether it is best to take off the tobacco tax rather than the clothing tax, the sugar tax, the salt tax, or the raw-material tax. Of course, the answer must be in favor of retaining the tobacco tax. But supposing that the protectionist superstition, or the protectionist ring, is too strong as yet to be broken, what view should be taken of the proposed repeal or reduction of the tax on tobacco? In our view it is not a thing for free-traders to wail over. The repeal bill does not come at its proper place in the procession. It ought to follow rather than precede the repeal of the taxes on blankets and thread and wood-screws and codfish, etc., but it ought to come some time because the tobacco tax is an unequal assessment upon the humbler classes, upon those least able to bear the burden. Grant that it is a voluntary burden, the bearing of it ought not to be required unless it can be shown that tobacco is upon the whole hurtful to the human system and to the social system. Meantime, it is admitted by most of those who have adequate means of knowledge, that tobacco is a great solace and sedative to the worker, whether he works with his mind or with his muscles, and is a kind of stimulant which does not call for an increasing dose in order to produce its customary effect. We now and then hear of a tobacco drunkard, but they are as rare as white blackbirds. None of them are wife-beaters, or give any occupation to the police.

SOME RECENT MEXICAN LEGISLATION.

THE first session of the Thirteenth Mexican Congress, brought to a close on December 15, besides the infinity of private bills, passed some measures of national and even international importance. First among these are the enactments looking to relief from the financial strain under which Mexico is laboring. One of these is the so-called amendment to article 124 of the Constitution, declared adopted on the 26th of November with due pomp and parade, and heralded as of great significance both for domestic and foreign commerce. The impression was given, that is, that the system of internal custom-houses and of onerous municipal taxes on produce, the "*alcabala*, was to be entirely abolished. To effect this it would not seem that there was need of amending the Constitution of '57, inasmuch as the very article in question distinctly declares: "On December 1, 1858, the *alcabalas* and interior custom-houses shall be abolished throughout the entire Republic." Article 124 says exactly and solely this. But it remained a dead letter. So did the law of May 17, 1882, which enacted that "On December 1, 1884, at the latest, the *alcabalas* and interior custom-houses shall be abolished in the Federal District and in the Territory of Lower California, as well as in those States which have not already suppressed them."

The substance of the new amendment is that the States can no longer tax commodities in simple transit through their territory, that they can lay no export duty, that duties must be assigned without discrimination against localities, and that domestic traffic shall no longer be compelled to follow a fixed route or be subjected to inspection and entry. Here would certainly appear to be a gain for importers and shippers, provided the law is executed, but the advantage for domestic trade must be considered problematical. For example, the Governor of the State of Mexico has just issued a decree whose bare terms will best show how these matters of fiscal reform fare under Mexican methods: "Article 1. The collection of the *alcabala* is to cease throughout the State, and for it is to be substituted an impost called duty of consumption. Article 2. The duty of consumption shall take effect in the same cases and upon the same products as did the *alcabala*." This process would seem to be rightly called by *El Nieto del Ahuizote*, the comic illustrated paper of the capital, the proverbial one of changing the piston and leaving the syringe the same.

Far more significant is the action taken by Congress on the report and proposed bill of a committee appointed to bring in measures for the promotion of the interests of mining, of agriculture, and of manufactures. Nothing more radical has ever been heard in Mexico than the speech of Señor Bulnes, the able chairman of this committee. He cogently set forth the need of helping the industries of the country by freeing them from the vexatious governmental regulations and the frightful taxation to which they are now subject. In reference to the tariff he took ground which he admitted to be essentially that of free trade, but contented himself with urging for the present no more than the putting on the free list of several articles and the reduction of the duty on others. The first ten sections of the bill which he presented, and which, strange to say, after an animated discussion, was passed by a large majority, are occupied with provisions removing from miners and farmers some of the strangling taxes hitherto laid upon them. The eleventh section removes all import duty from a long list of articles, of which the most important are all the acids used in mining, barbed wire, live animals, ploughs and ploughshares, pitch and tar, crowbars, all sizes of wire, iron tubing, all classes of machinery used in mining or agriculture, powder and dynamite, common salt. The succeeding section reduces to a merely nominal sum the duty on several minor articles. This bill, as we have said, passed the House of Deputies with no appreciable opposition, though it was not, so far as we can learn, taken up by the Senate, and will, therefore, come up as unfinished business at the spring session. Completely in the face of Spanish traditions and of Mexican practice as it is, this enlightened measure must be supposed to have back of it the approval of the Administration, else it could never have been received as it was, and accordingly to be one of the certainties of coming legislation. It is highly suggestive of more sweeping changes to follow in the outrageous tariff which has so long marked the barbarous character of the fiscal policy of Mexico, and is reassuring evidence that the densest ignorance and prejudice cannot for ever withstand reason.

We regret to have to add to the encouraging features of recent Mexican legislation which we have cited, one step decidedly retrogressive. We refer to the repeal of the law of 1867 which forbade bull-fights within the Federal District. Those demoralizing exhibitions are to be restored to the capital, 15 per cent. of all receipts to be paid over to the Government and to be devoted to the fund for the drainage of the city. It cannot be denied that there is a sort of ghastly propriety in using a revenue derived from such a source for the purpose of disposing of the city's filth.

GERMAN VS. AMERICAN UNIVERSITY SALARIES.

DESPITE repeated correction, the orthodox view of German university life current in this country persistently maintains one eminent misconception. The generally accepted type of the German university professor is a man who has put behind him the world, the flesh (and the devil?), divested himself of carnal ambitions, and given over the search after the root of all evil—except in the purely theological sense. He is lean, shabby, and generally poverty-stricken, a self-sacrificing, self-abnegating truth-seeker. His salary is a pittance, a mere life preserver; and starvation figures are quoted by book-writers and lecturers as appeals to the ludicrous, or by college trustees as an intimation to the pampered American professor that he ought to feel himself supremely blessed and particularly well-fed. It is certainly startling to hear that the famous theologian, Karl Hase, during fifty years (1830–1880) of brilliant service in the University of Jena, managed to subsist upon a salary that never exceeded $600 (800 thalers). Relying upon reports and estimates like this, American universities in quest of foreign rarities have assured themselves that their $3,000–$4,000 salaries would be most captivating bait. They have repeatedly let down the line, but no big fish bite.

The fact is, that for a German *professor ordinarius* or well-established *extraordinarius* with

fair prospect of a successful career, the American university salary will offer no possible attraction; and the reason is not far to seek. It may lie partly, to be sure, in the natural disinclination to expatriation so notably characteristic of the German official as well as military and aristocratic class, especially in so far as expatriation is supposed to involve retirement from the arena of advanced investigation. This explanation is, however, unnecessary. The German professor is decidedly better off *financially* than the American; and we shall deceive ourselves if we think the German *Gelehrter* oblivious to financial considerations, or in any wise disinclined to estimate the value of his services in terms of the worldly mammon.

A comparison of American with German salaries cannot, of course, be effected by rudely turning one dollar into four marks, or even by levelling with the help of any such ratio in comparative cost of living as 3 : 2 or 2 : 1. The entire scale of living differs. The recognized standard of living is different. In America the mercantile class makes, more or less immediately and definitely, but ultimately, the standard for the official and professional class as well as for itself. In Germany the official (including the professorial) class is conscious of an independent existence, maintains a standard of its own, and lets the mercantile class go its own gait. This distinction is most evident in Berlin and Leipzig.

Entirely independent, however, of such considerations as these, the German salary will stand the test of a direct comparison of marks and dollars much better than has been generally believed. Salary must, however, be understood in the sense of income, and must, for purposes of comparison, include the various lecture fees, examination fees, both for the civil examinations (*Staatsexamina*) and doctor examinations, the allowance for rent (*Wohnungszulage*), and occasional immunity from various taxes, to say nothing of the various travelling *stipendia*, of the definite prospect of pension, and of the permanency of tenure. In the larger universities the lecture fees alone frequently exceed the amount of the salary. Assistant professors in Berlin have frequently declined calls to full professorships in smaller universities, preferring the fees in Berlin to the salary elsewhere. Prominent lecturers in the philosophical faculty at Leipzig receive $2,000 to $3,500 in lecture fees, medical and law professors much more. Windscheid, the "Pandektist," receives a yearly addition to his income of about $5,000 from this source alone. In Berlin figures run still higher.

The *Wohnungszulage* is a small or nominal allowance for rent which many universities prefer to keep distinct from the salary proper, in order to reduce the claims for pension, which are ultimately based upon the maximum amount of salary received during the years of active service. Allowance is also made for moving expenses in case of removal from one university to another.

Examination fees are very considerable. Most faculties have now adopted the practice of dividing the fees for each doctor-examination *per capita* among all the members of the faculty before which the examination is held. This amounts in the philosophical faculty of the average university to about $2 or $3 for each examination. Similar fees attach to positions on the *Prüfungscommission* for the civil examinations, positions held by the representative professors of each university department. A second and not inconsiderable advantage of such a position is the legal or moral necessity imposed upon the student and prospective candidate of subscribing for all the lecture courses of his future examiner.

The offices of honor, the prorectorships and the decanates of the various faculties pass in a sort of rotation through the list of professors, and involve considerable extra emolument; for instance, the prorector generally receives all the matriculation fees, or $3 to $5 for each new student.

A recent number of the *Kulturkämpfer* (September, 1886) offers an interesting article entitled "*Das neue Leipzig und seine Universität*," in which some figures are given relative to the incomes of Leipzig professors. The average salary —*i. e.*, the salary proper in distinction from the other sources of income—of the sixty-three regular professors is said to be 5,525 marks, or about $1,300. The average income may be safely set at more than double this sum. The average salary of the forty-eight assistant and honorary professors is reported as 2,400 marks. The entire income of the University amounts to 1,197,079 marks, of which the endowment yields 423,271 and the State appropriations 773,808 marks. The sum total of salaries paid to professors amounts to 463,315 marks.

In the smaller universities the minimum salary (proper) of a full professor is now about 700-800 thalers (2,100-2,400 marks). Increase of salary depends, as a rule, upon the demand for the services of a particular professor elsewhere. The comparative uniformity of American salaries within the same university flavors of communism, and has an effect upon individual impulse similar to that of trades-union wages. As a rule, the figures of a German salary may be said to roughly represent the number of calls the man has received. At Heidelberg, for example, several professors receive a higher salary than the *facile princeps* Bunsen; he long ago expressed his determination to spend his days where he is, and so withdrew himself from the market. His present salary is less than $2,000, to which must be added, however, in fees at least $3,500. The highest salary paid by the University is $2,700 to the philosopher Kuno Fischer, whose income from fees is also large. Heidelberg is poor, and some of its younger men are very poorly paid, but the smallest income of any full professor is about $1,500. If this seem small, it is to be remembered that the *average* professor's salary in America is scarcely more. Relatively few colleges pay over $2,000–$2,200. On the basis of the bare figures alone, the Germans are better off; the advantage of cheaper living and different social requirements is clear gain. The grievous side of the German university career is the period of probation; the *Privatdocent* butters his bread with hopes.

THE DAILY AND PERIODICAL PRESS IN ITALY.

LENDINARA, December 4, 1886.

I HAVE a faint suspicion that more than ten years since I sent an article with this same title to the *Nation*, dating from Rome; and if I am right in my surmise, comparisons may be found odious, as since that time the Italian press has certainly not ameliorated, and from many points of view has deteriorated. Compared with the Americans, the English, the French, and the Germans, Italians spend very little time in reading. Not long since I said to one of the largest publishing houses in Italy: "It is difficult to understand why, during the sixteen years that have elapsed since Cattaneo's death, the owner of his papers has never been able to find a publisher for his political writings." His answer was: "Find me readers and I will find a publisher." Such a response might be intelligible in England, where circulating libraries like Mudie's and his country branches exist, but in Italy such luxuries to poor readers are unknown. If you except Vieusseux's old standing library in Florence for ancient and modern books and daily and weekly newspapers, with a fair sprinkling of English and American fortnightlies and monthlies, you may say that Italy possesses no public reading-rooms. In the large city of Milan, for instance, unless you have a friend who can present you to some private club or *circolo*, you must subscribe or buy your dailies if you wish to read them. At Venice there is the Querini-Stampaglia foundation, at Rome the United Press Association opens its rooms to friends of members; but large cities such as Naples, Turin, Bologna, Pisa offer nothing to the general public. One would suppose, therefore, that good daily papers, a few weekly, and half-a-dozen monthlies might live on their purchasers and subscribers, but this is not the case. In the bad old days, when party spirit ran high, the party of order and the party of action issued racy newspapers. In Turin the *Opinione*, in Milan the *Perseveranza*—the former edited by Signor Dina, the second by Signor Bonghi—furnished good daily reading. So the several Mazzinian papers, the *Tribuna*, the *Italia del Popolo*, the *Italia e Popolo*, the *Unità Italiana*, the *Dovere*, the *Emancipatore*, variously edited by Quadrio, Campanella, De Boni, Mario, and other good ones gone. The *Diritto* held the middle line between these two extremes, published first in Turin and afterwards in Florence by the heads of the old Piedmontese Left, Lorenzo Valerio, Sineo, Brofferio, and reinforced by recruits from the party of action, who, after the campaign of 1860, in obedience to the plébiscite, took their seats as members of Parliament. Up to 1870, these clearly drawn party lines were kept distinct; but when, in 1870, Rome became the capital of Italy, nothing seemed left to fight for or to write about. Consequently, parties ceased to supply the sinews of war, and one after another the newspapers not maintained by Government funds died for want of breath. The party of action struggled bravely as long as Mazzini, Garibaldi, Maurizio Quadrio lived to inspire them. On the day of Mazzini's death, March 10, 1872, expired also the *Roma del Popolo*, a splendid weekly initiated by Mazzini himself, and to which he confided his last thoughts on religious, social, and political questions. The *Emancipatore* and the *Dovere*, posthumous echoes of the great master's words, died with the chief apostle, Maurizio Quadrio, in 1876. The *Lega della Democrazia*, intended by Garibaldi to become the organ of the various fractions of the democratic party, died with its editor, Alberto Mario, one year to the day and hour after Garibaldi's death. The *Fascio* and the *Democrazia*, which arose from its ashes, breathed scarcely six months apiece. At the present moment the old party of action has no vocal organ.

The party of order, whose members are wealthy and better trained, retain some of their old newspapers, but, alas! they are shadows of their former selves. Who now reads the *Perseveranza* of Milan or the *Opinione* of Rome, save the writers and their special friends? The *Diritto* one scarcely hears of and rarely sees quoted; the *Tempo* for Venice, the *Gazzetta di Torino* for Turin, the *Caffaro* for Genoa, the *Nazione* for Florence, and the *Pungolo* for Naples are mere local papers, though in favor of the last it must be said that it treats broadly and fairly all national and international questions, and Italian politics from a mild half-way-milestone point of view. The Government, or rather Signor Depretis, owns as organ the *Popolo Romano*. Of the editor and his paper the less said the better. The *Tribuna* is certainly the best Roman paper, and represents the politics—we had better say, the aspirations—of Cairoli, Nicotera, and other ex-right-honorables, left out in the cold. The *Riforma* is the mere personal organ of Signor Crispi, who, as proprietor and real editor, maintains it at his own expense. The daily *Rassegna* ceased to ex-

ist in this last month of November; its proprietors and chief editors, Sydney Sonnino and fraternity, set on foot and for several years maintained the best weekly paper ever seen in Italy, the *Rassegna Settimanale*, in which social questions were impartially treated from a practical, scientific, and philosophical point of view. Now, more than ever, such a newspaper is a desideratum in Italy, since in every town or city a so-called social newspaper appears and disappears, leaving no useful trace behind it. I am not, as may seem, in a pessimist mood, nor at all inclined to judge newspapers from a party point of view; nay, I must confess my weakness for the genus and the various species. American and English papers I read with delight. But in Italy hunger and dearth are words all too meek: there is an absolute famine of literary or real political food. Taking daily papers as a whole, the *Secolo* of Milan, which has a circulation of 80,000 copies, has the merit of giving you the news of the day within the twenty-four hours; but the only daily paper worth reading is the old *Unità Cattolica* of Turin, still edited by Don Margotto, the most sceptical of mortals and the phœnix of journalists. A subscriber I am not nor have ever been—it would require more moral courage than I possess to have the organ of that thorough-going, constant champion of the temporal power of the papacy addressed to my humble dwelling daily; but when there is a chance of reading it round the corner, I confess to devouring it surreptitiously, and feeling satisfied after so doing. It gives you general news, reports the doings and sayings of friends and foes; some of its articles on non-religious questions are admirable, and for memory of dates, facts, episodes, and anecdotes, Don Margotto is unsurpassed; his only rival in the times gone by was Maurizio Quadrio, editor of the *Unità Italiana*.

This is not a satisfactory report, but, believe me, it is as conscientious as it is painful to the writer. If, passing from the daily to the periodical press, I could give a brighter picture, there would be due compensation, but this is not the case. From 1820 to 1860 I doubt whether any country in Europe possessed a more splendid periodical press than did Italy. Think of the old *Politecnico* under Carlo Cattaneo, issued between the years 1837 and 1849, then reissued in 1860, and continued until the death of that great philosopher and political economist. In that monthly review every question, great or small, was exhaustively treated—the theology and philosophy of Rosmini and Romagnosi and Ferrari, political economy from Adam Smith to Stuart Mill, agriculture from Arthur Young to Ricasoli and Ridolfi, the state of India and British treatment of Ireland (anent which country Cattaneo's prophecies are, alas, all too well fulfilled); the United States with her civil war; railroads, gas-lighting, popular armament, rotation of crops, the necessities of Italy of those days. Or take, if you prefer, a more conservative organ, the *Crepuscolo*, which saw the light, lived and died under the Austrian régime between 1849 and 1859. That was a weekly paper, a star of first magnitude, visible during the darkest night. Then, to come to more prosaic times, think of the *Vecchia Antologia*, under the bad old grand-dukes, and even the *Nuova Antologia* until a few years since, never equal to the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, still keeping pace with it at a respectful distance. But now, if you except Ruggero Bonghi's uniformly excellent articles, a rare contribution from Pasquale Villari, and an annual sonnet or literary gem from Giosuè Carducci, the *Nuova Antologia* is but a shadow of its former self.

The number of journals subsidized by the Government and the sum paid it is impossible to state. That is a secret known only to the handler of the secret-service funds; but the fact, which is incontestable, does not diminish the discredit into which the press has gradually fallen. J. W. M.

A NEW VIEW OF LA BRUYÈRE.

PARIS, December 17, 1886.

M. ÉTIENNE ALLAIRE has just published two large octavo volumes on La Bruyère. It is not long since M. Servois undertook a study of our great moralist, which found a place in Hachette's magnificent collection of "Les grands écrivains de la France." M. Servois carefully collected all the original documents concerning the life of La Bruyère. M. Allaire has had peculiar opportunities. He was chosen in 1866 as preceptor of the young Duc de Guise, the second son of the Duc d'Aumale, and he remained a few years at Twickenham, where he had access to the archives of the House of Condé. He used the documents which he found there as well as in the rich library of the Duc d'Aumale, and compared them with other well-known documents—Dangeau's 'Journal,' the Memoirs of the Marquis de Sourches, those of Saint-Simon, etc.—and he finally made for himself a sort of theory of the 'Caractères,' which I must explain.

There were in the lifetime of La Bruyère eight successive editions of the 'Caractères.' Each new edition contained some new characters, portraits, maxims, spread somewhat in disorder among the old ones; each of these additions was the result of La Bruyère's mental experience during a certain period of time; and M. Allaire, if I understand his plan, has tried to explain these successive additions by the history of the time. He sees in them a sort of mirror of events, a mirror which gives at times a confused light, but which is nevertheless faithful. Surely, the mind of La Bruyère, living as he did in the atmosphere of the court, could not but receive strong and constant impressions; it remains, however, to discern how much in these various *strata* of thought, if the word may be allowed, which are found in his numerous editions is subjective and how much is objective—how much is the lesson of the time and how much must be looked upon as the mere individual caprice of a creative mind. This was a very delicate work to perform, one which required the insight of the moralist as much as the knowledge of the historian.

M. Guillaume Guizot has planned an edition of Montaigne, in which the additions of the second and of the third part are marked with some visible sign, so as to show the progress of Montaigne's ideas; and he has also undertaken to explain the development of the philosophy of Montaigne in connection with the history of his time. His work is not yet finished. M. Allaire's task was easier, since there are as many as eight original editions of La Bruyère: a mathematician would say that the law of a curve is easier to find when you know many points of it. The additions in La Bruyère become more and more numerous: "From the fourth edition to the eighth," says M. Allaire, "that is to say, from 1688 to 1694, there is no year during which the follies of his contemporaries do not furnish him elements for a new volume. The fourth, the fifth, the sixth, the seventh, the eighth, all have very important additions, wherein we see a reflex of the moral facts of which La Bruyère was an attentive witness, and of the historical facts of which he was an authoritative judge. He places under our eyes not only literary events of the highest interest, such as the quarrel of the ancients and of the moderns, the criticism of 'Tartuffe,' the triumph of 'Esther,' and the fall of 'Athalie'; but also political events of the highest gravity, such as the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, the diplomacy of the Prince of Orange, the English Revolution, the League of Augsburg. . . . In our eyes La Bruyère is no less remarkable as a historian than as a moralist."

M. Allaire has not quite followed the plan which I set forth; he does not follow La Bruyère from edition to edition. The thread of his study is not chiefly literary, it is chiefly historical; he tells in the most minute details the history of the times, and, when the moment comes for a criticism or a philosophical maxim, instead of making it himself, he introduces a sentence from La Bruyère. His work might be called the History of the Court of Louis XIV., with a perpetual commentary by La Bruyère. Such a method is open to criticism; it is very arbitrary, it is not often possible to see a distinct connection between the events and the reflections of La Bruyère, which have a character of great generality. It would be, I do not say easy, but possible, to write a history of Louis XIV. intermixed with constant citations from Pascal, or from any other great moralist. At the foot of each page you see notes giving references to such or such a chapter of the 'Caractères,' to such or such numbers of these chapters. I observe, for instance, on page 25 of the first volume of M. Allaire's work as many as eight such notes, which means that there are on the page as many as eight citations from La Bruyère; on page 41 I find also eight such notes; there is hardly a page where such a note is not found.

La Bruyère was the witness of very extraordinary events, and he lived with very extraordinary people; but his position did not allow him to make any clear allusions. We shall not repeat here the biographical details given by M. Servois about his first years and his youth; we will only follow him after he entered the family of Condé. He was attached, on Bossuet's recommendation, to the Duc de Bourbon, the grandson of the Grand Condé. M. le Prince, as the latter was called, wished to make a hero or at least a good soldier of this grandson. M. le Duc (such was the name given to Condé's son, the father of La Bruyère's pupil) was less ambitious: he merely wished to make of the Duc de Bourbon a perfect courtier: he was very anxious to marry him to Mlle. de Nantes, a daughter of Louis XIV. and of Mme. de Montespan, since a marriage with a *légitimée* would give the young Prince the *grandes entrées*—that is, free access to the King in his private apartment and at all hours. Gourville, who was the general intendant and factotum of the House of Condé (he left very curious memoirs), entered into these plans. So did Mme. de Maintenon, who was on the point of secretly marrying the King. The match was decided at Chantilly, between Louis XIV. and Condé, though the Duc de Bourbon was only fifteen years old. La Bruyère entered upon his functions on the 15th of August, 1684. The Great Condé had himself traced the programme of the education of the young Prince. M. Allaire enters into very interesting details on this subject, and describes minutely the entourage of the Duc de Bourbon and the life of the little court at Chantilly, and afterwards of the Hôtel de Condé in Paris. La Bruyère followed the Duc de Bourbon everywhere, trying to teach him history, to explain to him the Cartesian philosophy. Such subjects were somewhat too serious for the young Prince, and his preceptor soon found that the Duc de Bourbon, like his father, M. le Duc, would be very different from the Grand Condé.

The death of the last-named gives M. Allaire an occasion to speak of a well known tradition, which was carefully concealed for a long time from those who did not belong to the great House of Condé. Tallemant des Réaux says distinctly: "The Marshal de Brézé married the sister of the Cardinal de Richelieu, then Bishop of Luçon. The woman was mad; she died in confinement."

Nobody ever denied this fact. From this marriage came two children, one of whom, Claire Clémence de Maillé-Brézé, married the Great Condé (February 7, 1641). Condé had in vain striven against his father, who was anxious to secure the good will of the great Cardinal, and obliged his son to contract this marriage. Condé never ceased to protest that he had never given his consent to this union except under fear of the violence of the Cardinal and out of deference to the absolute wish of his father. The Princess of Condé was only thirteen years old when she was married, and still played with her dolls; she became in time a lively brunette. A child was born a little while after the battle of Rocroy; two others were born afterwards, but died young. Condé, however, neglected his wife. He was convinced that his marriage was a blot on his character; he could not reconcile himself to it. The Princess was much affected by his desertion, and she became a monomaniac. The secret was well kept and her mania remained unknown. M. Allaire cites, however, a report of an English political agent, taken from the State Paper Office (published in an 'Essay on the Life of the Great Condé,' by Lord Mahon, 1842), which tells of an incident that allowed Condé to shut up his wife with the consent of the King. "La Bruyère," says M. Allaire, "speaks of this affair as one of those curious cases which he does not understand: 'Is it on account of the secret or from an hypochondriac taste, that one woman loves a servant, another woman a monk, and Dorinne her doctor?' La Bruyère adds: 'For a woman of the world, a gardener is a gardener, a mason is a mason; for some women who live in great retirement, a gardener is a man, a mason is a man. Everything is temptation for those who fear temptation.'" I ask here, By what right does M. Allaire apply this passage to the case of the Princess of Condé? It is enough for him that such an application could be made, but was it really made by the author of the 'Characters'?

The Princess became incurable; she was kept in a park at Châteauroux in Berri, where she was treated with care, and was surrounded with devoted servants. Her son, Henri Jules de Bourbon, called M. le Duc, was never shut up, but he was very eccentric, very irrational; for a moment he excited great hopes in his father, but he was a failure. He never could learn the first elements of the art of war; he had no equilibrium, no balance; he was light, irrational, full of caprices; he was incoherent, dissipated. As long as Condé lived, he was kept within bounds; after his father's death M. le Duc became uncontrollable, and he had frequently terrible fits of anger, which, says Saint-Simon, resembled at the same time epilepsy and apoplexy. He died in one of these fits, at the age of forty-two, in full carnival, making horrible grimaces.

Condé had always had great fears of his son, seeing in him the temper of his mother, and it was for this reason that he took such great care of the education of his grandson, the Duc de Bourbon, and placed near him such men as La Bruyère. It was also to please his son, and to keep him contented, that he consented to the marriage of the Duc de Bourbon with Mlle. de Nantes, the daughter *légitimée* of Louis XIV. and of Mme. de Montespan, though he saw the vice of such an alliance; he hoped, also, to bring fresh blood into his family, and to counteract the influence of the blood of the Brézés. He showed great affection for the young Duchess, who was amiable, sensible, who led a regular life, and who protected her husband against the evil influences of the little court of the Dauphin.

After the death of Condé, La Bruyère remained attached to the Duke and Duchess of Bourbon, with the functions of gentleman in waiting. The leisure of his new life gave him time to finish his 'Characters.' He read his work to a few friends, and among them to Boileau, and, after some hesitation, took it to the printer. The book had immediately a great success, especially in the ranks of the high clergy. The pious Catholics understood at once the scheme of the work, which only shows what is false and ridiculous in the world in order to bring the mind of man into the higher atmosphere of truth. Bussy-Rabutin, who was a pure *mondain*, wrote, however, a charming letter on the book, praised it, and expressed a great desire to make the acquaintance of the author. M. le Prince (since the death of Condé M. le Duc had assumed this name) did not much admire the 'Caractères,' and simply approved of them. The success of the first three editions added a little lustre to the House of Condé. La Bruyère was one of his gentlemen; he was proud but unselfish, unambitious; perhaps the Prince could make some use of his talents and of his good will.

The success of his 'Caractères' was a great encouragement to La Bruyère; and it may be said that the fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh editions form altogether a new work, and the most important. In these editions La Bruyère touched boldly some of the most important questions, he passed in review all classes of society, he spoke of the people, he deplored war, he showed the advantages of good government, he prophesied revolution, he described the follies of the court and of the world, he entered into the highest philosophical problems, he gave the history of his own soul, his illusions in regard to life, love, glory. His work had come to its present state of perfection (the word perfection is not too strong) when he died on the 11th of May, 1696, at Versailles, at the moment when he was preparing a ninth edition, which had no additions, but only a few corrections.

Correspondence.

RELIGIOUS STATISTICS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: To any one who has had experience, as a scribe of a local conference, in gathering the religious statistics from the individual churches, your recent article on "Religious Statistics" is calculated to provoke a smile. You object to the simple denials of your assertions by the *Independent*, and call for specific proofs, though it is hard to see why the denials of a paper familiar with religious matters are not all that is called for in reply to the assertions of a paper not familiar with them, till those assertions are supported by some specific proof. In my own denomination (Congregational), and I suppose in others, it is customary to apportion the amount to be raised for benevolences and the expenses of our denominational machinery among the churches in proportion to their membership; and the pressure which is felt by the churches is toward reporting the membership as small as possible. But this is a point on which minute investigation is necessary to reach any results which can be put into figures. When, however, you say, "The lists of membership given in denominational year-books are notoriously inflated, as are also the returns of church benevolences," you in the latter clause get into the range of figures ready to hand; and a slight examination of the last (or any other) Congregational Year-Book will show how wide of the truth your statement is, at least so far as the Congregational churches are concerned.

Thus, according to our last Year-Book (*cf.* p. 210 with pp. 43-53), the amount which the churches report as given the preceding year to foreign missions is $302,395.19, while our Board of Foreign Missions actually received in donations from the living $428,769.98. The donations to the American Missionary Association were $191,698 35, of which only $114,283.36 got into the church reports. The cash receipts of our Home Missionary Society and New West Education Commission were $500,237.81 besides over $50,000 in supplies; but the church reports include only $279,433.40. In this last case, but not in the others, legacies are included in the receipts; but legacies, as well as supplies not in cash, are often included in church reports, and may correctly be so included.

These figures certainly do not show that "the returns of church benevolences are inflated," and would seem sufficient till you have something besides assertions to offer on the other side. As sometimes the total is reported without specifying the separate causes, the column of "Total Benevolences" is more nearly complete; though this column (which includes all gifts to local and undenominational causes) is far below the facts.

Respectfully yours, E. W. Miller.

Big Rapids, Mich., December 25, 1886.

[The trouble with Mr. Miller seems to be the same as is the case with the *Independent*, not seeing that ignorance, however extensive, must always be of less value than knowledge even if limited. What he has to urge against the main contention of our article, he admits to be of little consequence. We do not know why the conference to which he refers did not follow the usual practice of going on the basis of the last reported membership of the churches. But the Congregationalists are especially weak in the matter of statistics, as we shall see. At any rate, we presume that Mr. Miller would assign no more weight to his exceptional experience, probably among missionary churches, than to the remarkable argument of the *Independent*—the only one it has thus far made use of—to the effect that there can be no inflation of the statistics of church membership, because the one denomination that investigated its rolls found that its figures had been decidedly inflated.

Our correspondent contents himself with combating an incidental and entirely subordinate remark of ours—a single clause, in fact, of the whole article. Now we make no boast of being "familiar with religious matters," but it would be a very slight familiarity which could not show that Mr. Miller's figures are misleading and worthless. Why did he not read, or, if he read, why did he not believe, the statements of the editors of the Congregational Year-Book appended to their summaries of church benevolences? They say (p. 211, Notes 3 and 4): "The amounts reported above for the specific objects of benevolence are such as are reported by the State organizations and are below facts. They are inserted as indicating proportions, *but are not worth adding up*. It will be seen that the reports are very imperfect. Many churches make no report." Mr. Miller seems to have thought that such confessedly untrustworthy figures were not only "worth adding up" (they are not added up in the Year-Book, it should be understood), but also worth basing a serious argument upon. We see but one possible excuse for him. If he meant to argue that the benevolent returns of Congregational churches are not inflated because there are no returns at all deserving the

name, that his denomination is so loosely organized that it cannot secure the facts from the local churches, we are willing to admit that he has made his point, though he has most ingeniously concealed it; but we wonder that he went at it in such a roundabout way. In any other aspect of the case, we see nothing for it but to accuse him of presenting figures that are either ridiculous or intended to deceive. Furthermore, the Year Book itself makes it clear that gifts of $387,000, not $302,000, as he says, were credited to the churches, since p. 43 states that the former sum has been "acknowledged in the *Missionary Herald*."

Now, if Mr. Miller is really willing to rest the case upon an argument of the kind he advances as "sufficient," we commend to his attention the corresponding statistics of the Presbyterian Church, whose polity admits of a very near approach to accuracy in such matters. In the minutes of the General Assembly of this year, gifts by the churches to home missions are returned aggregating $760,947. But the financial report of the Home Mission Board shows that of this amount no more than $498,662 reached its treasury. We understand perfectly that a part of this discrepancy of $262,285 is to be accounted for on the score of "supplies" sent directly to needy ministers, but, to account for it all in this way, the gifts would have to be at the rate of $191 to each of the men commissioned by the Board, or rather at the rate of $400, inasmuch as not half of them are favored with "boxes"; and we leave it to Mr. Miller if any of the home missionaries of his acquaintance would not surrender his "supplies" for two or three years in lieu of such a sum in cash. The facts are similar in the case of Presbyterian foreign missions. The minutes report contributions of $651,160, while the Foreign Mission Board acknowledges but $538,638. In this case "supplies" cannot be invoked to any appreciable extent, to account for the deficiency of $112,522. Part of it, no doubt, goes to such non-Presbyterian missions as the McAll in France, or the Van Meter in Rome, which survives to prey upon the churches, even after its frequent exposures; a fraction, we suppose, finds its way to the pockets of irresponsible Armenians and Hindus who are for years "on the point of returning to preach the Gospel to their countrymen," and meanwhile pick up a comfortable living among American Christians; as to the rest, we confess we are as curious as the missionary secretaries to know what becomes of it.

These are some of the facts we had in mind at the time of penning the clause so much objected to. Another one like them is the practice of some city pastors who, when the time comes to make the yearly returns, gather together the reports of public charities—hospitals, asylums, orphanages, etc.—and put down, under the head of "miscellaneous benevolences" of their churches, all gifts which they find credited to any member of their churches or congregations. We suppose we ought to add, to prevent, if possible, the charge that we accuse ministers and churches of intentional dishonesty, a denial of intending any such thing. We simply maintain our former position, that the statistics of church benevolence, like those of church membership, need to be sifted before they can be used with such positiveness as that with which they are often cited. That is, Christian apologists who are working the statistical argument so hard nowadays, ought to be a little less dogmatic in proving that Christian faith is not waning from the fact that it "lays upon the altar" such and such sums in "hard cash." This would be true, even if the discrepancies pointed out above were to be fully explained.—Ed. Nation.]

HISTORY AND THE GROUP SYSTEM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The statement from Prof. Palmer's article which you quote in your issue of December 23, has left upon some minds a false impression with respect to the limitation of our undergraduate courses in English and American history to law students and students of modern languages. As a matter of fact, there is no obstacle in the group-system to any student electing three hours a week of French and English history for one year, and the same amount of English and American constitutional history. While absolving the requirements of a particular group of studies, say the classical, students are not only allowed, but are sometimes encouraged, to elect historical courses in addition. To say, therefore, that "One does not feel quite easy in allowing nobody but a lawyer or a devotee of modern languages to read a page of English or American history" is expressing a discontent which is hardly warranted by the elasticity of the group-system.

I may perhaps be allowed to add that all undergraduate applicants for admission to the university are first examined orally in American history; if successful, they are then admitted to the written examination for matriculation, which, in history, requires a text-book knowledge of either (1) England and the United States, or (2) Greece and Rome, as the candidate may elect. The history of England and of the United States is usually offered for matriculation, even by classical students. Every undergraduate is further required to elect a class course in either ancient history or general European history. Classical and historical students elect the former; scientific students, the latter. Upon such historical foundations, which, with other English studies, underlie the entire group-system, our own special group of historical and political studies is founded. Each of these two main subjects occupies two years, with five hours each week. Upon this general and special undergraduate work is based the graduate curriculum of three years in history and political science. Graduates from other colleges frequently elect undergraduate courses in our group, but our own undergraduates are not allowed to elect graduate work.

Very respectfully, Herbert B. Adams.
Johns Hopkins University, December 28, 1886.

DOMESTIC SERVICE FROM A WESTERN POINT OF VIEW.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In response to the question asked in the *Nation* of the 23d inst., "Why do not intelligent and refined women more frequently choose house service as a support?" it might be answered, For the same reason that intelligent and refined men do not pursue the humbler callings in life. Capable and refined women can do better for themselves; more limitedly than men, it is true, but better every year and with more hope. A few years ago some six or seven employments only were open to women. There are now in the neighborhood of 100. In our own city one factory alone employed during the last season some 200 women, between the ages of fourteen and sixty. These earned from fifty cents to one dollar and a half per day, and in the evening passed out to their homes their own mistresses until the next morning. All these changing and widening influences must bring confusion to housekeepers, if for no other reason than that the demand exceeds the supply.

More than forty years ago, De Tocqueville noticed, in connection with our democratic institutions, the social inquietude and helplessness arising out of the domestic-service problem. He decided that in our country, where nothing is hereditary, not even money, it is impossible for a working class to exist. One whom you employ to-day may be your equal to-morrow. The men and women who for the time being work for you "rebel in their hearts against a subordination to which they have subjected themselves and from which they derive actual profit. In every household, secret and intestine warfare is going on between powers ever rivals and suspicious of one another." The forty years between then and now have but increased the difficulty. The colored people, in this section at least, and the native whites have almost entirely abandoned any kind of work which keeps them from home at night, and the whole business is given over to foreigners who, catching the spirit of unrest which governs all classes in the United States, yield but a temporary and a capricious service.

With regard to the conditions named, it would be well to ask if in factories, schools, and businesses generally the employees frame the rules. If not advisable in business, it is less so in domestic life, where each household is necessarily a law unto itself, and where the object is not to have some one whom you may kindly instruct or carefully advise, but to secure a faithful and a capable girl. Were school committees to provide for the welfare of the teachers rather than the pupils, hoping in this way to obtain more favorable and judicious teaching, it would be deemed the most farcical of means to secure the desired end. The rigor of the school law is such that teachers dare not do other than their duty. In Cincinnati, for instance, a few minutes' tardiness on the part of a teacher is mulcted as a quarter of a day's absence; but who ever heard of a deduction from wages appearing as a factor in the economy of a household for tardy meals, or absences, or comings home late?

Were social life better organized, it would be more powerful. Many rough issues which men prevent by combination, women are subjected to by isolation. In their case there is no majesty of the law to offend, but in every instance it is the personal, intimate relation of "you and me." If then, as a class, women were more dignified, if cases of disobedience were met with prompt dismissal, girls would discover their zeal and their interests united, and learn to prize the sense of honor more than they do now. Every lady would gladly give to a girl that sympathy and assistance which she extends to a friend, could she, in return, receive the same sympathy and assistance. The unfortunate point is, that in the transitional state in which we live, the girl uses her position for her own ends, and counts it no disgrace to be whirled from place to place, while the oftentimes dishonorable expedients to which ladies resort to secure help would cause a philanthropist interested in feminine advancement to shudder.

Life has many cares, but one of its heaviest to an educated woman is the necessarily constant intercourse with the "stranger within her gates," a relationship demanding continual forbearance, and returning, at its best, but a melancholy satisfaction. One may be "baptized into the sense of all conditions," but no state will prove securi-

ty against a family of little children or their necessary wants. The training of little children and the active supervision of everything within her borders constitute at times, it would seem, a complex and an unequal share of life's duties for a woman. But with kind and efficient servants, she could retain in a measure her accomplishments, and find, through all discouragements, "some sparkles of a better hope which elder days would happily bring forth." But it is to be feared that until this new-world society outgrows its primitive conditions, and makes for itself a condition of things stable and conservative, or protects itself by coöperative schemes successfully carried out, it will remain in its present chaotic state, and burden the world with its jeremiads upon domestic service. E. B.

KEOKUK, IA., December 28, 1886.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The communication in your last issue relating to "Domestic Service" and signed "A. S.," gives one a fair idea of the circumstances under which the "refined, intelligent girl" would engage to do housework for a woman. To express it more plainly, this superior young person would consent to perform the duties which in modest households are assigned by the mistress to her daughters, and in consideration for this noble act of self-abnegation she demands—the use of a suite of rooms, board, and money in amount from two to four dollars per week.

Now it seems to me the great demand is, not for "intelligent, refined girls," who are barely willing under impossible conditions to enter domestic service, but for strong, honest girls, who are not ashamed to wash, iron, scrub, or cook. I repeat, the general demand is for servants; and as servants "imported" young women are superior to the Americans, and will continue to be preferred until our own countrywomen are in condition to replace them; and this will not be until the present supply of American workingwomen is furnished with an amount of common sense exceeding its degree of "refinement." Good "help" we must have, and if we cannot find it at home we must get a larger supply from abroad. These despised foreigners seem to appreciate their opportunity, and so, to express it vulgarly, will their "sisters and their cousins and their aunts."

Despite all this talk of abuse received by workingwomen at the hands of the mistress, it in fact amounts to little more than the complaints of some vain, silly domestics, who have perhaps been frustrated in a desire to "lord it" over an employer possibly ignorant in household affairs; chagrined because unnoticed by father or son; angered because the impropriety of entertaining *many* "followers" has been suggested. Each woman of this class is anxious to appear to the world as a "lady," and, because of her ignorant attraction for the word, seeks at all costs to assume the finery of a woman of wealth, and, in time, forgets even that originally her aim was to win for herself respect and esteem.

My circle of acquaintances is large, and I know not one woman who does not gladly allow her servants at least the following privileges: the use of a comfortable bed and decent room; appointed hours for meals; for entertaining friends, the use of a warm, well lighted kitchen, that can be made as attractive as desired; one afternoon and evening of each week for leaving home; any time as their own at home when the work has been properly done; the part of Sunday that can be conveniently given up to them; money, in acknowledgment for services, from two to five dollars per week.

The women who wish to monopolize all the light work, and leave all the hard work for some one else to perform, are not deserving of sympathy. E. H.

MICHIGAN, December 29, 1886.

BISHOP COXE'S HALF-KNOWLEDGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As your correspondent, "E. M. D.," has recalled attention to Bishop Coxe's singular manifesto in the October *Forum*, it seems worth while to point out more directly some of the errors of his article, illustrating the well-worn fact that eminence in one department of knowledge does not necessarily constitute authority in another. The "illogical and vulgar" use of the adverb between *to* and the infinitive, which he finds in Mr. Gladstone's speech, he has also noted in two or three other writers, even twice in *Temple Bar*, and, suggesting that Dickens may have introduced this locution into England from American "tap-rooms," asks: "Is there a reputable authority for this treatment of the verb before the days of Dickens?"

Now Dickens has been made to answer for many sins of his pen, but he should not be charged with this attempt to "debase his mother tongue." This treatment of the verb is as old as Wyclif, and is found in the works of such writers as Bishop Doane, Sir Thomas Browne, Dr. Johnson, Burke, Southey, Coleridge, Lamb, and De Quincey. These certainly are "reputable authorities," and (since the days of Dickens) Ruskin, Spencer, Browning, Matthew Arnold, and Leslie Stephen have thought the form reputable enough for their writings.

Bishop Coxe expresses great surprise at finding that "such a scholar as Liddon does not disdain to use" that "abominable barbarism" *reliable*. Has he never found it in the works of Cardinal Newman, Dean Mansel, J. S. Mill, Leslie Stephen, and Mr. Gladstone, who use it without scruple? Certainly he cannot have read Dr. Hall's volume, 'On -Able and Reliable,' which thoroughly vindicates the reputation of this word. He is also very severe upon the use of such "vulgarisms" as *talented*, *lengthy*, *being built*, etc., as evidence of the "rapid defilement and deterioration" of the language. It may shock him to know that the grammars in most extended use in the schools to-day have added a Progressive Passive Form to the regular conjugation to accommodate just such "improper" phrases as *is being built*.

But it is especially surprising that the Bishop, while appealing to his readers "to stand up for the purity of our noble language," should be very careless with his own purity. He cannot endure the established coinage *talented*, but gives us "Anglilxquent," coined "on my own theory." He abominates *reliable*, but uses "rationale" where he means simply *reason*. He says that Canning "confessed," on a certain memorable occasion, when, as a matter of fact, he only *acknowledged*. He objects to the "vulgar use" of the word *influential*, but, on the same page, uses the very illogical provincialism "in this connection"—a New England phrase which, says Bartlett, "has become quite shocking to nervous people." Many other infelicities might be noticed, since (to borrow the writer's own language) "I have thrown out these examples from a somewhat extensive collection of specimens." Enough has been said to show that the verbal habits of Bishop Coxe, though perhaps not as "vulgar" as Mr. Gladstone's, are certainly as "illogical," so far as illustrated in this article. However effective the intuitive method of propounding truth may be in the realm of morals and theology, it ought not to be rashly applied to the facts of linguistic usage. And as to matters of opinion and taste, one is inclined to believe that Bishop Coxe would have been less peremptory in his charges of vulgarity, had he fully perceived the wisdom of his own remark: "No individual has any right to engraft his personal peculiarities upon the common tongue."—Respectfully yours,

J. W. A.

BROOKLYN, December 29, 1886.

TOLSTOI'S "AUTOBIOGRAPHY."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Apropos of your remarks on page 545 of this week's *Nation* on Tolstoi, permit me to say that the French titles 'Mémoires' and 'Souvenirs' were publishers' inventions, for purposes best known to themselves. I have before me the fifth edition of the complete works of Tolstoi, in Russian (excepting, of course, 'My Religion,' which circulates in Russia only secretly), printed in Moscow in twelve volumes, dated 1886. The whole of the first volume is taken up with *three distinct works, apparently independent of one another*. They are entitled as follows: (1) Childhood. A Story. Written in 1852. (2) Boyhood. A Story. Written in 1854. (3) Youth. A Story. Written in 1855-57. The Russian word is *povyest*, which is properly a *narrative*, as distinguished from *razskaz*, which might be translated A Tale; if, indeed, there really is any difference between the two. Whoever sees in these titles anything more than what they indicate—such as an autobiography of Tolstoi, for which this work erroneously passes—has indeed a valuable faculty, but it is scarcely one compatible with a clear perception of facts as they are. Many, perhaps very many, scenes have undoubtedly a *basis* in Tolstoi's own life; but this is far from making the work an autobiography. Would it be right to omit the title from 'David Copperfield,' and, without further qualification or explanation, print it as an autobiography of Dickens? Of late, especially, whenever Tolstoi has had anything to say about himself, he has not been in the habit of concealing himself behind fictitious names and titles of "stories." It must, further, be remembered that as an artist Tolstoi is the exact counterpart of Turgeneff; if the latter's art was eminently objective, the former's is eminently subjective. Hence Turgeneff's first great work was a series of sketches of things and men without him—the 'Memoirs of a Sportsman'; Tolstoi's first great work was a series of sketches of things principally within him—for the three stories form together a continued subjective analysis of the growth of a human soul on Russian soil.

As you see from the above, the proper dates for these sketches are not 1851, but 1852-57; nor can these years be called "the years immediately *following* the Crimean war." If my memory serves me well, the Crimean war began in 1853 and ended early in 1856. The work, moreover, bears no traces of being "abruptly dropped." The work ends with the first half of the hero's youth; the narrator was seized with a sudden moral impulse, and says, "How long that impulse lasted, what was its nature, and how much it contributed to my further moral development, I shall relate in the following happier half of my youth." This promise of more may have been made *bona fide*, or may have been designed as part of the "plot." Be that as it may, on the face of it this is by no means an "abrupt" ending.

These points may seem trivial. But when one constantly hears of details of Tolstoi's life which on closer inspection prove fictitious, it is interesting to trace them back to loose statements of faithful but untrained students of their favorite author.—Respectfully, IVAN PANIN.

WELLESLEY, MASS., December 30, 1886.

THE INTER-STATE COMMERCE BILL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your number for December 23 it seems to us that Mr. Ashley made several errors in his letter on the Inter-State Commerce Bill.

He tells us "that if the short-haul principle is adhered to, not a grain of Dakota wheat will reach the mechanics of New York." Now, on the contrary, granting that it cannot be carried quite as cheaply, perhaps, under this bill, we claim (and the facts and figures will bear us out in the statement) that, in case of the passage of the bill, Dakota wheat would reach Duluth by paying much less freight than it now does, and from there it would be carried to the "mechanics of New York" for less money than now. The wheat receipts at Duluth are almost as large as those at Chicago, and, for the week ending November 13, were 543,000 bushels, as opposed to 634,000 at Chicago. The passage of this bill would make Duluth the great depot for Dakota wheat, and right then would commence the only real competition—that between carrying by water and by railroads.

We cannot show more clearly the futility and uselessness of pooling and competition in the matter of reducing railroad rates than by quoting a part of an open letter from the "Mankato Jobbers' Union" to the Railroad Commissioners of this State:

"We claim that no point in southern Minnesota is by nature or geography tributary to any city north of a direct line to the foot of Lake Michigan except possibly it be to a point at the head of Lake Superior, and that any adjustment of traffic rates which would force us to pay such tribute is contrary to public interest, is based on unsound business principles, and is illegal and unjust discrimination; and furthermore we allege that the C., St. P., M. and O., the C. and N. W., and the C., M. and St. P. Railroad Companies and other roads are to-day, and have been in all their past, so adjusting their tariffs from lake points as to enforce this unjust discrimination.

"We allege that the C., M. and St. P. R. R. crossing the Mississippi at La Crescent carries its Chicago freight, of all classes, north to Minneapolis, 139 miles, for a lower rate than it will the same freight to Mound Prairie, 16 miles west, or to any point on its lines west of this last-named place. We allege that the C. and N. W. R. R. carries freight from the same point to Minneapolis, 420 miles, at a lower rate than it will carry the same freight to Utica, 319 miles, or to any other point on its western line."

Respectfully, J. A. Nowell.

Mankato, Minn., December 27, 1886.

CIVIL-SERVICE REFORM IN MICHIGAN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Friends of civil-service reform are scarce in these parts, and somewhat timid in making known their existence; but there is a time when patience ceases to be a virtue, and silence causes suspicion of imbecility. At present there seems to be a proper occasion to break that silence and give vent to one's dissatisfaction.

The subject of this complaint is the course of the Administration in regard to the Federal offices in this district, which has been such as to give the lie to its promises of reform and to the claims of its stanch friends, the Mugwumps. The latter looked upon President Cleveland's election as a triumph of sound political principles over the old spoils doctrine; they hoped to benefit their cause thereby, to be able to point to the practical application of their teachings, and thus to make converts. In this they have been most grievously disappointed, as will appear from a short statement of facts.

The district in which Detroit is situated has four principal Federal offices, viz.: the Pension Office, Post-office, Internal-Revenue Office, and the Custom-house—all of which were formerly held by Republicans. The latter have all been removed from office, and Democrats have been appointed in their places; and the reason for and manner of doing it have, in three cases out of the four, been in accordance with the old approved principles of the spoils system. The former Postmaster was an exemplary officer, as acknowledged by everybody, irrespective of party, excepting the Republican campaign managers, who were mad at him because he refused to employ the influence of his office in their interests. But off came his head, and an old Democratic warhorse, who knew nothing about the business of the office, received his place. The Mugwumps felt hurt, but did not complain.

The Collector of Internal Revenue was the type of an old-time politician, who used his office for two purposes only, one to draw a fat salary with great diligence, and the other to fight the battles of the grand old party. His attacks on Cleveland during the Presidential campaign were worthy of a denizen of Five Points, and he was most deservedly kicked out of his office. But the man who received his place was one of the most active wire-pullers in the Democratic ranks, and notorious for having used his position as Clerk of the Superior Court of this city for the purpose of transforming fresh immigrants into full-fledged Democratic citizens, to the detriment of the other business of the office; and his appointment could only be considered as a reward for most offensive partisanship. This, again, was a sad illustration of the application of reform.

There remained the Collector of Customs. He, too, had been an active and offensive partisan during the campaign of '84, and his removal from office on that score would have been justifiable. As special protégé of the Senator from this city he was not molested until recently, when his office was given to a Mr. Campau, a young man of large fortune and social prominence, one of those who might have been expected to entertain higher views of politics than the pot-house orators. The friends of reform were inclined to consider his appointment a good one, and offset it against the former bad ones; but alas! they were doomed to be disappointed again, as will appear from the following, taken from the Detroit *Free Press*, the Democratic and Administration organ of this city:

COLLECTOR CAMPAU'S PLANS.

He Will Fill the Sixty Positions Under Him with Competent Democratic Officials.

D. J. Campau last night received notification from Washington of the confirmation by the Senate of his appointment as Collector of the Port of Detroit. Mr. Campau said to a representative of the *Free Press*, who called upon him to learn what steps he would take towards the reconstruction of the force of deputies under him, that he felt exceedingly gratified that the confirmation was made so soon after the opening of the session, and wholly without effort on his part. Further, Mr. Campau said that as a Democrat he should consider it a duty, both to his party and the office, to supply every position under him with a good Democratic official, and that it would only be a question of time when such changes would be made. He now has on file just 600 applications, mostly from Detroit, each of which are from Democrats qualified to fill the positions sought for. The Collector has sixty appointments in his gift, and says that as he is responsible for the work done in the various departments, he would much rather have men of his own political complexion to deal with. The entire matter of selecting men as to their respective qualifications is left to him, the name of each being sent to the Secretary of the Treasury at Washington for approval. There is no reason to fear that Mr. Campau's administration will not be satisfactory to all Democrats.

One could possibly overlook one or even two mistakes in disposing of four important offices, but such a complete disregard of principles and promises in three cases out of four makes it imperative to call attention to them, in order to avert from Independents the suspicion of dense obtuseness or of blind and slavish admiration of their successful candidate. Undoubtedly the President has been misled by his advisers from this State, and we still are justified in attributing his errors to no bad intention. Mugwumps still believe in his honesty of purpose, but they may well begin to doubt his ability to carry out his intentions.—Yours respectfully, Wm. E. H.

Detroit, Mich., December 27, 1886.

SECRET SYMPATHY WITH CRIME.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have a psychological question to propose. What is the exact state of mind, under analysis, of the small newspaper writer who always speaks of crime jocosely? Everybody must have observed it as one of the many ways in which the vulgar newspaper tends to vulgarize the public. For example, why "boodle" Aldermen? Certainly nothing is gained by slang terms for criminal offences; and it is noticeable that well-bred people are not in the habit of using them. The humorous or jocular view of any occurrence commonly implies a kind of careless, good-natured sympathy with the actor. What does this habit of jocose and slangy reference to criminals indicate in the third-rate newspaper writer, if not a secret and constitutional sympathy with crime? E. R. S.

THE EFFECT OF OIL ON STORMY WATERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: An account of Prof. Thurston's discussion of this subject in the *Nation*, November 25, 1886, page 437, ends, after mentioning Prof. Thurston's hope that the sea may thus lose many of its terrors, with the curious statement that "it would do much to undermine one of the chief arguments against thought-transference, namely, that it is impossible that it should be true, for it is impossible that if it were true it should not have been discovered before."

A belief in such an action is, however, of ancient date, and towards the end of last century special attention was attracted to the subject. There is a long memoir in the Transactions of the Brussels Academy (about 1780), in which the subject is treated both historically and experimentally. The author traces the history back through the Dutch and Norwegian whalers, if I remember rightly—I have not the volume at hand—to Pliny.

Among others, B. Franklin wrote "of the stilling of waves by means of oil" (Phil. Trans. Abr. xiii. p. 568, 1774). Thomas Windsor.

Manchester, England.

Notes.

The Century Co.'s war book, to be called 'Battles and Leaders of the Civil War,' will be published early in the spring, by subscription. In addition to all the war papers by Gens. Grant, McClellan, Pope, Buell, Beauregard, Longstreet, and other prominent leaders on both sides which have appeared in the *Century*, the book will contain many papers heretofore unprinted, and will form a continuous illustrated history of the civil war, written by the chief participants. The Century Co. will endeavor to make it one of the handsomest subscription books ever published.

Ginn & Co., Boston, have decided not to import the sheets of Minto's 'Manual of English Prose Literature,' but to manufacture it themselves and to publish it at a reduced price.

Cupples, Upham & Co. will publish at once 'The Creed of Andover Theological Seminary,' by Rev. D. T. Fiske, D.D.—a pamphlet which has been more than once printed.

Miss Kate Hillard, who has for some years been making a special study of Dante, and who is

now residing in Rome, has in preparation a translation of the 'Convito.' The edition will include translations of the notes and comments of the best Italian editors, and of the dedicatory epistle to Can Grande, and also all the references found in the 'Convito' to the other writings of the author. Full consideration will also be given by the translator to the different theories concerning Beatrice. The work is expected to be in readiness in about a year's time.

The articles of Mr. David A. Wells on Mexico, noticed by us at the time of their appearance in the *Popular Science Monthly*, have been collected and published under the title, 'A Study of Mexico' (D. Appleton & Co.). The revision and expansion given to the original papers have increased their value, and they now present, we believe, the best information accessible in any single English book regarding the economic situation of Mexico. One of Mr. Wells's additions is misleading, however, where he speaks (p. 110) of the "only 12,361 votes" cast at the Presidential election of 1872. Aware, as it is evident that he is, of the system of indirect voting, he should have made it clearer that these 12,000 votes might have represented the suffrages of 1,200,000 citizens. To what he says of the problem of the drainage of the valley of Mexico (p. 202), he might have added some account of the plans adopted and the work actually accomplished by the Mexican Government. These plans involve the digging of a canal some thirty miles long, leading from the city to Lake Zumpango, whence a tunnel 30,000 feet in length is to be forced through the mountains, emptying into the cañon of Tequisquiac, in which a cut has to be made for a distance of over 8,000 feet. This cut is now reported to be entirely finished, together with about 2,500 feet of the tunnel. After such an unaccustomed burst of activity, the Government is now resting, and proposes to let the remainder of the work by contract, with the probability that the Bucyrus Construction Company of Ohio will be the successful bidder.

It is interesting to note how a wrong date once given in books of reference tends to reappear in other books long after the right date has been settled. Mr. George C. S. Southworth illustrates this in his recently published 'Six Lectures Introductory to the Study of English Literature,' where he gives the date of George Eliot's birth as 1820. Had he referred to Mr. Cross's 'George Eliot's Life' he would have found the right date, 1819. In stating, as he does on page 174 of his book, that "The wife of Prof. George Lilie Craik (who wrote the excellent 'History of English Literature') was long known as Miss Mulock," Mr. Southworth makes an original erroneous statement, which we hope will not be copied by other writers on English literature. The husband of the author of 'John Halifax, Gentleman' is a nephew of the late Prof. Craik.

The project of erecting a statue to Gustave Flaubert has given rise to many comments. Few men were more averse to the reproduction of their person in any way than the author of 'Madame Bovary.' Now that he is dead, his portrait may be seen in the complete edition of his works, but he would not have allowed it to appear there. He courted seclusion, and feared nothing more than the indiscretions of the press in regard to his personality. Fortunately for him, he died before the full bloom of the interviewer. The petty curiosity of the public annoyed him. He wrote to George Sand in 1871, "Has not modern criticism abandoned art for history? The intrinsic value of a book is nothing with the Sainte-Beuve-Taine school. . . . Hence in the minor papers the abuse of personalities, biographies, diatribes. Result: disrespect on the part of the public." And, later, he is exasperated by the gossip in regard to his home, "his slippers, his dog." He certainly was the last man to choose for exposure in a public square. Luckily the *intimes* will spare him this ignominy. They have agreed on a commemorative monument forming an allegorical group in which a medallion or bust of Flaubert will find its place. The monument will be erected at Rouen.

We remark the appearance of a summary of the course of lectures given at the University of Brussels in 1884-85, by Count Goblet d'Alviella, under the title, 'Introduction à l'histoire des religions' (New York: Christern). In the appendix is urged the necessity of introducing the history of religions in public instruction.

Les Lettres et les Arts for December (Paris: Boussod, Valadon et Cie.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons) contains a long article, "Le Château de Chantilly," by M. Maurice Tourneux, to which the number owed the honor of being presented to the French Academy at its session of December 7. M. Tourneux relates with much grace the history of Chantilly and its dependencies, especially during the long period of its transformation from a feudal fortress into one of the marvels of the Renaissance in France by the Constable de Montmorency and his descendants, and later by the Grand Condé into "un séjour unique au monde," where all the magnificences of the *siècle de Louis XIV.* were lavished. The history of Chantilly under the later Condés and its restoration by the Duc d'Aumale, still in progress, are sufficiently indicated, as well as the artistic wealth which will fill it when, by his gift, it passes into the possession of the five Academies which form the *Institut de France*. The paper is illustrated with photogravures of the present château, and by reproductions of old maps and engravings of the former buildings and dependencies. The brilliant success of 'L'Incendie des Folies-Plastiques,' the amusing volume of stories recently published by M. Abraham Dreyfus, promised more than is made good by the little comedy which he gives in the present number of the *Revue*. M. Anatole France is most happy, however, in his story of "Marguerite," which deserves the place of honor given it at the beginning of the number. There is a charming head of a little girl among the illustrations, and another picture of a boy still younger building castles of dominoes, which is delightful; but the pictures M. Anatole France himself leaves in the memories of his readers are far more delicate and exquisite in execution than any that the artists have drawn to accompany his story.

Among recent foreign scientific publications are the 'Chemistry of the Sun,' by J. N. Lockyer, F. R. S., containing a full statement of the hypothesis put before the Royal Society by the author some years ago, that the so-called elementary bodies are in reality compound, in which Mr. Lockyer attempts to show that the spectroscopic phenomena of both the observatory and the laboratory are simply and sufficiently explained on the view that the chemical elements behave after the manner of compound bodies; an elementary 'Treatise on the Differential Calculus,' by the Rev. Joseph Edwards, both these works being published by Macmillan; and a 'Treatise on Optics,' by R. S. Heath, Professor of Mathematics in the Mason Science College, Birmingham, published by the Cambridge Press.

The infrequent award of medals of the Royal Society to American scientists lends no little interest to the following paragraph in the recent anniversary address of Prof. Stokes, the President of the Society: "The Rumford Medal has been awarded to Prof. Samuel P. Langley for his researches on the spectrum by means of the bolometer. A better knowledge of the ultra-red region of the spectrum, which includes the larger part of the energy of solar radiation, had long been a desideratum when Prof. Langley commenced his work upon this subject. Finding the thermopile insufficiently sensitive for his purpose, he contrived the bolometer. This instrument depends upon the effect of temperature upon the electrical resistance of metals, a quantity susceptible of very accurate measurement; and, with its aid, Prof. Langley has been able to explore a part of the spectrum previously almost inaccessible to observation. A result of Prof. Langley's work, very important from the point of view of optical theory and of the ultimate constitution of matter, relates to the law of dispersion, or the dependence of refrangibility on wave-length. Cauchy's formula, which corresponds well with observation over most of the visible spectrum, is found to break down entirely when applied to the extreme ultra red. Prof. Langley has given much attention to the important question of the influence of the atmosphere on solar radiation. The expedition to Mount Whitney, successfully conducted by him in face of many difficulties, has given results of the utmost value, pointing to conclusions of great interest and novelty."

We learn from the *Academy* that the Council of the Senate at Cambridge has recommended the adoption of the University of New Zealand as an affiliated institution. In many respects this is in the nature of a new departure, for hitherto the privileges of affiliation have been limited to colleges in England which cannot themselves confer degrees. Besides, it has always been stipulated previously that Cambridge should be represented in the governing body of the affiliated institution, with a view to exercising some control over the examinations—a stipulation waived in the present case. It is also announced that Oxford and Cambridge have in preparation a joint scheme for the affiliation of the Indian universities.

—The January *Century* is a remarkably able number. The first place in interest continues to be held by the Life of Lincoln, which advances rapidly into the period of early manhood, occupied by his law apprenticeship, Whig campaigning, and marriage. The well-known incident of his attachment to a young lady who died is told without new details, and the rejection of his suit in a second instance is cleared up and the peculiar account he once gave of it in a private letter explained. His half-hearted courtship of the one who was to become his wife, and the singular depression of his spirits during the year previous to his marriage, make the most interesting subject of the whole paper, but the treatment of it is vague. If the biographers have been perfectly frank, it is plain that they do not entirely understand this curious episode, which remains an enigma. Their reserve in respect to the character of Mrs. Lincoln and the circumstances of the union of the two amounts almost to total silence. Second in importance is Mr. Atkinson's tabular and statistical view of the growth of our country, substantially the address delivered by him at Buffalo last August before the American Association for the Advancement of Science. It is full of solid information made easily intelligible, and is studded with those novel condensations of a multiplicity of facts in sentences of epigrammatic point which are characteristic of his writings. It is impossible to condense further what he says, but his tendency is towards showing that the distribution of our increased wealth is more equitable, and the share of labor in the general product is gaining to a greater degree than is commonly believed. He reckons the improvement to be such that the workman, maintaining the same standard of living as in 1860, could now lay up one-third of his wages. The facts and conclusions of this article have a wide reach, and are apparently to be set

over against the economic state of Europe, in a future number, as the balance of democracy vs. dynasties *et al.* Other articles of note are Henry James's on "Coquelin," a very full sketch of Bancroft's life, the continuation of the admirable criticism on French sculptors, and Prof. Langley's popular account of comets, meteors, and shooting stars. Cable and Stockton furnish fiction.

—The fourth number of the publications of the American Economic Association is a very good example of what such publications should be. It is entitled 'Coöperation in a Western City,' and is the work of Mr. Albert Shaw, one of the editors of the Minneapolis *Tribune*, a writer who has already devoted attention to topics of this class. He treats of a variety of subjects, several of which are not of sufficient importance to justify our notice; but the accounts of coöperation among the coopers of Minneapolis, of the building societies of St. Paul, and of profit-sharing in the Pittsburgh mills, are exceptionally interesting and suggestive. The enormous production of flour at Minneapolis occasions a corresponding demand for barrels, several millions a year being required. Coopering, therefore, is a considerable industry, employing between 700 and 800 men, more than half of whom belong to the coöperative shops. These establishments are of several years' standing, and have been very successful. It seems, therefore, that coöperation in productive enterprise is in America no longer a theory, or even an experiment, but an accomplished fact. A whole trade has been revolutionized. Hundreds of men who were mere journeymen, liable to be discharged at any moment, are now capitalists, owning their own homes, owning stock in profitable companies, and subject only to the vicissitudes to which all men engaged in business on their own account are liable. The details of this remarkable economic change are told in a clear and spirited manner by Mr. Shaw, and this essay will repay whatever attention those who are interested in coöperation can give it. "The indigenous character of this coöperative movement; its remarkable exemption from the aid, patronage, or praise of social reformers, political economists, hobby-riders, or persons of the literary habit; its entire freedom from the self-consciousness and premature thirst for fame that characterize almost every social experiment, however insignificant," are all features of especial attractiveness. The stories of the Rochdale Pioneers and of the Godin *Familistère* have been repeated until they are wearisome. The story that Mr. Shaw has to tell has never been told before; it presents novel conditions, and for Americans is peculiarly instructive.

—The building associations of Minneapolis have not had a long career, and have to show so far about a thousand homes secured to working people. This number will probably be increased by 250 this year, and the ratio of increase is likely to be still greater in the future. But in the city of St. Paul the work of these associations has been simply astonishing. There are forty of them, and their monthly receipts are estimated at $80,000. They have collected altogether more than $10,000,000, and the general testimony is that by far the greater part of this money would have been wasted but for the inducement to saving which they have offered. It is calculated that one-fourth of the families in the city are represented in these societies, and more than a thousand loans a year are made by them, chiefly for the construction of dwellings. From eight to ten thousand homes in St. Paul have, either in whole or in part, been thus secured to their owners. Of this work, also, Mr. Shaw says that it has hardly before been so much as mentioned in print; and yet there is no doubt that "the building society is above all things to be commended as a conservator of the home and family institutions that underlie all our national greatness and power." It must be borne in mind, however, with reference to all these enterprises, that the community in which they originated has been exceptionally prosperous. Business, population, and land-values have increased together, with a rapidity sufficient to make almost any investment profitable.

—On the 15th and 16th of December M. Léon Say had the rare good fortune to distinguish himself within twenty-four hours in two very different fields, in the Senate and in the French Academy. His speech in the Senate, pressing the new Goblet Ministry to define its position, gratified the conservative Republicans whose opinions are expressed by the *Journal des Débats*, to which M. Say is a frequent contributor. The next day he read his *Discours de réception*, which, though aiming to be purely literary, was not calculated to conciliate his political enemies. He had to speak of two predecessors, a thing which occurs rarely. Edmond About, who had been elected to fill the place of Jules Sandeau, died before his official reception could take place, leaving to the new recipiendary the task of praising two Academicians. M. Say spoke of them both, simply and with no exaggeration of eulogium, with all the reticence of academic panegyric. After just one sentence about the "liaisons heureuses mais agitées" of the youth of Sandeau, he passed on to his first independent work, 'Madame de Sommerville,' not even mentioning his collaboration with George Sand in 'Rose et Blanche,' signed Jules Sand, although that was really the starting point of his literary career. As to About, his successor praised his *esprit*, of course, and he showed his own by the skill with which he managed to present this multifarious *petit Voltaire*, novelist, archæologist, critic, dramatist, pamphleteer, chronicler, and, in his own opinion, agronomist, even political economist. He was very courteous to him in this last capacity. M. Rousse answered M. Say in the name of the Academy. At the conclusion of his speech he alluded to the unoccupied seat (without mentioning the name) of the Duc d'Aumale, who, "upon leaving us, *nous a fait de si magnifiques adieux.*" The next reception but one (of Leconte de Lisle, namely, who succeeds Victor Hugo) will be that of M. Hervé, who, as Paris gossip says, was elected mainly through the influence of the exiled Academician. But the mildly Republican element in the Academy will surely express itself when their latest choice, M. Gréard, takes his seat.

—M. Émile Deschanel resumed on Wednesday, December 10, his brilliant course in French literature at the Collège de France. He began by a general summary of the lectures of the last five years, which were intended merely as an introduction to the Modern Literature of France, upon which he now enters. Five volumes have appeared, giving the substance of his lectures, and a sixth is announced. These are published under the general title, "Le Romantisme des classiques." The first four have been fully noticed in the *Nation*. The fifth is 'Le Théâtre de Voltaire' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof). Like its predecessors it is pleasant, rather chatty, never very deep, and will serve to recall to mind a series of plays now seldom read in spite of the occasional revivals they have at the Comédie-Française. Voltaire's tragedies (his comedies are not worth mentioning) have all the artificialty of the French classic drama, and they unfortunately make the reader think of a much greater writer. *Orosmane* and *Zaïre* shine with a pale reflected light by the side of *Othello* and *Desdemona*. The subject of M. Deschanel's lectures last winter was "Les Origines du Romantisme et du Réalisme," Jean Jacques Rousseau, Diderot, etc. This year he announces as his subject the history of the "École romantique," to be followed by that of the "École réaliste." The first authors he will study are Bernardin de Saint-Pierre, Mme. de Staël, Chateaubriand, and Senancour.

—To the student of classical history no subject ought to be more interesting than the survivals of old beliefs and old legends under more recent forms. And yet the investigation is not without its difficulties and its perils. As the horizon of folk-lore expands, we find so many startling coincidences in myth and legend and saga that we hesitate to pronounce on a pedigree which once seemed clear, and express ourselves with as much reserve as Telemachus did, when questioned as to the source of his being. Still, we cannot refuse to recognize the fact that the heathen nations that poured into the Church brought with them a stock of old beliefs, usages, ceremonies, which were incorporated into the new structure, lived with its life, and grew with its growth. Sometimes the new-comers seem to have influenced dogma, sometimes the "god in exile" seems to have cast his shadow, sometimes his mantle, on his successors; but doctrinal matters cannot be treated without apparent irreverence, and if we are to study the plastic adaptation of the figures of the Greek Pantheon, it is better to seek our examples among the legends of the saints than in the history of dogma. Indeed, we find that dogma had, at a comparatively early date, become so rigid as to allow little moulding from without, and the progress of doctrine is not a matter that concerns the classical student much. In other directions, however, a certain liberal policy was followed. Whatever could safely be tolerated was tolerated. There was no rude breaking with old traditions. The gods were banished, it is true, but wherever classical myths could be made to symbolize Christian life they were quietly kept up.

—The fair sinner with her penitential tears has been a favorite theme of the painters for centuries, and "maudlin," in our English vocabulary, is derived from the old pictures of the sorrowing Magdalen. The early Church had made the figure of the penitent conspicuous among her saints: no more absolute warrant for the forgiveness of sins than the woman that was a sinner in the house of Simon, that woman whom the Roman tradition identified with Mary Magdalene—than the woman who is still lingering in the outskirts of the Gospel according to St. John. No wonder that the sympathy felt with these Biblical characters expressed itself in the coinage of new types, and some years since Prof. Usener, in a charming monograph on the Legend of St. Pelagia, pursued that "archidiablesse" Venus, as Heine calls her, through all the Protean forms that she assumes in the chronicles of the saints. According to him, Pelagia and Marina, the Lady of the Sea, Margarito, the Lady of the Pearl, Porphyria, the Lady of the Purple, Anthusa, the Lady of Flowers, Euphrosyna, and Matrona are all reflexes of the one goddess, Aphrodite. To kill Aphrodite was impossible, but it was possible to disguise her and to convert her. What was pure in the figure of Venus found its incorporation elsewhere, and the soiled dove of Aphrodite, who is one with Semiramis, was washed in the laver of regeneration. Prof. Usener boldly maintained then that these various saints are only hypostatized surnames of Aphrodite, and in pursuance of the same theme he has recently given us the *Acta S. Marinæ* in a form for which those who sympathize with him, and those who do not, will be alike grateful. The use he has made of his learning may not be acceptable to most of those who delight in the legends of the saints. The use he has made of his MSS. is a matter of general satisfaction. The martyrology of St. Marina ap-

pears together with that of St. Christopher—most picturesque of saints—in an appendix to the congratulatory letter sent by the University of Bonn to the University of Heidelberg at its recent semi-millennium. Much of Prof. Usener's admirable work appears in similar sporadic forms, and those who wonder at an erudition which is as familiar with the labors of the Bollandists as with the remotest recesses of classic mythology, are becoming impatient to see the complete cycle of which we have had only an arc here and an arc there. We can only add that the story of Marina is, to our thinking, much less interesting and dramatic than that of Pelagia, which is admirably told by the monkish chronicler.

ARTISTIC IMAGINATION.

Imagination in Landscape Painting. By Philip Gilbert Hamerton. Boston : Roberts Bros.

MR. HAMERTON again offers a contribution to the science of the most difficult, because least tangible, subject of study to which great importance can be attached at our present stage of intellectual development. We have reached at last a scientific basis for every branch of investigation into things subject of positive knowledge except art, which, while it goes on filling the earth with its results, gives us no demonstrable hold on its vital principle. *De gustibus non est disputandum* is the conclusion behind which all differences of opinion take shelter; and in fact the personal element so thoroughly dominates all others in criticism, that the standards of excellence and the position of the individual artist are more influenced by the judgment of a single critic of accepted authority than by all the essays of a scientific tendency ever written. We accept the judgments of Reynolds and of Da Vinci, not because we follow any reasoning they have left us, but because we know that they understood art, and therefore ought to be able to give an opinion. It is peculiarly a case of *possumus quia videmur posse*, and we have seen in this generation public opinion controlled, as far as the English language goes, by a critic who was demonstrably wrong (whether any other may be found demonstrably right, remains another question) in many principles of criticism which he laid down, partial and passionate in exegesis and inaccurate in observation, because he had acquainted himself with certain scientific facts, and with unsurpassed eloquence and profound self-conviction asserted those facts and that conviction to be the foundation of art, and therefore the standards by which it should be judged, though no thoroughly qualified artist has ever accepted his premises or his conclusions.

In the necessary work of clearing away the erroneous system of ideas which Ruskin, with an unflinching air of authority and contagious passion, has imposed on his peculiar public, no one has been so influential as Hamerton. Trained in a broad school of art, judicial and scientific in his temperament, he has attacked the questions involved in a true standard of criticism with a deliberation and breadth of judgment curiously in contrast with the Oxford Professor's, with the advantage that though he builds slowly and with a truly Caledonian prudence, his work stands destructive criticism better than that of any previous writer on art. Comparing this his latest study into the springs of artistic activity with that of Mr. Ruskin on the same subject, the qualities of the rival critics may be seen more clearly grouped, if more favorable to the latter, than in most of their parallel studies. Ruskin's essay on the Imagination is, taken with that on Beauty, the most valuable part of his 'Modern Painters'; but it will be noticed that at the basis of his entire theory of art there lies an element of mysticism, a remote metaphysical strain, largely derived from his personal emotions before nature. His theory had a fascinating theological value, perhaps a scientific one, if there were any method of measuring emotion by a scientific standard, but necessarily remains a mere suggestion for a complete and profound metaphysical investigation. Its analysis is ingenious and overwrought, and fails, perhaps more than from any other reason, through his attempt to include under his definition of Imagination faculties which are only associated with it or allied to it. Hamerton is more practical in his method of approaching the subject, and accepts the fact of imagination as we do that of thought, as a mental phenomenon of which metaphysical explanation is not to be profitably studied.

But in his turn Hamerton follows too far the lead of Ruskin, whose treatment he seems to have had in mind, and commits, in our opinion, another error in taking too little for understood in the minds of his readers. To take the last objection first, he becomes trite in his opening chapters, where he deals with the peculiarity, or want of peculiarity, rather, in the imagination of landscape painters—which seems to us to go without saying. He attempts to bring his argument down to the level of minds which, if they read him at all, will apprehend without this elementary discussion all that he bases on it; and if they do not, will take him at his word and accept it without the discussion. Nobody who is capable of following his investigation would maintain that landscape imagination is a separate faculty from figure imagination; and this minuteness gives the essay at the outset an air of commonplace, which weakens its general effect. Even here, however, there occur occasional observations which have a characteristic common-sense value, as when Mr. Hamerton says, speaking of unprofessional taste:

"There is good evidence, even, that a large proportion of the outside public is really more imaginative than some of the landscape painters themselves: for accurate, unimaginative landscape painting is never widely popular, and the lowest popular forms of the art, as well as the highest, invariably appeal far more to the spectator's imagination than to any supposed accuracy in his knowledge. The views of places painted on the panels of steamboats, or the colored prints that are bestowed gratuitously on the purchasers of certain groceries, or the sketches of landscape on screens and trays, are probably the lowest forms of the art that deserve to be taken into consideration; and in all these you will find, I do not say any noble imaginative powers, but certainly far more the impulse to be imaginative than to be accurate. This is only in accordance with what we know of the popular imagination in other things. We owe the development of all early myths and legends to the common people, while the criticism which distinguishes between legend and history is always the product of a small, cultivated class. There is, indeed, such vigor of imagination in the popular mind that the artist who is destitute of it cannot satisfy the instinctive need of the people. They will be unmoved by his art, and however careful, however full of conscientious observation it may be, they will feel it to be unsatisfactory, *and therefore reject it as untrue.*"

Rarely has a more important truth connected with the development of art been so plainly told in so few words. This passage contains the elements of a complete philosophy of art. The following chapter, on the two senses of the word Imagination, errs in both the senses we have pointed out, first in admitting to a certain extent Ruskin's divisions of the Imagination, and second in going to the lexicographers for the definition of a word of which no lexicographer can be competent to give a definition to the specialist. Webster and Littré can give the generally accepted definition of Imagination—that is their function; but when a finer distinction is to be drawn, it belongs to the imaginative man to give it, or, in default of his definition, we must recur to the specialist who deals with Imagination, *i. e.*, to art in its various forms. Mr. Hamerton would have arrived at a happier and quicker conclusion had he not deferred so much to the common understanding of what the common understanding will always make a mystery of. Nor had Wordsworth any clear conception of how Imagination could be defined—probably he had never given himself any serious thought on the matter—or what might be the radical distinction between it and Fancy. And Mr. Hamerton himself seems to us not so much insensible to, as timid in essuming to define, the true distinction between the two ; for that the distinction exists, not even Ruskin's avowal (too late) of incapacity to distinguish between Fancy, Imagination, and Invention (p. 4) is sufficient to make one doubt. If we might venture to supplement, rather than correct, Mr. Hamerton, we should say that Invention means the finding out a way to do a thing which may be imaginative or may not—it is a purely voluntary act, with a definite purpose in view, viz., the doing something by a method not applied to that act before ; it does not imply Imagination, but may be moved by it. Fancy consists rather in charging an object with some unusual attribute, or associating it with some unexpected quality than in bringing up new images; while Imagination is the supreme creative faculty, bringing up to the mental faculties distinct mental images, recognizable and under certain circumstances communicable to the minds of others than the imaginer. But as to the grade or quality of the Imagination, there does not seem to be any distinction possible except that of more or less, and more or less pure from Fancy, from memory of actual objects seen, or more or less distinct as compared with actual vision.

Not only is a recollection (distinctly recognizable as such) not a part of an imaginative picture, but it is probably a drawback to its perfection, for while memory acts distinctly, what it recalls will be actual objects seen, while the value of the imaginative picture consists in the unity which is the consequence of its spontaneous creation. Memory feeds Imagination, but has no specific part in the production of the "imago" beyond having furnished all the material which, digested and recombined, forms its details; and while the Imagination may doubtless be more copious and clear for being coupled with an excellent memory, it will probably be crippled by that memory acting perceptibly. Probably the best example of pictorial memory in the records of art is that of our F. E. Church, in whom Imagination is so completely dissociated from memory that it may be said not to exist, except in the sense in which all people have it in a degree, by having mental vision—if all have it. This, indeed, is fully recognized by Mr. Hamerton in what he says in the chapter on "Images in the Mind" (p. 7), which makes his distinctions in the discussion of Memory vs. Imagination less clear than they should be.

In connection with this subject it should be understood that memory, as the artificial product of science, and with regard to which Mr. Hamerton has, in the chapter on Training of Memory, some very thoughtful considerations, is decidedly antagonistic to artistic imagination, and not even, like simple memory, nutritive to it, for it induces the mind to retain facts as they are scientifically known, not as they are really seen; and what the artist has to deal with is the appearance of things, with regard to which Hamerton himself has taught us in his 'Landscape' that illusions are often the best side of art. If (p. 13) the distinction between *pinus sylvestris* and other trees is not visible to the merely art-educated eye, then art should take no cognizance of it, nor should a landscape painter take notice of geological distinctions which do not appear in

form and tint. To represent rocks as gneiss or sandstone in a picture when they could only be distinguished as such by a geological education, is no part of art.

A most important part of this study is that contained in the chapter on "Images Evoked by Feeling," in which it is pointed out that a vital distinction exists between actual and dramatic passion, in that while the first paralyzes art, the second (or what Hamerton calls "secondary emotion," *i. e.*, a half-feigned or half-remembered emotion), develops it:

"This brings us to a most important conclusion, which enhances still more the great value of imagination in the fine arts. Not only are the images seen by the imaginative artist called up by emotion, but *the emotion itself is imaginative.* By the power of his imagination the artist enters into a state of emotion, and yet at the same time this emotion, which is only half real, leaves him sufficient mental liberty to attend to all the technical details of his work as versifier or painter. When a poet seems most deeply moved, he has still leisure enough to choose effective syllables and sonorous rhymes, as an actress, in the storm of simulated passion, assumes those attitudes which display her person to advantage."

A branch of his subject which we should have been glad if the author had elaborated more completely, is the relation between the imagining of a subject (landscape) and composition of the same; unimaginative painters often having great facility and felicity in composing, as, in a remarkable degree, our Church already alluded to. The chapter on "The Alteration in Images Produced by Feeling" seems to us to retraverse the ground occupied by imaginative conception, the true "feeling" or emotion being imaginative, and transforming the image derived from the natural scene to a different image. This is merely the case in which Imagination fuses the image without destroying its identity, so that it provides the soul or vital element without being concerned with the body or material element.

It is impossible in reasonable space to follow out in detail the development which Mr. Hamerton has given his subject, suggestive as it is of grave thought in every page; and if redundant in argument, it is without verbiage, and is full with the earnestness of a writer saturated with his subject and conscious of its gravity. There is here and there, however, a passage which does not seem to fit the frame, as when, in dealing with "The Alteration in Images Produced by Feeling," he says, "What is still more remarkable is that the history of past ages whose account seems closed with the death of all those who belonged to them, is constantly presented to us in *new aspects* by the *selecting imagination of new historians.*" This we believe to be a mistake, and that the "new aspects" belong not to the selecting imagination, but to materials brought to light by profounder research and the subsidence of partisan passions; Imagination having no part in historical research. The Imagination gains nothing by getting the credit of what does not belong to it.

The distinction of a "sympathetic imagination" we should regard as false in theory and confusing in study, for the quality known as sympathy (like Mr. Ruskin's "imagination contemplative," etc.), we should recognize as not a form of imagination at all, but a mental faculty which corresponds to imagination as the feminine intellect does to the masculine. We shall never attain a scientific nomenclature if we include under the same terms such diametrically opposed faculties as production and appreciation, creative and receptive; nor is the appellation of reverie as passive imagination more happy. In both these it seems to us that Mr. Hamerton has been unconsciously influenced by his reading of Ruskin to abandon the true logical consideration of the subject which is his more fitting temper. But apart from nomenclature, both these chapters are extremely valuable. The definition of Invention as "imagination that can be made to work," while open to the same objection as to nomenclature, involves some consequences which are important equally if the definition be true or not true, and therefore the definition seems superfluous if not incorrect. Invention and Imagination are not synonyms in any case, though Invention may be imaginative or the reverse. It may be objected that nomenclature is a matter of minor importance so long as a thing is clearly designated; but the establishment of any science, as such, begins with a just and exact nomenclature, without which no precise identifications or distinctions can be made. In Ruskin's theories of Beauty and Imagination the entire fabric is askew for the want of correct nomenclature, thus forbidding the logical application of the theories. Mr. Hamerton is much nearer the truth, but his formulas are capable of reduction to much simpler and therefore more correct and comprehensive terms.

We have left no space to speak of the illustrations, which add to the worth of this important book by their artistic value more than by their relevancy. The process prints in the text, reproductions of engravings, show how far the English are behind in this matter.

RECENT NOVELS.

A Step Aside. By Charlotte Dunning. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Katy of Catoctin; or, The Chain-Breakers. A National Romance. By George Alfred Townsend. D. Appleton & Co.

Roland Blake. By S. Weir Mitchell, M.D. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Silence of Dean Maitland: A Novel. By Maxwell Grey. D. Appleton & Co.

Necæra: A Tale of Ancient Rome. By John W. Graham. Macmillan & Co.

Francis: A Socialistic Romance. Being for the most part an Idyll of England and Summer By M. Dal Vero. Harper's Handy Series.

The Psychologist. By Putnam P. Bishop. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

A Bachelor's Blunder. By W. E. Norris. Henry Holt & Co.

The Marquis of Peñalta. By Don Armando Palacio-Valdés. From the Spanish by Nathan Haskell Dole. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

Agnes Surriage. By Edwin Lasseter Bynner. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

MISS DUNNING'S work shows a gain in steadiness, and a quickened sense of proportion, without which 'A Step Aside' would not seem an improvement upon her first novel; for in workmanship alone does this novel reach the level of 'Upon a Cast.' The characteristics of the two books are sufficiently identical to mark in them a common authorship. The same quick, nervous style, the same accurate perception of values, the same artistic handling which are here combined to make interesting the slight story of Pauline Valrey's brief lapse from the highest bent of her nature, made 'Upon a Cast' such a pleasant reading. One cannot help feeling, however, that the story of Pauline and her weak lover is a poor one—almost trivial in some respects, in spite of Miss Dunning's art and her skill in selecting and arranging. The characters are true and lifelike enough; the interest, which is a personal rather than a dramatic one, is evenly sustained. The surprises are brought about, it is true, by the most commonplace incidents, but they are not old or worn out, and there is now and then a touch of elevation in Pauline's character that will reach women especially. But, after all this is said, there still remains a feeling of dissatisfaction, as if something were lacking. Hugh Langmuir may have been a lovable fellow, and his passion for Pauline may have been very intense and sincere; but it is too much to ask us to forgive his weakness, or to look upon Pauline's final attitude towards him otherwise than as one partly of atonement—since she had been his temptation—and partly of self-sacrifice.

The period of the war is just now very productive of literature, and the newspaper humorists are not altogether to be blamed for having their fling at the tendency to needlessly swell the bulk of material which some future historian will have to overhaul. Fiction, of course, listens as closely as any other branch of literature to the popular cry. But the value of a novel as a repository for historical facts is always doubtful. An earnest historian would hesitate long before hampering himself with the needs and restrictions of a narrative wherein the necessity for adapting square facts to the rounded outlines of romance would be a constant temptation to distortion and inaccuracy. And while the sincere novelist may often find his advantage in history, the question of epochs in the world's progress will at last be found to be with him—as with Bulwer, or Thackeray, or Scott—a means rather than an end.

Mr. Townsend has possibly meant to do his work in this way. His first object, as he states in his preface, was writing a romance upon the conspiracy of Booth; his next, painting the more picturesque portions of Maryland, from the old tide-water counties to the German valleys and mountain battle-fields. But he has been overweighted with the burden of his facts. The romance is weak and straggling when he is painting picturesque Maryland, or broken and confused when he is developing the plot of Booth. Beginning on the eve of John Brown's raid, the thin thread of Lloyd Quantrell's story is spun out through almost endless scenes of martyrdom, battle, and conspiracy to final peace with innocent Katy of Catoctin. It is all done with the volubility of the journalist, to whom all facts, however slight, are precious, and the imagination a thing to be, at least generally, judiciously suppressed. Neither the immense amount of information nor the great labor of collocation shown by the book can be dismissed lightly; but as one reads and grows tired through the five hundred and more pages, one cannot help thinking how good the story might have been by itself, and how concise and valuable a history might have been made by leaving out the story altogether. Mr. Townsend says, not boastfully at all, that no natural scene is sketched that did not dwell upon his sight, and of one such scene he gives the date of the study in a foot-note. William Black is also said to make a study of his scenes while actually beholding them; and one is thus led—empirically, perhaps, but nevertheless irresistibly—to a comparison in which Mr. Townsend has nothing to gain.

In 'Roland Blake' the war plays an entirely different part. The scenes and incidents of camp-life and battle form a mere background for the action of the story; which, however, is in all respects so unworthy of praise that it is not a fair sample to set up beside 'Katy of Catoctin' for the sake of making noticeable the difference between methods. The whole plot of the story, in the first place, hinges upon an absurdity, for had Richard Darnell been a character with the intelligence and the feelings which the author has ascribed to him, he would never have allowed his true name to appear in the transaction by which he traitorously sold his knowledge to Union officers. Yet the climax turns upon the posses-

sion of his name by Roland Blake—the only man who knew of his connection with the Union Bureau of Information. Mr. Mitchell's stories are readable; the memories of the war are very actual and living with him; but his conceptions are too hasty and too carelessly worked out to deserve more than a careless reading.

In considering just here 'The Silence of Dean Maitland,' it is curious to notice that while the scene, at least in its first two parts, is laid contemporaneously with both that of Mr. Townsend's novel and that of Mr. Mitchell's, there is absolutely no reference to the rebellion in its pages. One appreciates a little more keenly, even in dwelling on so little a thing, how small a part our great war really plays in the thoughts and interests of foreigners. But though this may strike one in reading Mr. Grey's novel, one will realize on the other hand that our men of letters have not been ignored—at least by Mr. Grey. Hawthorne's influence can be too closely and continuously traced throughout the long and depressing history of Dean Maitland's crime to prevent one from being constantly reminded of both 'The Marble Faun' and 'The Scarlet Letter.' The story is much more complicated than either of Hawthorne's; its scope is wider and more extended. There is nothing that recalls the close artistic treatment, the completeness and finish of Hawthorne's work; there is only here and there a flavor, a touch that is none the less real by being so hard to name. The old truth that remorse is the heaviest punishment for sin is the theme. And for the sake of a full-length picture possibly—and possibly for the sake of filling three volumes—Mr. Grey has described the life of Cyril Maitland as he passed from the innocence of youth through the stages of deceit, seduction, and murder, to allowing his dearest friend to suffer unjustly for twenty years in prison, while he himself, who should have been there, was steadily gaining the highest dignities of the Church; until finally remorse grew stronger than fear, and he confessed his crime from the pulpit. The book is liberally conceived; there is a generous largeness in its proportions, and a slow, thorough-going style in the method of their development, that is pleasant to meet with in this day of dashed-off stories and novelettes. But one would like the length of it better if the matter were more cheerful.

If reading a book without having to consult at the same time three or four others is, as Godwin says, an unalloyed pleasure, one can have no fault to find with Mr. Graham's tale of ancient Rome, but can pursue the fortunes of the beautiful Neæra and her brave Pretorian, and, satisfied with the purely human interest of their story, leave the annals on the shelf. Sejanus and Tiberius were only men after all, and one may learn all of them that is pertinent to Neæra's tale without going outside the cover of Mr. Graham's book.

The lack of earnestness, together with the light and careless tone of 'Francis,' deprives the book of any value or influence in the socialistic literature of the time. A socialistic romance cannot be "for the most part an idyll of England and summer." The misery and degradation that wrought Kingsley to such heights in 'Alton Locke' cannot be smiled away by pleasant love tales, nor hidden by a little innocent masquerading.

There is material enough in 'The Psychologist' for two or three good novels; but, as Mr. Bishop has put it together, it falls somewhat short of making one. By close attention one can find a continuous thread of interest; but it is so obscured by the jumbled mass of incidents, characters, and philosophic and religious discussions that to keep track of it is hardly worth the trouble. The commercial traveller as a leading figure in fiction will strike many as an innovation, but a religious drummer will strike more as an unusual type, and one that cannot by any means be descended from 'L'illustre Gaudissart' of Balzac.

There is less to distinguish Mr. W. E. Norris's latest effort in fiction from the general mass of well-written stories of English life than is usually the case with him. He seems to have borrowed some of "Ouida's" puppets for the nonce, and to have pruned away that writer's over-luxuriant upholstery, together with as much of the impropriety and suggestive innuendo as is compatible with the conditions of society in England at the present time. Nearly all the characters and incidents are of the most conventional type—the beautiful young girl, suddenly converted from a great prospective heiress into a penniless orphan, immediately after her first ball, where she not only meets the quiet man of unattractive exterior who is destined to marry her and win her love afterwards, but the handsome young officer who fancies himself in love with her, and makes trouble between husband and wife later on; the vain attempts to earn her own living; her acceptance of, and marriage to, the very desirable "catch" above mentioned: the uneventful country life, diversified only by the interminable visits of the young officer, who courts the heroine's sister-in-law, when not otherwise engaged in courting the heroine herself or the married woman who gives him good advice, tarnishes both their names, and urges him on to marriage with a wealthy woman who adores him, although she knows his ways; and the eventual reconciliation of all parties when the heroine has sent the young officer about his business and discovered that she loves her husband. The novelty in the plot is the manner in which this desirable end is brought about. Jacob Stiles, the instrument, is a character who would have repaid more extended study. He plays his peculiar part admirably, but the complexity of his situation and emotions hardly receives due attention in view of the importance of the results. The heroine is one of those perfect and thoroughly charming English girls of whom it is always a pleasure to read, especially when handled by a master of easy narrative and natural conversation like Mr. Norris. But his strength lies rather in depicting perverse characters, and his women of that class are certainly more interesting than his simply good ones. Carry Herbert in this volume is a mild illustration of this point. Mr. Norris shines with particular brilliancy in the difficult field of narration in the first person singular, and his best work is accomplished on that model. The present story is not so narrated, and therefore, clever and agreeable as it is, it lacks much of the sparkle and individuality which usually distinguish his work.

It was a pity to rechristen Don Armando Palacio-Valdés's delightful novel of Spanish provincial life 'The Marquis of Peñalta.' It places that unfortunate young man under the necessity of living up to the responsibilities of a hero, whereas Marta and Maria are deservedly accorded the preëminence by the author. A more really vital and comprehensible contrast of the two great themes of Spanish literature, love and religion, it would be hard to find. The romantic school still makes itself felt, to a great extent, in Spain, particularly in the treatment of feminine character. The distinctive merit of the novel now under consideration lies precisely in its departure from the conventional types, which possess but little power to move the reader. Marta has at length let us into the secret that Spanish girls are made of flesh and blood, much like the girls of other nations, instead of being very beautiful, very perfect, but very dim abstractions. If Maria impresses us somewhat less forcibly, it is because she voluntarily withdraws from the scene and deserts her lover for religion. The manner in which prominence is at first given to her gradual immersion in purely religious preoccupations, her increased severity towards herself, and her estrangement from the Marquis, followed by her absence from the story for many pages, her abrupt reappearance in the character of a Carlist plotter, and her retirement to the convent—all this is finely graduated and artistic, so that, although the reader is, at first, disappointed at not seeing more of her, he finally realizes that the effect produced upon his mind is precisely that which her conduct must have produced on her lover and her family. The touch of humor, at times approaching sarcasm, which lightens up the other portions of the story, is new but very welcome from a modern Spaniard. Marta's housewifely labors, wherein she is assisted by the Marquis, furnish not only a series of charming love scenes, but food for thought on the subject of Spanish manners and customs in the wealthy classes. The Marquis's way of examining the beds, and peeping into Maria's bureau drawers, in that famous hunt for the canary (during which the house grows from a one-story building to a thing of staircases, towers, and unlimited apartments, in spite of the fact that the head of the family sleeps in the library), is surprising, to say the least. Marta sweeping the dining-room in a ripped gown is as irresistible as she is when helping the Marquis to fold the sheets; but whether those sheets were rough-dried or starched and ironed, is a question which will harass the souls of housekeepers. Marta, too, would be called bold in some latitudes. But, in spite of these peculiarities, and an over-insistence now and then on points which are not proportionately developed later on, the life, truth, and spirit of the book must commend it to the novel-reader in quest of a fresh sensation. The translation is excellent, on the whole. Exception might be taken to a number of small mistranslations, but since they do not materially affect the sense of the book, they may be left for the author to quarrel with, if he should ever chance to meet with the volume.

There is a charm about Mr. Bynner's historical romance of colonial times which engages the reader's sympathies at the outset. The story is the familiar one of Sir Charles Henry Frankland's love for a beautiful girl whom he first saw busily scrubbing the stairs in the inn at Marblehead. He brought her to Boston, had her educated, made her his mistress, and finally married her ten years later in Lisbon, in performance of a vow that he would do so if he escaped from the great earthquake. It is a story which offers fine opportunities to a writer endowed with an abundance of imagination, and the chief exception which can be taken to Mr. Bynner's treatment of it is that his powers of invention were hardly equal, at all times, to the task imposed upon them of filling out certain portions of the tale where historical data were lacking. This is particularly noticeable in the passage which refers to the life of the pair in Hopkinton, and applies, more or less, to the remainder of the book. It is true that there was a long period of time to cover, and that the addition of incidents would have lengthened the story, but the lapse of time is hardly indicated, and there is a certain abruptness in the manner in which the scene is shifted. Up to the day of the elopement, however, there is no criticism to make, and Agnes is, throughout, an ideal character, with the one necessary limitation. But the author evidently does not feel quite sure of his ability to do justice to strong situations and passionate love-making, which surely ought to occupy a prominent place in such a plot, if anywhere. He cleverly avoids any dilemma of that sort on several occa-

sions, and, in one notable instance, he distinctly shirks the responsibility, though the manner in which it is done almost disarms the reader. The evening on which Agnes definitely unites her fortunes with Sir Henry's is the occasion in question. Her change of feeling and the way in which it is effected are left entirely to the reader's imagination, while, for the scene which properly belongs there, an extremely good scene between close-fisted Widow Ruck and her equally close-fisted suitor is substituted, thus bringing to the front, at the most critical moment in the drama, two secondary personages, who have had next to nothing to do with the development of the plot up to that point, and who thereafter instantly vanish into oblivion. Agnes's sailor lover plays the part of a conventional puppet, with his opportune appearances. But if the author does not always rise to the situation, his book is good, and possesses in a rare degree that quality of atmosphere of the period which is so difficult of attainment, in addition to an agreeable style, which is suitably stately, but never heavy.

A BLOCKADE-RUNNER.

Sketches from My Life. By the late Admiral Hobart Pasha. London: Longmans & Co.; New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1886.

THE "late Admiral Hobart Pasha" was not in possession of an attractive reputation while he lived. A soldier of fortune never can be. It would be a difficult matter in casuistry to decide how far a soldier, even in the service of his own country, is justified in fighting in a war which he holds to be unjust. But there can be no difficulty about the case of one who hires himself out to be used as a piece of homicidal machinery by a foreign state. A man who, without the pressure of some overwhelming necessity, consents to do this, must plainly be altogether indifferent to the cause for which he may be called on to fight. The case presents itself in a very aggravated shape when, like Hobart Pasha, he renounces the service of a free country to enter that of a corrupt and barbarous Oriental despotism. But the human mind possesses an infinite capacity of self-deception, and the reader of these pleasantly written 'Sketches' will rise from them not without a considerable liking for their author.

Hobart Pasha, it is plain from these pages, was one of those men—not by any means uncommon in the "services" of all nations—whose ethics were permanently in a topsy-turvy condition. He spent sixteen years in the service of the Porte, and not only did he never regret for a moment the time thus spent, but he records, evidently with genuine conviction, that he has always been a lover of freedom, a champion of the weak against the strong. We are not, therefore, at all surprised when he inveighs against the "philanthropists" who carried on an agitation against the beneficent institution of slavery. The "philanthropist" is, in fact, in a general way, the root of nearly all the evil that affects humanity; and holding, as he seems to do, this view, it must be acknowledged that when he enlisted under the Constantinople Pashas, Hobart Pasha got into an atmosphere quite untainted with the malaria of philanthropy. The truth really is, that Hobart Pasha was a man born out of due time. His ruling passion was for a life of excitement and adventure. He would have made a conspicuous name for himself among the sailors of Great Britain, had it been his fortune to live during the great revolutionary wars. As it was, he flung himself with eagerness wherever hard knocks were going and danger of any kind was to be encountered, and he had a most cordial and sympathetic admiration for the brave man, to whatever race or country he belonged. It is, indeed, this hearty relish for manliness that constitutes the great attractiveness of these 'Sketches.' Southerner or Northerner, Russian, Greek, or Turk—let but the man show that he does not fear death, and he is secure of Hobart Pasha's applause. But in addition to this, the Admiral wields an effective pen. The sailor's trained habits of observation are here combined with a faculty of expression which seems to seize, by a sort of instinct, upon the right words to embody what he has seen. And he is never prolix. When he quits a subject, the reader feels inclined to quarrel with him for dropping it so soon.

The part of his book which Americans will read with the liveliest interest is his account of blockade-running during the war of secession. He took to this work because, on receiving his rank as post-captain, he found himself, as it were, shelved for four years, until his time came for a command. Blockade-running was just the thing to chime in with the instincts of a free lance. It was exciting, adventurous, and, if successful, highly gainful. "I trust," writes the Admiral, "that our American friends will not be too severe in their censures on those engaged in blockade-running; for (I say it with the greatest respect for and admiration of enterprise) had they been lookers-on instead of principals in the sad drama that was enacted, they would have been the very men to take the lead." The vessel that Capt. Hobart—or Roberts, as he called himself—had charge of, "was one of the finest double-screw steamers that had ever been built," and the following passage describes how she was prepared for her work:

"This was done by reducing her spars to a light pair of lower masts, without any yards across them; the only break in this sharp outline being a small crow's nest on the foremast, to be used as a look-out place. The hull, which showed about eight feet above water, was painted a dull gray color, to render her as nearly as possible invisible in the night. The boats were lowered square with the gunnels. Coal was taken on board of a smokeless nature (anthracite); the funnel, being what is called 'telescope,' lowered close down to the deck. In order that no noise might be made, steam was blown off under water. . . . While speaking of the precautions used, I may mention that among the fowls taken on board as provisions no cocks were allowed, for fear of their proclaiming the whereabouts of the blockade-runner. This may seem ridiculous, but it was very necessary."

Notwithstanding all his precautions, Capt. "Roberts" very narrowly escaped capture on his first venture. The run was from Bermuda to Wilmington, a distance of 270 miles, with Federal cruisers scattered about in all directions. Twenty-four hours after leaving port they were sighted and chased by a large Federal cruiser, which, however, they succeeded in outsailing:

"Night came on, and I had hoped that we should have made rapid progress till day-break unmolested. All was quiet until about one o'clock in the morning, when, suddenly, to our dismay, we found a steamer close alongside of us. How she had got there without our knowledge is a mystery to me even now. However, there she was, and we had hardly seen her before a stentorian voice howled out, 'Heave to in that steamer, or I'll sink you!' It seemed as if all was over, but I determined to try a ruse before giving the little craft up. So I answered, 'Ay, ay, sir, we are stopped.' The cruiser was about eighty yards from us. We heard orders given to man and arm the quarter-boats, we saw the boats lowered into the water, we saw them coming, we heard the crews laughing and cheering at the prospect of their prize. The bowmen had just touched the sides of our vessel with their boat-hooks, when I whispered down the tube into the engine-room, 'Full speed ahead!' and away we shot into the darkness. I don't know what happened; whether the captain of the man-of-war thought that his boats had taken possession, and thus did not try to stop us, or whether he stopped to pick up his boats in the rather nasty sea that was running—some one who reads this may know. All I can say is, that not a shot was fired, and that in less than a minute the pitch darkness hid the cruiser from our view. This was a great piece of luck."

The Captain had another narrow escape when making the return voyage from Wilmington, heavily laden with cotton:

"Daylight broke with thick, hazy weather, nothing being in sight. We went on all night till half past eight o'clock, when the weather cleared up, and there was a large paddle-wheel cruiser (that we must have passed very near to in the thick weather) about six miles astern of us. The moment she saw us she gave chase. After running for a quarter of an hour it was evident that with our heavy cargo on board the cruiser had the legs of us, and as there was a long day before us for the chase, things looked badly. We moved some cotton aft to immerse our screws well; but still the cruiser was steadily decreasing her distance from us, when an incident of a very curious nature favored us for a time. It is mentioned in the book of sailing directions, that the course of the Gulf Stream (in the vicinity of which we were) is in calm weather and smooth water plainly marked out by a ripple on the inner and outer edges. We clearly saw, about a mile ahead of us, a remarkable ripple, which we, rightly as it turned out, conjectured was that referred to in the book. As soon as we had crossed it we steered the usual course of the current of the Gulf Stream, that here ran from two to three miles an hour. Seeing us alter our course, the cruiser did the same; but she had not crossed the ripple on the edge of the stream, and the course she was now steering tended to keep her for some time from doing so. The result soon made it evident that the observations in the book were correct; for until she too crossed the ripple into the stream, we dropped her rapidly astern, whereby we increased our distance to at least seven miles. It was now noon, from which time the enemy again began to close upon us, and at five o'clock was not more than three miles distant. At six o'clock she opened a harmless fire with the Parrot gun in her bow, the shot falling far short of us. The sun set at a quarter to seven, by which time she had got so near that she managed to send two or three shots over us, and was steadily coming up.

"Luckily, as night came on, the weather became very cloudy, and we were on the dark side of the moon, now setting in the west, which, occasionally breaking through the clouds astern of the cruiser, showed us all her movements, while we must have been very difficult to make out, though certainly not more than a mile off. All this time she kept firing away, thinking, I suppose, that she would frighten us into stopping. If we had gone straight on, we should doubtless have been caught; so we altered our course two points to the eastward. After steaming a short distance we stopped quite still, blowing off steam under water, not a spark or the slightest smoke showing from the funnel; and we had the indescribable satisfaction of seeing our enemy steam past us, still firing ahead at some imaginary vessel. This had been a most exciting chase and a very narrow escape; night only saved us from a New York prison."

At the close of the war the blockading vessels turned the tables on the blockade-runners:

"Fort Fisher was at last taken *unbeknownst*, as the sailors say, to the blockade-runners at Nassau or Bermuda, at which places the blindest confidence was still felt in everything connected with the fortunes of the South, and where to whisper an opinion that any mishap might happen to Wilmington was positively dangerous. The crafty Northerners placed the lights for going over the bar as usual. The blockade-runners came cautiously on, and, congratulating themselves on seeing no cruisers, ran gayly into port. The usual feastings and rejoicings were about to commence when a boat full of armed men came alongside, and astonished them by telling them that they were in the lion's mouth. This happened to four or five vessels before the news had reached the islands. It was hard lines, no doubt, but quite fair play. It was the blockaders' turn to laugh now."

These lively accounts of blockade-running—of which our quotations are no more than a sample—are interspersed with as lively descriptions of Charleston and Richmond under the abnormal conditions created by the war. And there are, besides, other chapters devoted to a chronicle of the writer's adventures when engaged in the suppression of the slave traffic, to his experiences in the Baltic with the British fleet under the command of Sir Charles Napier, to sport in Turkey, society in Constantinople, and the performances of the Turkish fleet, which was under his per-

sonal command, during the last Russo-Turkish war. Nowhere does the interest of the narrative flag; and the facts and anecdotes recorded are so many side-lights thrown on the main current of great historical events, rendering these at once more intelligible and a great deal more interesting.

Eminent Authors of the Nineteenth Century. Literary Portraits by Dr. Georg Brandes. Translated from the original by Rasmus B. Anderson, U. S. Minister to Denmark, etc. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 1886.

THE volume here offered to the American public is a translation of the collection of essays published in 1882 under the name of 'Moderne Geister.' To the eight essays contained in the German book Mr. Anderson has, however, added one upon Henrik Ibsen, which was written by Brandes in 1883. This last portrait is eminently worthy of the splendid gallery in which it appears. The German volume 'Moderne Geister' was noticed in the *Nation* of July 6, 1882, in a review which began with a brief sketch of the author's career, and closed with these words: "The works of Brandes eminently deserve to be translated into English, and when they are we predict for them an Anglo-American popularity second only to that which they enjoy in Germany, which is saying much." It is unnecessary to repeat here what was said then in praise of these delightful essays. They represent their author's best work, and Brandes at his best is the peer of any living critic. A few words concerning him in addition to what was said before may perhaps be appropriate.

Brandes is emphatically a son of the present age. Years ago he chose the modern spirit as his special field; his great work deals with the "main currents of the literature of the nineteenth century," and it is among these currents, as forming the great stream of the intellectual life of to-day, that he finds his true element. He is a man of cosmopolitan temper, of wide knowledge in half-a-dozen modern literatures, and of a singularly alert and penetrating mind. His style, which, years ago, showed signs of a tendency towards the dangerous brilliancy of his friend Taine, has of late become more chaste and classical, and may now with much truth be said to combine French lucidity with German carefulness. In tone these later essays are eminently calm; they show little trace of the ancient *fureur de guerrier* with which the author long ago entered the arena of Danish literature. Now he seldom takes sides at all, and when he does it is with the composure of a magistrate who does not feel himself called upon to amplify or to defend his decision. In other words, the critical art has come to be for Brandes essentially the art of depicting, and it is with good reason that he employs the word "portraits" in the sub-title of the volume before us. For portraits these productions are, and not essays as Macaulay, for example, understood the word. The merits of Brandes's work are those of portraiture. On this point some words of his own are interesting:

"For the critic too," he observes (that is, for the critic as well as the painter), "the individual is an especially alluring object; to him, too, the execution of a portrait is a singularly fascinating occupation. . . . After we have gradually become familiar with an author, have come to feel ourselves perfectly at home in his writings, to perceive dimly that certain of their characteristics dominate others, and then [*sic*, in Anderson's translation; read: if then we] happen to be by nature of a critical turn of mind, we can find no peace until we have rendered ourselves an account of our impressions, and made clear the indistinct image of the character of another ego that has arisen within our soul."

But we should do injustice to this great critic if we conveyed the impression that he is merely a portrait-painter in the sense most naturally associated with that word. Much of his art consists, it is true, in the skilful choice of interesting matters to talk about, in the carefully managed, but always apparently unstudied sequence of his topics, and in the nicety of his analysis. And these excellences at least have their analogies in the art of portraiture. But Brandes is at any rate no seeker after the picturesque and the striking; the truth is sacred to him before all things. Also, he offers enough to think about. At times he even becomes profound, and evinces the fact that he knows his Hegel as well as another man. But he never remains long in the deeps of metaphysic, and when he emerges it is usually with a pearl worth diving for. Take this illustration. He has been dissecting psychologically the genius of Hans Christian Andersen, and is busy with the fact that the great story-teller appeals most powerfully to children in whom the sense of sex is not yet developed. "The whole secret," he concludes, "lies in the fact that he is exclusively what he is—not a man of learning, not a thinker, not a standard-bearer, not a champion, as many of our great writers have been, but simply a poet. *A poet is a man who is at the same time a woman.*"

The following will illustrate our author's skill in comparisons:

"The criticism that can with justice be made upon his [H. C. Andersen's] 'Story of My Life,' is not so much that the author is throughout occupied with his own private affairs (that is quite natural in such a work); it is that his personality is scarcely ever occupied with anything greater than itself, is never absorbed in an idea, is never entirely free from the ego. The revolution of 1848 in this book affects us as though we heard some one sneeze."

A word or two now with regard to the translation. Mr. Anderson's general fitness for the task he has undertaken cannot be doubted, and does not need to be advertised. Although not to the manner born in the use of English, he has acquired, through long residence in this country and through much experience in authorship and translating, a good command of our idiom. His translation of Brandes reads in the main well. At times his work is even brilliantly done. All the verse quotations of the original are done into metrical English, and these versions are uniformly good as such things run. All this being so, we were somewhat surprised to find upon close examination that the translator trips now and then in ways that are unaccountable. We do not refer to trifling slips which the reader can mend for himself; such, for instance, as the one noticed above, or the use of "will" for "shall," or a failure now and then to find the very best English word. Nor do we refer to occasional unsuccessful struggles with the intricacies of German syntax, like the one on page 12, where the greater part of the page is taken up with a single sentence the meaning of which is absolutely past finding out, unless one turns to the original. What we call unaccountable trips are such as the following, all of them from the essay upon Heyse: Page 3: "At home in south Germany, he yet feels constantly drawn to Italy as the land where the human plant has attained a more beautiful and luxuriant growth than elsewhere, one that is less disturbed by *reflex action*, and where the voice of the blood speaks most distinctly, most powerfully." The original has "Reflexion," which means 'ratiocination.' Page 6: "[The enjoyment of life in his youth] was lost to Franz through his premature struggle for *self-consciousness*." The original has "Selbstgewissheit," *i. e.*, 'self-assurance.' Again, page 6: "He [Heyse] here portrays the sleeplessness of the mind which is as dangerous for the health of the soul as actual sleeplessness is for the welfare of the body, and shows how *one in whom the reflex faculty is maimed* loses that mysterious," etc. The original has "Reflexionskranke," which means 'one who thinks too much.' Page 8: "The peculiar kind of epicurean philosophy expressed in them . . . is in fact the poet's *conclusive* conception of life." The German has "schliessliche," *i. e.*, 'ultimate.' Page 10: "How powerless is all *comprehension* of minds." The German has "Einverständniss der Geister," *i. e.*, 'concord of minds.' Page 11: "blissful madness" is made to translate "seliger Unsinn." Page 17: "In order to be convinced of the *thrilling* significance of this characteristic." The German runs: "von der durchgreifenden [not *ergreifenden*] Bedeutung," *i. e.*, 'the essential significance.' Page 31: "Where in one of his 'novellen' he introduces himself as a youth, he sings in Eichendorf's [read: Eichendorff's] own key, and we recognize [read: we learn] that very early in life he has been in the habit of whistling with rare skill the melodies *of romance*." Page 33: "He did not long continue to carol forth the music *of romance*"; and further on: "He is too thoroughly a child of the sun to be able to linger in the twilight *of romance*." The italicised phrase is each time a translation of *romantisch*, *i. e.*, 'romantic,' in the sense of 'pertaining to' or 'characteristic of the Romantic school.' This misunderstanding reaches its climax in the following sentence on page 33: "A lyric poet he is not, in the main, and the strength *of romance*, conformably to its nature and of necessity, *lies* in lyric poetry." This last is a proposition which would puzzle a very wise man, but what Brandes says is entirely clear and eminently true, and that is, that "the strength of Romanticism lay in lyric poetry"—"die Romantik hatte naturgemäss und nothwendig ihre Kraft in der Lyrik."

Registers of the Births, Marriages, and Deaths of the "Église Françoise à la Nouvelle York," from 1688 to 1804, edited by the Rev. Alfred V. Wittmeyer. New York. 1886. [Collections of the Huguenot Society of America. Vol. 1. 8vo.]

THE Huguenot Society of America has very appropriately begun its publishing work by printing the early Registers of the first French church in this city. The volume is edited by its present rector, the Rev. A. V. Wittmeyer, who is also the secretary of the Society. In an introduction he gives a brief account of its ecclesiastical history, from which we learn that the first French service on Manhattan Island was held in 1628, but that there is a great uncertainty as to the manner in which the religious needs of the French were supplied during the next fifty years. In 1682 the Rev. Pierre Daillé, "the Apostle of the Huguenots in America," gathered a congregation which held its services in the Dutch church within the fort. Six years later, the number of the French having increased on account of the revocation of the Edict of Nantes to about a fourth of the population, a second congregation was formed with the Rev. Pierre Peiret for its minister. This body immediately built a meeting-house in Petty-Coat-Lane on the site now occupied by the Produce Exchange. Here they continued to worship, being soon joined by M. Daillé's people, until 1704, when a new building was erected in Pine Street. From this place they removed in 1834 to Franklin Street, and again in 1863 to their present church in West Twenty-second Street, having united with the Episcopal Church in 1808. Pictures of all but the first of these buildings are contained in this volume. It is hardly necessary to say more of their history during their independent existence than that it was marked by the ordinary incidents in the life of a church. At first it was very flourishing,

but by the end of M. L. Rou's pastorate of forty years its membership was "reduced to an inconsiderable handful," partly from natural and unavoidable causes, partly from an unfortunate dissension between its two ministers. A few years later another struggle for the possession of it by rival parties in the congregation still further reduced its strength, and at the beginning of the Revolution the building was closed for a period of twenty years, being used for a part of the time by the English "for the reception of ordnance stores." In 1796 the church was reorganized and maintained a feeble life for a few years, when it joined the Episcopal Church "under the corporate name of *The French Church du Saint Esprit*."

The registers now printed comprise the baptismal, marriage, and death records from 1688 to 1804, consisting of about a thousand entries. They are very incomplete, the baptisms being most numerous, the burials least so. The editor has very properly endeavored to print them exactly as they stand; "even evident mistakes . . . have been scrupulously followed." Most of the entries are without interest except to the genealogist, and only a few have a slight historical value. One of the earliest notes the fact that the church held an "extraordinary" thanksgiving service on Wednesday, July 17, 1689, for the accession of William and Mary. The following marriage entry differs somewhat from the others, but will serve as an illustration of them all: "*Mariage*—Le 23 Aoust 1763 entre midi et une heure, jay marié par Licence dans la Maison de Mr. Paystre située dans la borée [Bowery], et tenue a louage par le Sieur Moore; Pierre l'oreillard et Catherine Moore; en presence des familles l'aureillard et Moore, de mr. de Paystre et sa Soeur, Made. dilo, et Madlle. fanchon Moyon. enregistré par moy Pasteur Soussigné, ce 12e 9bre 1763. Jean Carle Pasteur." Following this is a similar entry of the marriage of "Jean l'Aureillard et Anne Moore," at the same place and time. The baptismal records all follow the same general form, the names of parents and sponsors being given. In one instance, at the baptism of a child born "hors le mariage," there is added, "Fils, autant qu'on l'a pû decouvrir de," etc. A child of two unmarried slaves in 1760 is presented by the mistress of the mother, the godparents being baptized slaves. About the same time, the minister, having entered a child as illegitimate, notes, "Naturel selon l'Evangile," because the mother had another husband living in Europe, but "legitime selon les lois de ce Pais, parcequ'il n'ont eu aucune Nouvelle du Mari de Marguerite Sando, depuis plus d'année que la loy de ce Pais ne demande pour permettre le Mariage a ds gens ds ce Cas ce que je déclare P. servir comme de Besoin sera." There are also several interesting entries of abjuration of the Roman Catholic faith. At the end of the volume are given some historical documents relating to the French Protestants of New York during the period covered by the registers, the most of which have been printed before.

The value of such a work as this depends largely on the character of its index, and here, we regret to say, we find it wanting. There is no index whatever of the names of persons and places mentioned in the introduction and historical documents, nor of the names of places in the records. The names of some persons given in the records are omitted entirely, while few are referred to in every instance in which they appear. It is difficult, also, to find some names, as they are entered under an orthography entirely different from that which may be in the entry; for instance, Fiton1 is to be found only under Guiton, while the Lorillards are all entered under Leaureillard, a spelling which does not appear anywhere in the records as printed. In every case of marked varied spellings, cross-references should have been given from the less to the better known. With this exception, we have only praise for the manner in which this initial volume of what we trust will be a long and valuable series of publications has been issued, both as regards the pains taking labors of its editor and the beauty of its typography and general appearance. Though its importance to the historical student will be comparatively slight, to the genealogist it will prove a mine of great value, containing as it does the records of families closely connected with the annals, not only of this city, but of the nation.

Chronicle of the Coach. Charing Cross to Ilfracombe. By John Denison Champlin, Jr. Illustrated by Edward L. Chichester. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1886.

THERE is no pleasanter "outing" than a long coach-drive in England; and the narrator of this particular excursion was happy both in his party and in his route. The names of his companions are disclosed pseudonymously, if one may say so, for the disguise of the false name is easily penetrated in the case of those members who may be considered public men; but it would be unfair to withdraw the veil further than the author has chosen to do. There can be no objection, however, to saying that the "Mæcenas" of the party, who is engaged in sowing American sedition along the roadside with so much cheerfulness and in so humorous a way, is Mr. Andrew Carnegie, for whom one gets to have some warmth of regard as he is represented on this journey; and the rest of the company, which includes both sexes, are, whether distinguished or undistinguished, excellent acquaintances, though they are pale and shadowy creatures beside the genial and always triumphant democrat. The route lay due west from London to the sea, through Guildford, Winchester, Salisbury, Old Sarum, Stonehenge, Wilton, Sherborne, Axminster, Exeter, Dartmoor, Bideford and Clovelly. These names tell their own story, and apprise the reader of what he will find in the volume as a book of travel. The writer is stronger in the historical than in the descriptive portions; he renders a good account of his studies of the antiquities of the old cities and towns, and he relieves the dryness of these tourist facts with a goodly spice of the tourist banter, the slight incidents of travel which are nothing in themselves, but which light up a whole afternoon and make it eventful at the time, and he keeps the reader "on the go," as he would say, with the party without any pause. The account of the look of the country, on the other hand, is very meagre and general, perhaps because it is already made familiar to us by such able and glowing pens, and the author prefers to quote rather than compose. Once his selection, Cobbett's account of his return to his boyhood home at Guildford, is a true felicity. The narrative is very readable, and contains the story of a good time, independently of its cathedrals, plains, and inns, its Tors and moors of many prænomens, and its odor of literary reminiscence; and the illustrations are of the simple, sketchy kind which seem like artist's notes by the way, and they adorn and enliven the pages. The whole affords a happy instance of aggressive democracy abroad in a pleasant setting of English country and English friends.

The Mahogany Tree. By William Makepeace Thackeray. With illustrations by Frank T. Merrill. Boston: S. E. Cassino. Large 4to.

THIS Christmas song, reprinted from *Punch*, is given here complete, including a stanza which is generally omitted from the volumes of Thackeray's ballads and from collections of verse. There are, then, eight stanzas; and by dint of giving each stanza once in sober typography and again in fantastic letters mingled with figures and arabesques, and to each stanza still a third page of appropriate decoration for one suggestive line, with preliminary and final illustrations, and head and tail-pieces to preface, and the like, the artist and his publishers have made up a volume. The pictures are not very beautiful: there is a certain perfunctory look about them, as if neither the designer nor his public could get up much interest in the subject. This for the figure-pieces, where the punch-drinkers and smokers of long pipes are trying to be merry; as for the decorative adjuncts, they do not greatly adorn the book, and the drawings of natural scenery and details of plants and the like are peculiarly unsuccessful. But what a task is this that was set the artist! No man need be ashamed if his invention fails in a so long and so unaided effort. The poem is one which does not promise many separate motives of design.

Irish History for English Readers. By W. Stephenson Gregg. Harper & Bros. 1886.

THIS is an admirable handbook of Irish history, and would be an assistance, especially at present, to any person in considering the vexed politics of Ireland. The balance of the narrative is well preserved, 80 of the 207 pages composing the book being devoted to the period since the Union, really the most important of all to understand in its bearings upon present politics, and too often disposed of in a few pages. The blemishes are not such as to detract from its general usefulness. We miss from the "List of Authorities" some works without which no one should face the study of Irish history—such as Richey's 'Lectures' and Prendergast's 'Cromwellian Settlement'—although we trace their influence upon the narrative. No Irish scholar or antiquarian qualified for research has since Petrie's time refused his assent to the theory that the Round Towers are Christian erections. We do not think there is ground for the continuance of the assertion that Cromwell slaughtered every man, woman, and child in Drogheda and Wexford after their capture. We should like to know the name of the unhappy compositor who first mistook for a turned comma (') the "c" in the contraction of "Mc" for "Mac." Considerable confusion, if not family feuds, has ensued from that simple error. Either Mr. Gregg or his printer has gone a step further and altered the turned comma (') into an apostrophe ('). However, this is all beside the merits of the book. Mr. Gregg's is a valuable short history of Ireland, and a worthy addition to "Harper's Handy Series."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Baker, J. John Westacott: A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Canfield, C. W. The American Annual of Photography and Photographic Times Almanac for 1887. Scovill Manufacturing Co. $1.00.
Laurie, Prof. S. S. The Rise and Early Constitution of Universities. With a Survey of Mediæval Education. D. Appleton & Co.
Macray, Rev. W. D. The Pilgrimage to Parnassus, with two parts of the Return from Parnassus. Three Comedies Performed in St. John's College, Cambridge, MDCXCVII—MDCI. Macmillan & Co. $3.25.
Matthews, B. Ballads of Books. George J. Coombes.
Mayor, J. B. Chapters on English Metre. London. C. J. Clay & Sons. $1.00.
Nichols, J. M. Perry's Saints; or, the Fighting Parson's Regiment in the War of the Rebellion. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. $1.25.
Prévost, L'Abbé. The Story of Manon Lescaut, and of the Chevalier des Grieux. From the edition of 1753. F. T. Jones & Co.
Shaw, G. B. Cashel Byron's Profession: A Novel. Harper's Handy Series. 25 cents.
Stephen, L. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. IX. Canute—Chaloner. Macmillan & Co. $3.25.
Weildon, J. E. C. The Rhetoric of Aristotle. Translated. Macmillan & Co. $2.00.
Woods, M. A. A First School Poetry Book. Macmillan & Co. 75 cents.
Woodward, P. H. The Secret Service of the Post-office Department. Hartford, Conn.: Winter & Co.
Woolson, Constance Fenimore. Castle Nowhere: Lake Country Sketches. Harper & Brothers.
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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 23

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS 26

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:
Sugar Bounties and Socialism 28
A Shameful Business 28
Decline of the Mormon Theocracy 29
A Doubtful Remedy 29

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:
The First Madame Guizot 30

CORRESPONDENCE:
Discrimination against Silver 31
Greenbacks and Silver 31
The Real Railroad Evil 32
Legislation for the Working Classes 32
How to Control Immigration 32
The People Not Hostile to Civil-Service Reform 33
Domestic Service 33
Literary Morality 33
History and the Group System 33

NOTES 34

REVIEWS:
Seeley's Napoleon 37
Carlyle's Early Letters 37
Bancroft's Conquest of California 39
A Muramasa Blade 40
Memoirs of the Rev. J. Lewis Diman, D.D. 40
The Book Fancier 41

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 41

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 13, 1887.

The Week.

THE debate on the Inter-State Commerce Bill on Monday was important and valuable. The speech of Senator Stanford of California was a very clear and useful statement of facts relating to the long-haul and short-haul clause. Mr. Stanford is undoubtedly an interested party, being a large owner of railroad property, but that fact takes nothing from the force of his argument. He maintains that the clause in question will lessen the forces of competition and thus prove detrimental to the public interests. We have not the smallest doubt that this will be its effect. That which causes the long haul to get the lower rate, and sometimes a lower aggregate charge, than the short haul is competition solely. Nobody complained that the Union and Central Pacific Companies did not charge enough for through business so long as they had the only line of rails to the Pacific. It was only when other lines were built, and their monopoly was broken, that there was any occasion for complaint on the part of intermediate stations. Mr. Stanford says truly that the adoption of the clause in question will not level down the short-haul charges, since, if the railroads are to make a living at all, they must charge to non-competing points what the law takes away from them by loss of business at competing points. The resolutions passed by the New York Chamber of Commerce a few days ago embody the soundest business reasons for postponing the enactment of this clause, until a report can be had from the proposed national railroad commission after a suitable investigation, for it must be remembered that this Inter-State Commerce Bill deals with *terra incognita*. We have had investigations and reports in plenty from State railroad commissions, but never anything but private and ex-parte investigations in the wider field of national railway transportation.

The steel-rail monopolists, having been enabled, by virtue of a duty of $17 per ton on foreign rails, to advance the price to about the cost of English rails, plus duty, freight, insurance, and commissions, have now fallen foul of the railroads for charging too much for carrying their precious products to market. One of the consequences of the great advance in price that has taken place within a year has been to start up the works of a Colorado concern at Pueblo, which had been for some time closed, The Colorado concern began to compete vigorously with the three mills in and near Chicago for the supply of the "home market." Then the Chicago concerns, through Mr. H. H. Porter, an ex-railroad official of great experience, made a request that the Colorado pool railroads should reduce the freight rates so that they might compete on better terms with the Pueblo rolling mill. It was charged that the rate from Chicago to Colorado points, $16.40 per ton, was excessive. The whole freight charge from Chicago to Colorado, it will be noticed, is sixty cents per ton less than the "protection" on steel rails.

The controversy has latterly taken on new phases, partly ethical, partly political. Mr. Porter, finding himself unable to alter the rates of the Colorado pool, appealed to President Adams of the Union Pacific. Mr. Adams replied that "if the President of a railroad corporation were to undertake, in each matter which may arise, to lay down his views without regard to the views or action of his associates or the heads of the commercial department, the business of his road would soon be in a condition which may properly be described as chaotic," and that he had accordingly referred the matter to the general traffic manager of the Union Pacific Railway. To this Mr. Porter replied, first by a judicious reference to his past services to the Union Pacific Company in the way of explaining matters to Senators and Representatives in Congress, "to help your company to accomplish what they wanted, when injury, as they thought, was being done to them in Washington." As though Mr. Adams were a dull person, or hard of hearing, Mr. Porter added that "great stress has been lately laid on your position before the public." He insisted, in conclusion, that Mr. Adams should say what he personally considered to be the duty of the Union Pacific Railroad in the premises, and not refer his (Porter's) communication to any one else. The advantage of getting an opinion on abstract principles of justice from the president of the company, to be used first in bearing down upon the traffic manager and then upon the other companies in the Colorado pool, is obvious at a glance. Not getting this, Mr. Porter announced his purpose "to thoroughly contest this position of the Union Pacific Railroad *to large shippers*, and do it through the general Government at Washington." So we expect to learn very soon of Mr. Porter's arrival at Washington in the interest of large shippers, which of course requires a combat on his part with the anti-discrimination clauses in the Inter-State Commerce Bill. But perhaps he will give more of his time toward defeating the Pacific Railroad Funding Bill.

We called attention a short time ago to Consul Mathews's "collecting agency" in Tangier, by means of which his "protégés," a lot of vagabonds who hang around the consulate claiming to be naturalized American citizens, obtained many peculiar privileges, and are, by Mathews's own admission, the instruments of frightful oppression. We are glad to learn that the Department of State has issued orders which will put a stop to many of these practices, and, what is more to our point at present, exclude from all consular protection those residents of the East who drive a thriving trade as American citizens, unless they produce their naturalization papers or other evidence equally as convincing, and are entered upon the Consul's register. This is just as it should be. The wonder is that the precaution has not long since been taken. The problem heretofore presented for our solution has been touching aliens on our shores. Now we are, on account of our growth, called upon to deal with the two questions, What are the rights of our citizens domiciled abroad, and what evidence shall be required to prove the fact of American citizenship and its non-abandonment? The Department of State demands, as we have said, strong proof, where the circumstances are suspicious, of naturalization, and it may be that in some instances it would now hold that a naturalized citizen, who had entered upon a business career of a seemingly permanent character in the land of his birth, should not be allowed to claim the privileges of an American citizen.

Last June the National Congress of Mexico enacted a law, which has lately been promulgated, declaring that all foreigners who may have acquired real estate or had children born to them within the republic, would be considered Mexican citizens, unless, within three months from the publication of the law, they officially made known their intention to retain their own nationality. Immediately after the publication of this law, our Minister to Mexico endeavored to secure compliance with its requirements by all Americans residing in that country, and called upon all of our consular officers stationed there to aid him. But it has been learned that many of our citizens, notwithstanding these active precautions, have omitted to conform to the provisions of the law, and they are now alarmed lest, in consequence of this negligence, they have become Mexican citizens. Fearing that this would happen in some cases, our Minister was instructed to protest against the enforcement of the law so far as our citizens were concerned. This he did about a month ago, claiming as the ground of his protest the rule always adhered to by the United States, "that the loss of citizenship cannot be imposed as a penalty, nor a new national status forced as a favor, by one Government upon a citizen of another." The Secretary of Foreign Relations, to whom this was addressed, refused to discuss the validity of the law in the absence of an actual case arising under it. Thereupon he was requested to have the time extended for compliance with the law, upon which request no action has yet been taken.

The maxim *De minimis non curat lex* does not apply to the United States tariff. It appears, on the contrary, from an answer sent by the Secretary of the Treasury in response to a House resolution, that the smallest things are those that require the most care. The resolution called for information in regard to the construction given by the Department to the clause of the tariff which admits free of duty "fish fresh for immediate consumption." This might seem to be a question easily answered. Far from it. In the first place the same law which put fresh fish on the free list contained a clause taxing "all foreign-caught fish, imported otherwise than in barrels or half-barrels, whether *fresh*, smoked, dried, salted, or pickled, not specially enumerated or provided for in this act, fifty cents per hundred pounds." This contrariety in the act was

got over because "fish fresh for immediate consumption" was specially enumerated and provided for, being made free of duty. Fish might be imported in a fresh state for manure, in which case it would be taxed at the rate of fifty cents per hundred pounds, although it is not probable that Congress had fish manure in contemplation when the bill was passed. It is more likely that the Congressman or clerk who drew the bill took an old bill for the foundation of his work, and made the new one by clipping and adding, forgetting, however, to erase the word "fresh" in the clause taxing fish fifty cents per one hundred pounds, after it had been decided to put fresh fish on the free list.

The real difficulties in construing the fish clause are of a more serious nature. What is fresh fish? What is immediate consumption? It was contended on the part of our gallant fishermen that frozen fish were not "fresh" within the meaning of the law, or that even if fish caught in the winter and frozen by the cold weather could be considered fresh, the same classification would not apply to fish frozen by artificial means. The Treasury Department held that freshness must be construed in this case as the opposite of the words in the context, namely, "smoked, dried, salted, or pickled." Since frozen fish is none of these things, and since it possesses no quality opposed to freshness, it was ruled that it must come in free of duty. But what is immediate consumption? Looking to precedents for aid in answering this conundrum, it was found that in a former law the words used were "daily consumption" instead of immediate consumption. Under this phraseology a ruling had been made twenty years ago that it meant consumption "within a short time." But how was a collector of customs to know, when a man bought a frozen fish, whether he meant to eat it within a short time or not? Who could follow him to his kitchen and verify his intentions by his acts? This was a puzzling situation. It led to a decision by the Department, however, that the free list applied to fish imported for consumption in the fresh state, but did not include fish imported fresh, but afterwards smoked, dried, salted or pickled for future use. An interesting recital is given of the contentions that have arisen over the words "immediate consumption"; and the law being in this unsatisfactory state, why, one may ask, is it not changed so as to meet the intentions of Congress, supposing that Congress knows what its intentions are? The answer is two-fold: First, Congress is hardened to the ambiguities of the tariff, as Pharaoh was hardened to the warnings of Moses. Second, it does not dare to open one section of the tariff for amendment, lest 325 members spring to their feet with amendments to other sections. It is like the colored preacher who, when asked whether the fruit of the forbidden tree was an apple or something else, replied: "Hold on dar; now yer attacking de whole basis ob modern theology."

Matthew S. Quay has been nominated almost unanimously for United States Senator by the Republican members of the Pennsylvania Legislature in caucus assembled. He received 153 votes to 9 for Galusha A. Grow. This fulfils all expectations, for there has been practically no doubt of Quay's success. He elected the Legislature, carefully picking out as candidates men who would do his bidding. The large vote in his favor shows what a powerful boss he is, and how completely he holds the Republican party of Pennsylvania in his grasp. That he has any fitness for the office of Senator nobody seriously claims. But he may have as much as or even more than Don Cameron. He is a boss pure and simple, with those elements of force which are possessed by all successful bosses. It is customary now for the Republican press of Pennsylvania to endeavor to surround him with something of dignity by speaking of him as Matthew Stanley Quay, instead of the familiar "Matt," by which he is always called in private life; but "Matt" he is and always will be. His election marks the lowest level yet reached in the protective-tariff Republicanism of Pennsylvania.

The election of an Independent Democrat as Speaker of the North Carolina House, by a combination of all the Republicans with the few Democratic members who were elected over the regular party nominees last November, is a noteworthy event. The successful candidate announced that he is a Randall Democrat in national politics, but opposed to the rule of the Democratic Machine in State affairs. As the upper branch of the Legislature has a clear Democratic majority over the combined Republican and Independent vote, it does not seem probable that any measures to which the Democratic party is opposed can become laws; but the willingness of a prominent Democrat to come out against his old associates must strengthen the revolt against the Machine. A Raleigh despatch says that the disappointed Democrats complain that "Cleveland is breaking down the color line," and there is no doubt that this is an important element in bringing about the changes in political relations which this event illustrates. However parties may be temporarily affected by this gradual disappearance of the race line, it is the most fortunate thing possible for the South, for nothing worse could be imagined than the permanent division of men in politics according to the color of their skins.

The organization of the Tennessee Legislature, like the election of Governor, illustrates the advent of a new political generation. The new Speaker of the House, like the new Governor, is a young man, each of them having been born in 1850. Both were mere boys during the war, and neither has any political associations which go back to the slavery era. What is still more important and significant, the elevation of such men by the dominant party in Tennessee shows that the people of the State are weary of the issues of the past, and that their attention is now fixed upon the future.

The message of Gov. Luce to the Michigan Legislature contains one paragraph which describes a state of things more appropriate to a half-civilized community than to a long-settled commonwealth. "We are reminded," he says, "by an almost every-day occurrence, that the habit now so prevalent of carrying concealed weapons brings to our attention the news of murder, manslaughter, and accident." He says that not only men but boys of all ages are ready upon the least provocation to use the deadly weapon, and makes the astonishing statement that "school-teachers and school-boys go to their duties and lessons armed." The Governor recommends that the custom should be prohibited by the most stringent legislation, and he might have suggested that until Michigan teachers and pupils stop carrying revolvers to school and using them "upon the least provocation," it would be only seemly for Michigan newspapers to intermit their lectures to Southerners upon the wickedness of shooting people without due cause.

If "the city of Collins and O'Brien is not quite the city of Winthrop and the Pilgrims," neither is the Massachusetts of 1887 quite the Massachusetts of 1630 to 1649. No more striking proof of this latter fact could be furnished than the paragraph of Gov. Ames's inaugural address devoted to the subject of the Sunday laws. He begins by characterizing these laws in their present form as "of unequal, if not unjust, operation," and as liable to become, through partial or irregular enforcement, "an annoyance to the people and a reproach to the State." "With all respect for the ancient faith of the fathers," he continues, "and with every desire to perpetuate their goodly customs and sound morality, we must admit that these laws are no longer suited to the times, or capable of regular or uniform execution. In some particulars they are constantly violated, without heed and without scruple, by practically the whole body of our citizens. Such a spectacle cannot but tend to bring all law into contempt, and to excite an increasing animosity against the institutions which these laws were originally designed to secure." The Governor, therefore, recommends that these laws should be thoroughly and carefully revised without delay, declaring his belief that "it is possible to frame such legislation as will permit the doing of acts which, in the present state of society, are generally approved as practically necessary on all days alike, and will remove from our law the reproach of being an aid to fraud and an encouragement to the violation of just obligations; and that this can be done with due regard to the quiet and sanctity of the Sabbath, and without offending the feelings of any class of our citizens." Such advice from a Massachusetts Governor would probably startle the departed Puritans as much as the discovery that Boston has an Irish Mayor—or that a man like the Rev. Dr. Heman Lincoln is permitted to teach such heresy as the doctrines of the Baptists.

The first half-year of prohibition in Rhode Island ended with December, and the Providence *Journal* has compiled an interesting and valuable summary of the results. When the new system went into operation, there were 444 places in the city licensed for the sale of intoxicating liquors, which paid an annual revenue of $131,618. For several days after the 1st of July it was very difficult to buy liquor at any of these places, and a number of the dealers

went out of the business; but, as time went on, the traffic began to revive, until now, the *Journal* says, "intoxicating beverages can be procured in any quantity, and in any locality, without much trouble or secrecy." The number of places where liquor was formerly sold and is now to be obtained, is 288, to which must be added enough so-called "club-rooms," opened by former saloon-keepers for the benefit of their customers, to make the total number 404 under prohibition, or within 40 of the number under license. The arrests for drunkenness and crimes like assaults, which are largely attributable to intoxication, fell off very largely during the first weeks after the change—only 150 of the former and 8 assaults in July, 1886, against 404 and 25 respectively in July, 1885; but during the last three or four months the difference has steadily diminished, until in December last arrests for drunkenness reached 238 against 380 in December, 1885, while there was an increase in arrests for assaults from 11 in December, 1885, to 22 in December, 1886. The conclusion of the whole matter appears to be that, at the rate things are now drifting, there will soon be no material difference in Providence between the workings of license and prohibition, except in the fact that the community now derives no revenue from the traffic in drink, and the even more important fact that respect for all laws is diminished by the contempt shown for the law which is most talked about.

The imported Socialists, the Avelings, it seems, have too luxurious habits to suit the taste of the domestic variety of their kind. There is a row over the bills of these English missionaries, which, on being considered at a meeting of the Socialistic Labor party on Sunday, were found to contain such items as "$50 for cigars for Dr. Aveling and a smaller amount for cigarettes for Mrs. Aveling," "$100 for theatre tickets," "wine and board $42," $25 for corsage bouquets, etc. "Corsage bouquets, $25," one Socialist woman cried out. "Why, I have lived one month on that. What have bouquets to do with Socialism?" This is a pertinent question, and the more useful because it is likely to change into the larger question of the real use and value of the whole tribe of oral laborers, "organizers," editors of "organs," etc., etc., who make a living and something more out of such "movements;" and the cost of them, concerning which a good deal of useful truth is beginning to come out.

It seems to be understood that the Rev. Dr McGlynn will not obey the summons of the Propaganda to go to Rome, because he believes that his case is already prejudged. Exactly what his case is, nobody knows except the highest dignitaries of the Church. It may be a breach of discipline, or it may be unsoundness of opinion, or it may be partly one and partly the other. The public can form no opinion of the merits of the case until they know what it is; but they will be apt to say that no man can tell beforehand whether his case is prejudged or not. A summons to Rome to a Catholic priest is like the summons of any tribunal which the party acknowledges to have authority over him. If he neglects to obey it, he cannot expect to gain sympathy by saying that the tribunal is prejudiced, because that is the very thing which the public cannot know beforehand, even if we allow that he knows it.

Mr. Charles A. Dana, the editor of the *Sun*, is reported as having said, in his speech at the dinner of the Business Men's Democratic Association on Jackson's birthday, that a commission had some years ago reported, as regards this city, "that it would be better for people to own so much property in order to be allowed to vote," and that, "under the Civil-Service Law, only those who can answer questions in history, logic, theology, and God knows what—only those who are possessed of literary intelligence—can hold office." Mr. Dana will be pleased to learn that there is not a word of truth in either of these statements. No such report was ever made by any commission in this city, and no such examinations are prescribed by the Civil-Service Law or conducted under the regulations. Mr. Dana has evidently been imposed on by some smart scoundrel, and he owes it to himself to ferret him out and expose him. What a smart scoundrel he must have been, is shown by his success in deceiving a man of Mr. Dana's intelligence with regard to matters on which the fullest information is attainable by anybody who chooses to seek it.

Col. Wentworth Higginson has been treating with incredulity the statement we made some weeks ago as to the mischief done by the Normal College here, in providing us with too many female teachers. But his only reason for doubting seems to be that in his part of the country—Massachusetts—no such surplus of female teachers exists; overlooking the fact that in our article we said nothing about Massachusetts, or any part of the country except New York. There are, we feel sure, numerous places in which there is a scarcity of female teachers. What we said was that in this city there are sadly too many candidates for every vacancy in the public schools, and that in turning out so many the Normal College does harm and not good. No contradiction of this has come from anybody who knows anything about the matter, while we have received much hearty confirmation of it from those who are interested in "the labor problem" as it affects women in this city. The same phenomenon is showing itself in all the thoroughly democratic countries. In France the *Journal Officiel* published statistics the other day which the *Temps* calls "really mournful," showing that in the Department of the Seine (that is, Paris and its environs) alone there are 1,506 young men and 4,174 young women holding Government certificates, seeking places as teachers of primary schools, for whom there is not only no employment, but no prospect of employment. There, however, the situation is somewhat worse than it is here, for Frenchwomen as well as Frenchmen are apt to suppose that if the Government examines them, and gives them a diploma of fitness for any Government place, it is bound to find them the place, or, in other words, that it owes them a living. Another danger in France is, that this annual crowd of candidates, after wearily and vainly waiting for some months, or some years, for Government work, will finally join the ranks of those who are in France called, with a certain horror, the "déclassés"—that is, the somewhat educated people belonging to none of the regular callings or occupations, and living in a greater or less degree by their wits, and who, in the case of the men, in Paris, furnish a large contingent to the revolutionary or anarchical element in the population.

The origin of the evil is much the same in Paris as in New York. Whenever a girl at a primary school shows signs of more than ordinary aptitude in learning, the teacher and her parents and friends go to work to turn her mind away from all industrial occupations, and to mark her out for a scholastic career of some kind. The family makes extraordinary exertions to enable her to get a Government diploma, or, as we should call it, send her to the Normal College, and thus probably to raise her a peg or two in the social scale. The effects of all this on her and on them are pretty much what we described when writing on this subject. The *Temps* sounds the strongest note of warning touching this tendency in our modern society to rush into the cities in search of clerical or scholastic work, which women have begun to display in nearly as great a degree as men. It says: "Primary schools are intended to open people's minds, those of the workingmen as well as of the teachers. They ought not to disgust the pupils with manual labor, or trade, or any honorable calling. . . . The workingman will be a better worker, a better citizen, and a better man through his schooling, if this, and this only, be what he aims at. When will this idea thoroughly penetrate the heads of our democracy? It would certainly be a useful enterprise to try to spread it. The wonderful growth of primary instruction ought not to be allowed to become a source of danger to the community."

There have been several protests published in recent magazines against the amusing business known as "literary log-rolling," which exists now, and always has existed since literature became a profession, in this and all other cities large enough to be called "literary centres." The recent protests are not especially strong, but they are entertaining, because as usual they contain a great deal of more or less thinly disguised truth. They are interesting chiefly because of the dead earnestness with which their writers discuss the subject. In fact, the most amusing aspect of both the log-rollers and their denouncers is this same seriousness. The former appear to believe that their amiable advertising and puffing of one another is "fame"; and the latter are so afraid that this may prove to be true that they devote valuable time and energy to proving what a positively vain and foolish effort it all is. Of course, it is vain and foolish, and, being so, why get so troubled about it? All the puffing in the world will not make poor work excellent, or give it a standing beyond its merits; and all the detraction in the world will not hurt really good work, or prevent its merits from being recognized.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[Wednesday, January 5, to Tuesday, January 11, 1887, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

President Cleveland on Wednesday sent to the Senate the nomination of James Curran for Inspector of Steam Vessels for the district from Baltimore to the Gulf of Mexico. This is a severe rebuff for Senator Gorman, the Maryland Boss. Mr. Curran, who was appointed to this position a year ago or more, is a very competent man, has had long experience in his business, and gives satisfaction to the Treasury Department, and has the confidence of the business community. But Mr. Gorman has not been able to induce Mr. Curran to appoint two deputies whom he has designated, and it is generally understood among Maryland politicians that Mr. Curran was notified that he could not be confirmed until he did appoint a certain deputy. Mr. Curran refused to appoint that deputy, for the sufficient reason that he did not think that a Baltimore ward striker, who knew practically nothing about steam boilers, was a proper person to inspect them. Mr. Curran was not confirmed, but the President reappointed him, much to the chagrin of Gorman. The name, however, had not been sent to the Senate till Wednesday. Mr. Gorman persistently urged the President to withhold the nomination.

Contrary to expectation, the President on Thursday sent to the Senate the nomination of Thomas C. Manning of Louisiana to be Minister to Mexico.

The Secretary of the Treasury has appointed Herbert F. Beecher to be a special agent of the Treasury. He is a son of the Rev. Henry Ward Beecher, and was formerly Collector of Customs at Port Townsend, Washington Territory.

The Senate passed on Thursday afternoon the bill to place the widow of Gen. Logan on the pension roll at $2,000 annually. Taking advantage of the kindly sentiment which has prevailed in the Senate, Mr. Vest of Missouri then secured the passage without opposition of a bill to give the widow of Gen. Frank P. Blair a pension of $2,000 annually, instead of the $50 a month which she now receives.

The Senate has voted to extend to May, 1888, the time within which the legislation to put in force the Mexican Treaty may be passed.

Senator Frye (Rep., Me.) has proposed an amendment to the Post-office Appropriation Bill, making an appropriation of $400,000 for the transportation of South American mails in American vessels. This differs from the bill of last season in that it relates to South American mails only.

At the Maine Republican legislative caucus on Wednesday night Eugene Hale was unanimously renominated for United States Senator. The Nevada Republican legislative caucus has nominated William M. Stewart for United States Senator. The Michigan Republican legislative caucus on Thursday evening nominated Col. Frank B. Stockbridge of Kalamazoo for United States Senator over Senator Conger on the tenth ballot. The Minnesota Republican caucus nominated ex-Gov. C. K. Davis of St. Paul for Senator, Senator McMillan retiring from the contest before the ballot. In Missouri the Democratic legislative caucus nominated Senator Cockrell for reëlection. All will be elected.

Gov. Ames of Massachusetts delivered his inaugural address on Thursday. In it he said: "Nearly 6,000 officers and laborers throughout the State are now subject to the Civil-Service Act and to the rules made in pursuance of its provisions. The system has become thoroughly established as a valuable part of the administration of our State and city governments. It is working well, and no change in its details seems at present necessary. I heartily recommend an adequate appropriation for its maintenance. To its moral support the people are already pledged. I would urge the advisability of a law restricting within narrow limits the number of licenses to be granted in any city or town voting for license, and I would also suggest that the fees for licenses be greatly increased. I earnestly recommend, as an act of simple justice, the enactment of a law securing municipal suffrage to women."

The Connecticut Legislature on Thursday elected P. C. Lounsbury (Rep.) Governor, there having been no majority on the popular vote.

Col. Robertson (Rep.) was sworn in as Lieutenant-Governor of Indiana on Monday, despite the noisy protests of the Democrats.

The North Carolina Assembly was organized on Wednesday by a union of the Republicans and Independents.

Attorneys for the owners of the American fishing vessel *Highland Light* have been instructed to take action against the Dominion Government for illegally seizing and selling the vessel for violating the fishing law. The act under which the seizure was made was passed in March by Parliament, but Lord Lansdowne, Governor-General, refused to make the act a law by signing the bill, and referred the matter to the Queen for royal assent. In consequence of this the act did not go into effect until November 27, long after the infraction complained of and the consequent seizure of the vessel.

The full bench of the Massachusetts Supreme Court has made a decision against the New York Sleeping-Car Palace Co., of which the following is significant: "A sleeping-car company holds itself out to the world as furnishing safe and comfortable cars, and when it sells a ticket, it implicitly stipulates to do so. The law raises the duty on the part of the car company to afford protection. While it is not liable as a common carrier or as an inn-holder, yet it is its duty to use reasonable means to guard the passenger from theft; and if, through want of such care, the personal effects of a passenger, such as he might reasonably carry with him, are stolen, the company is liable for it. Such a rule is required by public policy and by the interests of both the passenger and the company."

In the City Court of New Haven on Saturday, Judge Pickett rendered a decision in the cases of William H. Wallace, Assistant Superintendent of the New York, New Haven and Hartford Railroads, and Stacy B. Opdyke, Superintendent of the New Haven and Northampton Road, accused of conspiracy by Thomas F. Meany, who charged them with "blacklisting" him, and preventing his getting employment. The accused were fined $50 each. The Judge in his decision said that he was clearly of the opinion that a conspiracy designed to hinder any man from putting his labor on the market, when, where, and for such compensation as he may agree for, is equally criminal with any conspiracy designed to hinder the sale of the merchandise of any producer or dealer, and is more disastrous in effect than any other form of conspiracy, except that to take life. An appeal will be taken.

Judge Barrett of this city on Monday in Supreme Court Chambers rendered an exhaustive opinion denying the motion recently made by the counsel for Jacob Sharp to change the place of his trial from this to some other county, upon the ground that he cannot secure a fair and impartial trial here.

At the meeting of the Chicago Trades Assembly on Sunday the Socialist element won a decided victory, electing a full set of officers who are in sympathy with the condemned Anarchists.

It is reported that the Rev. Dr. Edward McGlynn has decided not to obey the summons to Rome to answer for his conduct in relation to the candidacy of Henry George, and that his permanent suspension from the priesthood will follow. Some of Dr. McGlynn's friends, however, still believe that he will make submission to his spiritual superiors.

John Roach, the well-known ship-builder, died on Monday morning at the age of seventy-three. He was a native of Ireland, but when sixteen years of age he came to this country. He had neither money nor friends, and earned his first wages in a brick-yard. He learned the trade of an iron founder, saved money and lost it through the failure of his employers, and was finally able to open a small foundry, employing four men. He was industrious and shrewd, and accordingly prospered. Gradually Mr. Roach increased his foundry, putting all his available profits into the extension of his business, until at last he possessed the best facilities in the country for building ships and marine engines. In 1867 he bought the Morgan Iron Works, extensive though they were, and made them complete. As a ship-builder Mr. Roach stood without an equal in this country. He saw the demand for American ships, and that led him, in 1871, to establish his large ship-yard at Chester, Pa., which is known the world over. Mr. Roach built there eighty or more iron ships, their aggregate tonnage being 210,000 tons, and their rating, at Lloyd's and by the American Marine Underwriters, as high as that of any ships. The extent of business done by him in ships and marine engines amounted to $35,000,000. His ship-yard was probably the most complete in the world, and was the only one where iron could be received in the ore and converted into a finished ship. He built vessels for the Pacific Mail, Ward, Savannah, Mallory, and Old Dominion lines, and a number of cruisers for the United States Government, about which so much has been written. A complication of troubles led to the assignment of Mr. Roach about eighteen months ago, but on January 1 his difficulties with the Government were adjusted and the firm was reorganized with Mr. Roach at its head, under the name of the Morgan Iron Works. Mr. Roach was an ardent Republican, but never held office. He was popular with his employees, whose condition he was always watchful to improve. In a business career of nearly fifty years he had never been sued, nor had he ever found it necessary to sue a customer.

The Rev. Oliver S. St. John died in Brooklyn on Monday at the age of seventy-two. He was a pastor of Congregational and Presbyterian churches, professor of languages in Lafayette College, and for many years active in literary and religious work in this city. Before and during the war he was an active abolitionist, and has recently been a worker in the prohibition cause. In 1874 he was appointed Secretary of the Palestine Exploration Society. When overtaken by his last illness, he was preparing a mass of material relating to Biblical antiquities.

Dr. William Perry, the oldest person in Exeter, N. H., and the oldest graduate of Harvard College, died on Tuesday morning, aged ninety-eight. He was the sole survivor of the passengers on Fulton's first steamboat trip down the Hudson seventy-nine years ago.

FOREIGN.

The German Reichstag was crowded on Tuesday, the occasion being the calling up of the Government's Military Bill in its amended form for second reading. Gen. von Moltke opened the debate in favor of the second reading on behalf of the Government. He said he did not believe that any State should assume the responsibility of increasing the supply of combustible material which at present existed in greater or less degree everywhere. Strong governments, he contended, were the best guarantee of peace, while danger lay in the ambition of party leaders and their influence on public opinion. If any State, said Gen. von Moltke, can work effectively to preserve the

peace, it is Germany, who acts solely on the defensive. For this she must be strong, and prepared for war. Should we, against our will, be involved in war, we shall be able to wage it. If this bill is rejected we shall most certainly have war. To-day's vote in the Reichstag on the measure will not fail to have its effect abroad. The army alone renders possible protection to all other political institutions, which must stand or fall with it. A grant for a short term will not be acceptable.

Prince Bismarck said: "A degree of intimacy and mutual confidence exists between Germany and Austria such as never existed at the period of German federation. We are bound to maintain peace for this quarter of the globe, but for this a strong army is required. I have firm confidence in the peaceful disposition of the French Government and a portion of the French people. Still, the past teaches us that we cannot count upon peace with France as permanent. A government may one day come into power at Paris which will make war upon us. This you must take into account. If we do not prepare—if you say to-day, 'When war comes we shall grant everything,' we should be laughed at. Is there in France a single paper or a single public person who says: 'We renounce our rights to Alsace-Lorraine?' The possibility of French aggression is, therefore, a sufficient motive for the bill. Our friendship with Russia is beyond all doubt, and places no obstacle in our way in this respect. Expressing myself thus frankly may alienate Polish votes, but I am bound to honor and truth, and I say that all the motives for the bill which the people sought to adduce from our relations with Russia, according to my political understanding do not exist. I have no need to refer to all the European Powers. I make no reference to England or Italy, because there is absolutely no reason why we should not have for both, and they for us, the greatest good-will. Our relations with both are such that I shall not touch upon them. In connection with the question of the increase of our army they are in every respect friendly." Bismarck several times asserted with warmth that the bill must be passed or the Reichstag dissolved.

The Russian Military Commission has decided to adopt a new repeating rifle for use by the army, and orders for large numbers of the weapon have been given.

There are rumors on the Bourse in St. Petersburg that Russia has occupied a portion of Afghanistan.

Prince Alexander of Battenberg has informed Count Kálnoky, Austro-Hungarian Minister of Foreign Affairs, that he will not return to Bulgaria even if a powerful party should recall him.

France has advised Bulgaria to accept Prince Nicholas of Mingrelia as a ruler.

Lord Iddesleigh has informed the Porte that England cannot recommend Prince Nicholas of Mingrelia for the Bulgarian throne. The Bulgarian Government has rejected the Zankoff overtures.

Rustem Pasha, Turkish Ambassador to England, recently asked the Earl of Iddesleigh, British Minister of Foreign Affairs, whether the English Government inspired the articles in the London press urging the Porte to join England and Austria and not Russia on the Bulgarian question. Lord Iddesleigh has replied, referring the Porte to the liberty enjoyed by the English press, declaring that the articles made the basis of the inquiry had not been inspired, although, he added, the Government and the majority of the English people shared the views expressed by the press. The Porte believes that Turkey would make a false step if she acted with Russia alone, and is now seeking a solution of the Bulgarian difficulty that shall be in accord with the general wish of all the Powers. No definite action, however, will be taken until the return to Constantinople of Gadban Pasha, the special Turkish envoy to Bulgaria.

The British naval pensioners have been ordered to notify the Government of the names of the ships they would prefer to serve upon, or the ports they would prefer to be employed at, in view of being called into possible active service.

The British Admiralty has adopted Lord Beresford's advice to build a fleet of fast cruisers. The new fleet will be completed in two years.

Lord Northbrook and Lord Lansdowne have declined British Cabinet positions.

The British Cabinet changes have been completed as follows: Lord Salisbury, Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs; W. H. Smith, First Lord of the Admiralty; G. J. Goschen, Chancellor of the Exchequer; Edward Stanhope, Secretary of State for War; and Sir Henry Holland, Secretary of State for the Colonies. Lord Iddesleigh repulsed Lord Salisbury's offer of the Privy Seal. He denies that the condition of his health debars him from accepting an onerous office, and he withdraws from official life under a strong sense of having been ill-treated. His personal friends explain that he proffered his resignation only to enable Lord Salisbury to form a coalition Cabinet. When the Prime Minister's efforts in that direction failed, Lord Iddesleigh considered himself entitled to hold the leading portfolio. Lord Salisbury's supporters respond that they are glad to get rid of Lord Iddesleigh, as "his health was of no benefit to the Foreign Office." Mr. Henry Stafford Northcote, son of Lord Iddesleigh, has resigned the office of Surveyor-General of Ordnance, worth $7,500 per year.

The greatest discord exists in the Cabinet upon the coming Local Government Bill, which was supposed to be an immense Conservative success. The difference of opinion is so great that influential Conservatives inside and outside the Government are urging Salisbury not to attempt to introduce it, as its introduction means the instant and complete collapse of the party.

Mr. Gladstone writes that Lord Randolph Churchill's resignation was justifiable, and adds: "I myself favor more economy in the army and navy expenditures."

With regard to the prospects of the forthcoming Liberal conference it is said that Mr Chamberlain's action is a direct result of pressure brought to bear upon him from Birmingham. When he returned from the East, he gave notice that he would address a public meeting on a certain day. Thereupon the political committee of his ward wrote to inform him that his first duty was to them, and they desired him to address them privately at an earlier date. He suspected nothing, and was immensely surprised and disgusted to find himself subjected to a process of heckling by the most direct and frank questions for over two hours. This has been a revelation to him. His position among even those in whose support he had most confidence, caused him to make a conciliatory speech and lend himself willingly to the conference proposal. He has expressed great satisfaction at the tone of certain letters which Mr. Gladstone has addressed to him privately. Nobody has yet discovered in what way a reconciliation is to come.

The negotiations between Mr. Chamberlain and Mr. Morley are tending towards an agreement on the Land Bill on the basis of Mr. Chamberlain's former proposals, to limit the operations of the bill to the purchase of the smaller holdings, thus requiring a total capital, guaranteed by the Imperial Exchequer, of £25,000,000. The differences as to the functions and powers of the proposed Irish Parliament continue.

Mr. John Dillon has begun an action against Inspectors O'Brien and Davis to recover £2,000 damages for malicious prosecution and assault, and £1,000 damages for the seizure and retention of moneys and documents in connection with the arrest of himself and others at Loughrea for receiving tenants' rents.

The fifty-six men who were arrested last August, at the time when Father Fahey was taken into custody, for resisting the collection of rent and eviction on the Clanricarde estates, at Woodford, County Galway, were on Wednesday sentenced to various terms of imprisonment, ranging from twelve to eighteen months. The judge who delivered the sentences censured the inspectors of police and the local magistrates for allowing the rioting, and declared that no Chief Secretary for Ireland, no Under-Secretary, and no Inspector-General could be justified in giving orders to prevent the police from assisting the Sheriff in making evictions or carrying out the processes of law for the collection of rents due.

It is stated that the Pope recently wrote to the Archbishops of Dublin and Cork, instructing them not to support the Nationalist rent movement, but that the injunction has been disregarded.

The West End of London had another labor scare on Friday. Crowds of unemployed workingmen assembled in front of the offices of the Local Government Board and demanded relief. Mr. Ritchie, President of the Board, received a deputation from the crowd outside, but said he could promise nothing. When the crowd were apprised of this, they hooted the Government and marched to Trafalgar Square, where an indignation meeting was held and resolutions were adopted protesting against the apathy of the Government.

William Ballantine, the well-known serjeant-at-law, is dead at the age of seventy-five. He was born in London and admitted to practice in the Inner Temple in 1834. His reputation was first made as a criminal lawyer. In 1856 he was created a serjeant, and became one of the best *nisi prius* advocates at the English bar. Among his many large fees was the $50,000 received for the defence of the Guikwar of Baroda. Serjeant Ballantine was an original wit, and attained great social popularity. About five years ago he wrote a book entitled 'Experiences of a Barrister's Life,' dealing with the public men of two generations. In December, 1882, he visited this country, and was the guest of the Bar Association. He lectured in this city, Boston, and other places.

At a recent French Cabinet Council it was decided not to propose a new loan or tax, but to rely upon the temporary suppression of the sinking fund to balance the current budget, and to postpone making a financial report until next year.

The census of France for 1886 shows a total population of 38,218,903, against 37,672,048 in 1881. The population of Paris has increased only 75,000, against an increase of 280,000 recorded in 1881.

The Vatican has received a communication from France proposing to maintain good relations on the basis of the concordat liberally interpreted. The Vatican does not approve the proposals, and will soon explain its views formally and at length to France.

The Pope will present $100,000 to the Congregation de Propaganda Fide on the occasion of the coming jubilee.

The Danish Folkething (Lower House of Parliament) has been dissolved, owing to refusal to agree to the Government's financial proposals and army estimates. The elections for the new Folkething will take place on January 28.

The Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs has agreed to pay $25,000 to the American missionaries who suffered losses during the recent riots at Ching King.

At the meeting of the Canadian Cabinet on Saturday, dissolution of Parliament was finally agreed upon. John Costigan, Minister of Internal Revenue, and W. A. McLelan, Minister of Finance, have handed in their resignations.

SUGAR BOUNTIES AND SOCIALISM.

THE bill introduced by Mr. Hiscock to reduce the Treasury surplus proposes to take off one-half of the existing duty on raw sugar, and to compensate the Louisiana planters and the sorghum and beet-root growers by a bounty of $2 for each ton of cane or sugar beets grown (not necessarily worked), to be paid by the Treasurer of the United States. It provides in addition a scale of bounties for all kinds of sugar made—from cane, beets, or what not—amounting to about seven-eighths of a cent a pound. The surplus will thus be reduced in two ways, first by lessening the income, and second by increasing the outgo by a gratuity amounting to some five millions of dollars.

There is little likelihood that Mr. Hiscock's bill will come to a vote. Probably it is introduced merely as a "feeler" to enable the Republican politicians to judge how far they can go safely in the socialistic experiment of diverting public funds to private interests. That the bill is of the very essence of socialism, no one can doubt or deny. The protective tariff is a socialistic contrivance, although it is not so regarded by those who support it. By exciting prejudices against "foreign industry" and in favor of "home industry," thus keeping a pseudo-patriotic point of view uppermost, its advocates have managed to conceal its real character even from themselves. The aim of a protective tariff is to give to some people by law an advantage over others in matters of business, in dollars and cents. This is socialism, but, as we have said, the popular apprehension has not yet recognized it as such.

We are referred by the advocates of sugar bounties to the example of Germany. The *Tribune* "points with pride" to the remarkable development of the sugar industry in that country, secured by payments of money from the public treasury, and asks, "Why should not this country encourage the same industry by the same means?" Why not encourage every industry by the same means? That is exactly what the Socialists demand. Germany is the headquarters of socialism. The only difference between Bismarck's socialism and that of Karl Marx is in the detailed application of it. Bismarck has the advantage of physical power, but Marx and his followers have that of logical consistency. Brute force is a temporary and shifting element. Intellectual force is a permanent and growing power. If there were no other elements to be reckoned with in Germany but the socialism of Bismarck and that of Marx, the latter would triumph over the former in the course of time, as surely as chemistry triumphs over alchemy or astronomy over astrology. But the eventual salvation of Germany is to be found in the fact that both varieties of socialism are unscientific, pernicious, and destructive, and destined to a common burial, although they may work a great deal of mischief and some bloodshed before they are mutually effaced. Both take their stand on the principle that the Government can make a wiser distribution of the products of labor than natural laws effect. They differ only as to the mode of carrying this principle into practice. "Protection" aims at this result, and if we allow that protection is right, we shall not have much standing ground for opposition to sugar bounties or any other kind of bounties. Let it be understood that any trade (which means a certain number or class of producers) are not doing as well as they think they ought to, and their claims for appropriations of public money are as good as those of the sugar-planters and the beet-growers. The complete and perfect expression of the idea would be a bill granting pensions to all the people of the United States. The socialism of Marx would limit the pension to the needs of the pensioner. That of Bismarck and of Hiscock would limit it only by the judgment of the governing power.

Mr. Hiscock's bill provides in effect that there shall be no reduction in the price of sugar to the consumer. This proviso is found in the clause which says that sugars from all countries where there is an export tax shall continue to pay the present duty. This means that we are to discriminate in *favor* of Germany, which country has no export tax, but gives a bounty to her beet-sugar growers, and *against* all the countries for whose trade we are so anxiously struggling, and from which nine-tenths of our imports of sugar now come, viz.: Cuba, Brazil, the Philippine Islands, Porto Rico, the English and French West Indies, etc., all of which, with two insignificant exceptions, collect an export tax as the only means of obtaining a revenue from the planter. In all such countries the only method available for the Government to collect taxes is to impose them at the shipping ports; hence all their revenues are from imports and exports. Is it any of our business how these countries collect their taxes? Has not Mr. Hiscock's experience as a Congressman taught him the immense difficulty of changing a revenue system? If so, why should he suppose that the sugar-growing countries could, at a moment's warning, even if they wished to do so, change theirs? Our enlightened Congress, which for years has been haggling over the worst revenue system in the world without accomplishing any change, proposes offhand to upset the revenue system of nearly every sugar country, by helping the planters to bring a pressure to bear on their own governments to relieve them from a tax which now comes out of their pockets. This is what cannot be done. The duties on *imports* in those countries are so high now that they cannot be increased. Consequently there is no source of revenue to make good the repeal of the export tax on sugar. The only effect of this clause in the Hiscock bill will be to give an advantage in our market to Germany and France — two countries which notoriously discriminate against our products.

A SHAMEFUL BUSINESS.

THE Old Dominion Steamship Company, which does perhaps a larger freight business than any other domestic line, and employs a large body of stevedores, has been in the habit of employing a number of them by the month in order to be sure of a steady supply of labor. This practice of employing by the month was recently forbidden by the Knights of Labor, but the company, of course, disregarded the prohibition, and found no difficulty in filling the places of the men who struck under it. The Knights, being foiled in this direction, bethought themselves of the plan of frightening the foreign steamship companies into a boycott, and have actually succeeded in doing so. They sent around notices on dirty pieces of paper requesting these companies not to take freight from the old Dominion Company, and the result was that several of them—we do not know exactly at this writing how many—have not only refused to accept new freight from that line, but have broken contracts already made with it—that is, have refused to honor through bills of lading given by their own agents.

When one considers that nothing has yet happened to these companies, that they are not yielding after actual experience of the loss or danger of resistance, that their discreditable conduct is the result of what is called in England "sheer funk"—that is, of the kind of terror which destroys shame—and that some of them are Englishmen, representing English honor and manliness in a foreign port, it is, it must be admitted, a very extraordinary affair. When we call to mind the great amount of business the foreign steamship companies do at this port, it would seem to be a matter of ordinary comity that they should aid their American customers in defending private rights against mob violence or intimidation. In other words, they owe it to the Old Dominion Steamship Company and to all the decent and intelligent people of America to aid them in resisting the scamps and ruffians, who are trying to ruin this city as a centre of trade and commerce by their lawlessness and disorder. Foreigners who live here for the purpose of soliciting American custom, certainly have duties as well as rights. They have no business to claim the protection of the American law, and then, when the occasion comes, not only refuse all assistance in upholding the law, but make common cause with the law-breakers against members of their own calling. It would have been bad enough if in this case they had simply allowed themselves to be frightened into refusing to receive, as common carriers, any honest man's goods; but to break their contracts openly and brazenly, and have nothing to show in excuse or extenuation except dirty postal cards from unknown persons, is still worse. They ought to be made to suffer for it in some way, and we trust they will be. If the law cannot reach them, we trust the reprobation of the mercantile community both here and in Europe will.

The Knights of Labor have, during the past few months, been rapidly losing their hold on the skilled labor of the country. The trades-unions of the artisans are rapidly breaking away from them, because they do not care to have their trade interests managed by the votes of the unskilled laborers who compose the vast majority of the Knights. The stevedores, coal-heavers, and miners are, wherever they are concentrated in large bodies, still under control. The Knights have 3,000 of the coal-heavers of the Pennsylvania lines now on strike in New Jersey, and their activity among the stevedores and 'longshoremen is incessant. Most of the steamship lines have for some time past found their business

seriously interfered with by the Local Assembly and the Walking Delegates. There is no difficulty in getting plenty of unknightly labor, as the Old Dominion Company has found. The difficulty is in protecting the men from mob violence. Unless there is a large force of police present, the Knights attack them on the wharves and pursue them to their homes, and keep them in terror of their lives. But of course the police protection is not always at hand, and, before it can be obtained, half days or whole days are lost in loading and unloading. The shipping business at this port is already suffering seriously from this cause. It had already enough to contend with in the shape of corruption and extortion among harbor-masters and other officials. It might stand extortion, or it might stand violence, but it can hardly stand both. If there be no improvement here, New York must lose its commercial supremacy.

In view of this state of things, it cannot be too strongly impressed on the business community that their only hope of salvation lies in united resistance. Those who fancy, like these timid ship-owners who are breaking their contracts through "funk," that there are limits to the extortion and interference of the kind of men who control the Knights of Labor, are living under a delusion. The spirit which animates these men is precisely that which animates Macedonian brigands. They think they have got a lot of rich men in their power, and they mean to get all they can out of them—not all at once, but from time to time, as convenience or necessity dictates. The more easily they find their behests obeyed, the sooner they will issue fresh ones. Nothing can be more absurd than the idea that they have a maximum of extortion or violence in their heads beyond which they will not go. What they seek, and almost avowedly seek, is the money of all who save, and they enjoy the power which comes from terrorizing the peaceable and industrious. They like frightening a big ship-owner, and making him cringe and wheedle, particularly as they make a living out of it. Therefore resistance is not only the manliest and most public-spirited course, but the cheapest. It is expensive, doubtless, to carry on the shipping business in a series of rows with Walking Delegates and striking mobs, but it will prove in the long run by far the least expensive course open to people in any business in this city which involves the employment of large quantities of unskilled labor. We predict that if these foreign companies do not repent of their cowardice, they will soon find out that in troublous times it is the costliest vice of which a man or corporation can be guilty.

DECLINE OF THE MORMON THEOCRACY.

After thirty years of stubborn conflict between the Government and the Mormon Church, and after five years' enforcement of the Edmunds law, though it can by no means be alleged that victory is achieved, the evidence is conclusive that the Church begins seriously to suffer, and that, if the campaign continues with vigor, the end is not far off.

True, no intelligent observer can deny the existence of such unpalatable facts as the following: Several scores of missionaries are sent out each year to proselyte; they bring back converts at the rate of some 2,000 annually, while every twelve months not less than 5,000 recruits are born. Colony after colony is drafted to occupy the best lands in Idaho, Wyoming, Colorado, New Mexico, Arizona, and Nevada. The church machine is yet in capital running order. The priesthood is possessed of strength and zeal sufficient to make a vigorous fight both in the Great Basin and upon the Potomac. The people as a whole are sunk deep in ignorance and superstition, are in the main sincere and ready to suffer indefinitely for their faith, and hug their shackles and bless the hands which enslave them. Without doubt as many polygamous marriages are celebrated as ever, and the population is practically a unit in resisting Congress and the courts. And so abundance of toil and trouble is ahead.

But other facts are just as certain and significant. The number of baptisms in foreign regions is steadily falling off. Time was when they reached threefold or fourfold the present figure. It was demonstrated long since that Mormonism has no mission at all for the heathen, or for the adherents of the Greek and Romish Churches. Ever since Nauvoo days, probably 90 per cent. of recruits have been derived from the British Isles and Scandinavian countries, and of late from the Southern States. And, even in this limited area, the source of supply diminishes year by year, while the quality is falling off even more seriously. It has come to this pass, that the only class approachable is of those who are in such amazing ignorance as never to have heard of the fame of Joseph Smith or the wonderful Utah gospel.

The fanatical element in the Mormon Church also grows less and less, and is confined mainly to those who joined when the religious craze or frenzy was on, who endured the fiery persecutions of Missouri and Illinois in 1834-46, and so are far past their prime. The rising generation, especially of the young men, is largely indifferent, or at least half-hearted, their faith being a matter of mere education or prejudice, while of thousands the adhesion is but superficial and formal, to save trouble, or for social or business considerations.

The Federal Government is making continual encroachments upon the political sphere at first claimed and fully occupied by the church, and is able at length to compel respect for its representatives and its commands. Early Mormon assumptions and defiance were astounding, and the degree of forbearance has been shameful; but progress, though slow, has been steady. Since the advent of District-Attorney Wm. H. Dickson and Judge Charles S. Zane, the will of the nation has begun to be felt in fear and trembling. In spite of the utmost of organized resistance by means and methods most unscrupulous, it is now easy to indict and convict polygamous saints, and to send them to prison. More than 200 have already received sentence in three Territories, some 350 more await their trials, and it is estimated that not far from 1,000, including almost every man of note, have fled and hid from the face of the marshals. As showing that legal retribution moves on with accelerated speed, up to July of 1885 but nine had been sentenced in Utah, while a year later the number had increased to ninety-three, and during the last six months seventy-five more have been added. Still further, fines, costs, forfeited bonds, and lawyers' fees have entailed most burdensome expense. Ruinous derangement to business is another result, and payment for the services of such advocates as Curtis, and Boutwell, and Black, has made savage inroads into the church tithing-fund.

Then, at many points, the priesthood has been thrown upon the defensive, and concealment is in order. Thus, statistical reports of accessions and of divers church doings are no longer made. Teachings and practices once boasted of and everywhere heard (and also, unfortunately for Mormonism, put in print by their own pens) are now stoutly denied—such, for example, as "blood atonement," and the right of the priesthood to "dictate in everything, to the setting up of a stocking or the ribbons on a woman's bonnet." Besides, certain desperate measures are set on foot every now and then which indicate that cataclysm and catastrophe are apprehended, and that panic and despair may be near. Moreover, things once strictly forbidden and visited with ecclesiastical vengeance are now ignored or even favored, like selling land to "Gentiles," trading with them, or resorting to their churches and schools. Nor are cases at all unknown of out and-out rebellion against church domination and meddling, and of determination to follow the individual reason and conscience. But even yet theocratic tyranny is such as to fill the mind of the true American with astonishment and indignation.

Nor should the fact be ignored that denominational schools are rapidly gaining place and popularity in all the larger settlements. Already about 20 per cent. of the children in Utah are thus under anti-Mormon influences, are receiving American ideas and ways, and so are spoiled for polygamy and theocracy, while Christian churches will soon follow and further the good work. A few years hence a new and far better civilization will have been planted and become widespread.

A DOUBTFUL REMEDY.

The English newspapers are having a somewhat amusing public washing of their own dirty linen since the conclusion of the Campbell divorce case. The *Pall Mall Gazette*, which one of its contemporaries now always calls the "*Gutter Gazette*," suffered so much from the attempts made by its editor to reform British morals by means of "startling exposures," that it has kept a very sharp watch on their reports of the Campbell case, and now castigates them all in a bitter article, with the heading "Pecksniff and Poison." In this it protests furiously against the "flooding of the town with fetid filth," in which it says they have been engaged. It has compiled, too, a table showing the number of columns they have each given to the report, including the *Evening News*, "an obscure sheet, unhonored and unknown beyond the London gutters," and gives a facsimile of the columns of the *Eve-*

ning Standard, those devoted to the Campbell case being printed in dead black. There is no doubt that it is able to make out a very dark case against them, but it does so in somewhat "journalistic" fashion, for it entirely overlooks the difference between the reporting of something which takes place in a court of law, and the voluntary collection for publication of filth from brothels and "dives." The effect on the reading public is doubtless the same in both cases, but there is a distinction between the position of the law reporter and the sexual reformer, which every candid man must recognize.

The evil worked by publications of this kind, however, is acknowledged on all sides as frightful. The disgusting revelations of the *Pall Mall Gazette* made their way into the hands of the young all over the world, wherever the English language is spoken. So have the reports of the Campbell trial. It makes very little difference, as far as the moral effect is concerned, whether "the fetid filth" flows from a court of law or from the inflamed brain of a fanatical reformer. Nobody reads such stuff for the purpose of making himself better, and nobody is the better of reading it. It is a sort of literature which used to be confined to books which were expensive because they were necessarily scarce and hard to get at, being in every country under the ban of the police, of the clergy, of parents and teachers. In our day, however, it has, through the newspaper press, broken loose from the old bounds, and goes to every house along with the morning bread and the milk, and is bought and sold in the streets like matches or cigars. It reaches men, women, and children in our day just as if it were mixed with the flour, or butter, or coffee, because the newspaper has become an article of daily household necessity. Every editor can at least once fill thousands of homes with stuff which a hundred years ago had to be sought for with shame and fear, and concealed when found, and of which nobody acknowledged the possession but the old roués who made up libraries of what are called *Ludibria*.

This new and unlooked-for result of the appearance in the world of the cheap daily press is causing in England a great searching for means of prevention or cure. There was first of all a demand for the hearing of all divorce cases in private, but this did not bear discussion very well, for it was easily shown that the publicity of the proceedings does a great deal to keep people out of the divorce court; and that if the testimony were taken in secret, there would probably be an enormous increase of perjury. It was then modified into a demand for the non-publication of the testimony until after the case was over, and also for some sort of censorship or revision of the reports by the court; but the practical difficulties in the way of these arrangements would be very great. It must be admitted, too, that the present "spirit of the age"—we say "present" because, as Mr. Lowell has observed, we have known of several such spirits in our time—is hostile to having anything whatever kept back, or having any kind of knowledge which anybody is likely to relish confined to a select few. So that the only thing likely to be done by way of remedy is the signing of a very solemn appeal to the editors of the newspapers, by a number of eminent men and women, asking them to keep "the fetid filth" out of their journals.

This is now being done. What success it will have, it is difficult to say. If successful, it would impose on the virtue of an enterprising editor of a cheap newspaper a strain which, it is safe to say, not one in ten would bear. The very qualities which fit a man for the conduct of a thriving two-cent paper make it almost impossible for him to support unmoved the spectacle of a roaring trade done by a rival in news which he might have had, were he less pure and public-spirited. All his training and all his talents tend to unfit him for such an ordeal; and yet every one who suppressed filthy reports from high motives would be subjected to it. For, beside every good editor who is seeking the elevation of mankind, there exists a wicked editor, who takes a wholly humorous view of the elevation of mankind, and does not care what becomes of the race as long as his own dividends are good. And the savage joy with which the latter would ladle out the filth and rake the money into the till would fill the good editor's soul with bitterness, and finally, in most cases, drag him down into the pit. At least such is our impression, but it may be too dark a view.

THE FIRST MADAME GUIZOT.

PARIS, December 28, 1886.

MME. DE WITT, the daughter of M. Guizot, published a few years ago an interesting account of her father's domestic life. She gives us now two volumes, under the title 'Le Temps Passé,' which are a collection of critical essays written by M. and Mme. Guizot. The first Mme. Guizot was a Mlle. de Meulan, born in Paris in 1773. Her father was Receiver-General of Taxes in the generality of Paris. He was wealthy, and his salon was hospitable. M. de Rémusat, speaking of the Meulans, said: "The generosity of mind, so common then in Parisian society, gave them a leaning towards new ideas; they adopted them with confidence. They formed one of those families for whom M. Necker was the desired minister—that is to say, who prepared the Revolution without wishing it or foreseeing it."

The Revolution broke out when Pauline de Meulan was sixteen years old; her father was ruined, he became ill and died in 1790; her mother retired to Passy, and Mlle. de Meulan began to write novels in order to make a little money. In 1801, M. Suard founded a paper called the *Publiciste*, whose programme was the defence of the philosophical ideas of the eighteenth century. The papers of that period were like the magazines and the reviews of our time—they contained short essays, written with care, with literary preoccupations. Mlle. de Meulan became the theatrical and literary critic of the *Publiciste*, and her articles were soon remarked. They had a sort of feminine grace. She had evidently taken Addison and the English writers of his period for her model. Literary criticism was for her a means of studying human sentiments, and she based her judgments on philosophical and general ideas. Hence it happens that the value of her criticisms becomes completely independent of the value of the works which suggested them, and a collection of them can be considered a picture of polished society in France after the Revolution, of its ideas and prejudices, of its mental and moral peculiarities. The elegance, the grace of the eighteenth century was not quite destroyed by the Revolution, but it had been chastened by misfortune; there was less levity, less frivolity, and more gravity. What Rousseau called sensibility had become sentimentality.

In one respect the spirit of the nineteenth century at its beginning differs completely from the spirit of our own age. Nothing could show this better, I believe, than a comparison of these literary essays of Mme. Guizot and of the essays of some young critic of our time, for instance, M. Jules Lemaitre, the latest rising star in journalism, who has recently collected his reviews in two volumes, 'Les Contemporains: études et portraits littéraires.' There is a realistic force in Jules Lemaitre which is wanting in Mme. Guizot—a vitality (a coarseness, some would say), a cleverness, and total independence of all preconceived ideas, which contrast very much with the methodical and classic style of the old time. Sainte-Beuve may be said to be the father of the new school, the positivist school, which cares little for general ideas, and runs directly to the facts; which delights in exactitude, in small details, which shows life in all its complexity, which lowers greatness and extols humility. This positivist school does not pretend to be a school of morality, it is a mirror shown to the world, cold and brilliant. There is not much concern for style in such writers as Jules Lemaitre; their pen seems to run with their thought; as they do not wish to correct us, they don't care to correct themselves. A secret contempt for their readers makes them quite indifferent to their own work, so long as it procures them the amount of reputation they claim and gives them the pleasure of expressing their own thoughts as crudely, as brutally sometimes, as they conceive them. They imitate the familiarity of Montaigne, who seems always to be speaking to himself.

M. Guizot made the acquaintance of Pauline de Meulan in 1807. At a time when she was ill, and was obliged to interrupt her work, he offered, though he was unknown to her, to write articles for her. She accepted the offer, and, after a while, he made her acquaintance. He had been living in Paris for two years, quite unknown, lost in his studies. He had been drawn to Pauline de Meulan by a movement of generosity and by a caprice of imagination. When they knew each other, they became intimate friends; they were married on the 9th of April, 1812. She wrote many articles in a periodical which M. Guizot had undertaken to edit, the *Annals of Education;* and afterwards published her first collection of stories for children, 'Les Enfants.' She had all the qualities necessary for this difficult task of captivating the mind, the heart, and the imagination of the younger generations, and her 'Contes' have become almost classical.

Mme. Guizot, when she was still Mlle. de Meulan, had been obliged to write for her living. Her friends pitied her more than she liked, and she one day found an opportunity of answering them, in a "Letter from a lady journalist to a friend":

"I am criticised for the resolution I have taken to write for a paper, and especially to give an account of the theatrical novelties. . . . I am therefore reproached for being a woman, since it cannot be for being a journalist. My censors know very well, however, why I have become one; but would they not have to reproach themselves if they took away from me, or even rendered more difficult, the courage which I need in order to sacrifice, for what I consider a duty, considerations which my education and my habits had taught me to respect? I know well those proprieties which make the rôle of a journalist the most extraordinary, perhaps, which a woman could choose, if her choice were quite free. This rôle, I assure you, does not seem to me what it seems to them, as they have not seen things so near. If they knew, as I do, the grave interests

which it is necessary to respect, the important considerations which weigh on the mind, the absurd accusations which must be answered, the most absurd homages which must be received, and all the turmoil of small passions, the noise of which reaches even the solitude of a woman; if they saw amid all this a work which has no attraction for the mind, with no compensation for vanity, then I would allow them to say what they like, and to think, if they like, that I have undertaken it for my pleasure."

"Ce que j'ai fait, Abner, j'ai crû le devoir faire."

Once married, she wrote more for her own satisfaction. M. Guizot had taken office, and his wife took the keenest interest in all his affairs. She was a sort of intellectual partner of his, and we see a proof of it in two essays, one "On the ideas of right and of duty considered as the foundation of society," and one on "Anarchy and Power." In 1820 M. Guizot resigned his post, as his opinions were no longer in the ascendant, and his wife began to write again. She published 'L'Écolier,' a novel on education; several "contes," and 'Domestic Letters on Education,' a book in which she treats of the highest questions of moral philosophy. "The excellence of this work," says M. de Rémusat, "is in the union of great severity of principle with a perfect liberty of mind; it thus offers a faithful image of the person who composed it."

It is interesting to know what Mme. Guizot thought on religion: she was still under the influence of the philosophical school, but she belonged to Rousseau more than to Voltaire. He was religious by sentiment. She did not like theology nor theological discussions. She did not like, she said, to meditate on any subject in which she had the slightest personal interest. She was afraid of doubt, and she felt instinctively that reasoning might lead to doubt; the smallest fear presented to her imagination made her unhappy. In one of her letters she writes: "In order to be happy, I can do nothing except fix my mind on subjects foreign to what agitates me. This is the art which has kept me up all my life, with the aid of the forced occupations which took me away from my personal interests." She places her faith implicitly in God; but she says:

"Whatever good I have done, I have not done it for God or with a view to becoming better: I have done it simply because I could not do otherwise. I have so little the habit of considering myself when I think of God, that I cannot easily understand that he could be offended by my faults; I ask his pardon less than his support. He is, in my eyes, a protector more than a creditor, and I confide in him more than I fear him. What more can I do? My religion is active like my character; it enters into the interests of which I have the care; it helps me to bear the burden of life rather than throw it aside. A time will come when these burdens may diminish; perhaps I shall some day obtain the calm which I have always tried to conquer, but which nothing can give in the midst of certain subjects of torment."

This is the letter of a very superior and of a really good person, good in the very highest sense of the word; and everybody who has any experience of life will appreciate its profound philosophy. It is the theory of action—"Act, act in the living present." Action is our only defence against misfortune, against regrets, fears, troubles, visions of death. The Greek philosophy said to man, "Know thyself"; the Christian philosophy says, "Forget thyself."

Mme. Guizot, after a long illness, died on the 30th of July, 1827. In the morning she asked her husband to read to her. He read her a letter of Fénelon's for a sick person, and began a sermon of Bossuet's on the immortality of the soul. In the midst of the sermon she expired. Sainte-Beuve places Mme. Guizot in the same rank with some of the best literary women of the eighteenth century; she had their grace, their natural elegance, and she acquired, in the society of M. Guizot, more serious qualities.

The great majority of the articles which appear under the title of 'Le Temps Passé' were written by Mme. Guizot alone. A few, however, are signed by her husband also, and for this reason the name of M. Guizot appears on the title-page with the name of his wife. Mme. de Witt wished to unite once more those who had been so closely united; but it is clear that the 'Temps Passé' is essentially the work of a woman. It has not the stern, the solemn form of the great works of M. Guizot. It is perhaps all the more interesting, as it has a clear individuality.

The critical articles on the theatrical representations of the time have not wholly lost their interest. The remarks of Mme. Guizot on "Othello," or "Tartuffe," or the pieces of Racine and Corneille, are extremely clever. I have read, however, with more pleasure the literary essays on Hugh Blair, on Brantôme, on the 'Confessions' of Saint Augustine, on Goldsmith, Beaumarchais, Alfieri, Mme. Riccoboni, Chateaubriand, Vauvenargues, Collé. The articles on education are particularly interesting, and might be isolated and form a special work. Then come small essays, which have much grace, on points of morals, on politeness and impoliteness, ignorance, hope, vanity, good manners, etc. Such articles can, of course, not be analyzed; it is enough to say that they are written by a woman of the world, and a virtuous woman.

Correspondence.

DISCRIMINATION AGAINST SILVER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: You will confer a lasting favor by answering fully the following, which I clip from a newspaper article on the silver question:

"It is a fact that the law makes no discrimination against silver in the payments made by the Treasury. The officials of that department are guilty of all the discrimination. There is certainly no reasonable excuse for the notorious policy of the Treasury in hoarding the vast amount of silver dollars there accumulated. The gauzy excuse that they 'cannot get rid of it' is unworthy of a department of the Government, for it is a fact that when a person is paid by the Government he receives a warrant on the Treasury, and he cannot determine whether his payment shall be in gold, silver, or paper money. The cashier of the Treasury has an unquestionable right to do that, and can pay him in the kind of money of which he has the most. The vaults of the Treasury might be without a dollar in silver if the Administration should so desire. . . . It is true, this Administration, as well as the two preceding it, have shown a bitter hostility to the policy of our laws in regard to silver, and instead of putting it in circulation have uniformly hoarded the greater portion of it, offering as an excuse in the annual reports the insupportable statement that they 'cannot get rid of it.'"

Yours very truly, B. R. Goggins.

Grand Rapids, Wis., December 31, 1886.

[The writer of the newspaper article to which you call our attention has *located* the discrimination in the wrong place. If the Treasury should insist upon paying to the holders of warrants drawn upon it a kind of money that they object to and do not want, that would be discrimination. Nobody affirms that the Treasury does any such thing. On the contrary, the charge is, that it now and always pays exactly the kind of money that the holder of the warrant asks for. If, under such circumstances, gold is generally paid out instead of silver, it must be because *the holders of the warrants* discriminate against silver. Now, the holders of the warrants are *the public*—all persons who have any pecuniary claims against the Government, and all persons to whom they assign these claims by turning them over in payment of their own debts. Nobody pretends that he cannot get silver at the Treasury if he wants it. In point of fact, the Treasury did for several years transport silver certificates from place to place all over the country, free of express charges, at the request of private persons, and without limit as to quantity, in order to promote their circulation. It never did this for gold or for gold certificates or for greenbacks. In other words, the only discrimination the Government ever made as between silver and gold was made in favor of silver.—Ed. Nation.]

GREENBACKS AND SILVER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It seems to me that you are in error in your comments on Mr. St. John's remarks on the silver question. It is quite true that, "for all purposes of expelling gold, the greenback dollar is quite as powerful an agent as the silver dollar under present conditions"; in point of fact, the Government standing ready to redeem a greenback in *coin*, but not in *gold*, a greenback dollar is just as good as a silver dollar—neither better nor worse—and plays precisely the same part as regards keeping out gold. So this comparison does not help us in the argument; it is the aggregate amount of silver and of paper redeemable in silver, with which we have to reckon. When the greenback was not redeemable in coin, it drove out coin most effectually; and the silver dollar, not being redeemable by a gold dollar, and being intrinsically far less valuable, will quite as surely drive out the gold dollar, if it, or its representative in paper, be issued in sufficient quantity.

If "the movement of gold to and from this country" seems to go on "regardless of the operations of the mint," this is only a fresh illustration of the dangers of inferring economic causes from effects. However much gold we may at any time be importing, it is impossible to doubt—silver being in circulation and a legal tender—that we should be importing still more were it not for the presence of the silver; whether the cause of the demand be the rapid development of the country, the diminished circulation of national banks, or what not, we are not here concerned to inquire. One thing is quite plain: though the movement of gold may now seem to be as indifferent to the issue of silver as to the production of Bessemer steel, a point can be distinctly named at which the difference between the two, due to the legal-tender quality of the silver dollar, will become evident to everybody. Whenever there shall have been issued an amount of silver, or paper based on silver, which is sufficient for carrying on all the exchanges of the country, people will have to choose whether they shall pay their debts with gold dollars and melt down their silver dollars, or the reverse. Unless a great many people make the first choice, gold will speedily vanish. F. F.

January 7, 1887.

[It is not clear what "F. F." means by the phrase "issuing" silver. It would appear that he has in mind the process by which the Government issued the greenbacks—paying them out for supplies and services during the war, and thus forcing them into circulation. But the Government does nothing of the kind with silver dollars. It buys $2,000,000 worth of bullion per month, and fashions it into coins.

It allows its creditors to take any kind of money they prefer from the Treasury in payment of their claims, but if they take silver dollars they must, of course, take them as the equivalent of gold dollars. This is not "issuing" in the sense that the greenbacks were issued. It is essentially a manufacturing operation. As the argument of "F. F." depends not upon the manufacture of silver dollars by the Government, but upon their "issue," *i. e.*, their propulsion into business channels, he will see that his reasoning is thus far inconclusive. —Ed. Nation.]

THE REAL RAILROAD EVIL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The discussion now raging on the Reagan-Cullom Inter-State Commerce Bill does not touch the real difficulty which is sought to be remedied. The Granger agitation of a few years ago was the natural result of an oppression which the farmers felt, and they struck at what seemed to them to be the trouble. "Pools" and discriminations by railroads in "long and short hauls" were the open acts which the people saw, and naturally enough they attributed to those acts the wrongs which were inflicted. Congress has fallen into a like error. I do not mean by this that there are not some good features in the Reagan-Cullom bill; but I do mean that, if passed, it will disappoint its advocates when put into practical operation. I conceive that the trouble which is sought to be remedied arises from a much more deep-seated and radical wrong than "pools" or "hauls." It is, in short, the faulty legislation of the States. Railroads as common carriers are of recent origin. The State Legislatures in the early days of railroads "ran wild" on the subject, and granted to these corporations rights, privileges, and immunities which are now returning to "plague the inventors" and those who come after them.

As an example: Railroads are confined to corporate existence. In this State nine subscribers may organize a railroad and subscribe articles of incorporation; $50,000 in stock subscriptions authorizes a corporate existence and bestows a franchise. The road is wholly a paper line. On this supposed line, without a dollar paid or a solvent corporator connected with it, a mortgage may be made, and corporate bonds and shares of capital stock without limit may be voted and issued. If the mortgagors succeed in getting money on the bonds secured by the mortgage, the road is built up under the mortgage. The scheme generally is to excite rivalry between competing intermediate points, and secure large local subsidies to the enterprise. When the railroad has been hastily and poorly constructed, and the first instalment of interest remains unpaid, the bonds generally fall into the hands of "wreckers," who foreclose them and cut off all floating debts, wipe out the original issue of capital stock, appoint a purchasing committee from among the bondholders, buy in the road at foreclosure sale, and reorganize a new corporation upon the dead carcass of the old, and reissue shares of stock in such amounts as suits the "sweet will" of the new proprietors, and thereupon, without reference to actual value, re-bond the new concern to such an amount as it will stand, and go anew into the markets to dispose of this new "stuff."

And now begins the era of the second great fraud. The new shares of stock, instead of representing the actual value of the road, are issued without regard to value. In fact, the stock remains wholly valueless, and the bonds represent all the value there is to the railroad. The management of the road strain every nerve to make the road pay the interest on the bonds. The shares of stock remain valueless till the road can be made to pay running expenses, and repairs, and interest on the bonded debt; and then, if there is a surplus, it goes to the shareholders. By this means, railroads become of uncertain value; railroad securities are simply "gambling stocks." Railroad management is to squeeze out of the shipper every dollar possible, so that the securities may have an apparent value. As the railroad is made to pay, so the securities fluctuate in the market, and form the bases of gambling contracts on the "Stock Exchange."

This is the real difficulty in the whole business. There is not a railroad bond or stock in this State that an orphans' court would allow a guardian or administrator to invest his trust funds in during the progress of the settlement of his estate. If railroads were prohibited from issuing shares of capital stock beyond the actual value of the railroad, calculated on a mileage basis, and prohibited from mortgaging their railroads and franchises beyond a point where the income of the road would certainly pay the interest, keep up repairs, make needful improvements, and yield a surplus besides to be distributed to the shareholders, there would be little or no agitation in the country over railroad monopolies.

You ask me how I would remedy the evils which have grown up.

In a word, I would provide for the honest valuation of all railroads. I would scale down the par value of the capital stock to that sum, and compel the surrender of the excess. I would in like manner provide for the payment of all outstanding railroad bonds, by compelling the railroads to keep a sinking fund for that purpose, and would prohibit all second or junior mortgages. I would fix a maximum for each railroad beyond which they should not encumber their roads. I would prevent the "watering" of capital stock, and bring these mortgage securities within the bounds of honest values. When they reach that point, I would hold them there with a firm grasp.

It may be said that this is radical and aggressive. I admit it. The times require bold and decisive action. W. H. Calkins.

Indianapolis, Ind., January 1, 1887.

LEGISLATION FOR THE WORKING CLASSES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Schemes for aiding the poor by legislation are no doubt for the most part illusory, but there is one direction in which such interposition is much needed.

There is no possession which to the laboring man is more precious than his health, for in America sickness constitutes almost the only source (always excepting drink) of real poverty. It is therefore unjustifiable that a man, in the effort to support his family, should be required to expose himself, and perhaps his family also, to danger of disease; and here legislation might and should interfere. I can point out in the neighborhood of this city many situations in which health is impossible to the resident by reason of low-lying grounds, damp and badly drained, which have nevertheless been chosen for establishing factories, apparently because the ground, being undesirable, is cheap. It is painful to see such places crowded with workpeople at the same time that high and healthy ground near by may be wholly unoccupied and waiting for a purchaser. Factories are also often placed for convenience near water courses, even when such situations are known to be exposed to malaria. Here the law should step in and prevent the selection of such positions.

Many kinds of manufactures are known to act injuriously on those employed in them. For all such there should be State inspection, at short intervals, to make sure that everything that can be accomplished by good ventilation and proper arrangements is attained.

In manufactures of textile fabrics, the workpeople are often obliged to work in a stifling atmosphere, with closed windows in the hottest weather, because of some real or fancied advantage to the work; in some of these mill-rooms, a man unaccustomed to the air, though in good health, will be completely exhausted in half an hour. Here, too, the law should intervene.

In these matters it must be confessed that some other nations do far better than we. In France and Germany especially, all questions affecting the health of workpeople have been carefully studied by intelligent commissions appointed for the purpose, and employers are controlled in exposing workpeople to evils and dangers that can be avoided. The matter is one in which a reform is greatly needed. M. C. L.

Philadelphia, January 7, 1887.

[The idea of legal supervision of the sites of factories is novel and may have merit, but we do not see how a man could be fairly compelled to build his factory on dear high ground instead of low cheap ground unless the State paid the difference in price. We think, too, that if he should be compelled to build on costly high ground out of regard for the health of his operatives, the operatives should be compelled to keep healthy, by legal rules as to diet and clothes and exercise. Houses in healthy situations might be provided for them by the employer, but it would not be fair, after putting him to this expense, to let them go on drinking bad liquor, or eating too much pie or nuts, or wearing thin underclothing in bad weather, or sleeping in close rooms. There is evidently a great future in this world for "inspectors" and "guardians."—Ed. Nation.]

HOW TO CONTROL IMMIGRATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your editorial comment last week on restricting immigration, apropos of Mr. Flower's second biennial report of the Wisconsin Bureau of Labor and Industrial Statistics, prompts me to make a suggestion derived from the policy pursued, as I am informed, by the Dutch in the island of Java. The dense population of that island, and its proximity to portions of Asia even more densely peopled, made it long ago necessary to find some effective check on immigration, and Dutch thrift and ingenuity furnished to the problem a solution which, though entailing no hardship on the individual, has proved a great boon to the country. The plan adopted was the following: Every foreigner arriving in Java may obtain on landing a permit which allows him to remain thirty days. When that time has expired he must either leave the island or deposit with the authorities forty dollars, a sum sufficient to pay his passage to the mainland. For this he receives a receipt, and, whenever he desires to depart, on surrendering the receipt his money is returned to him. If at any time he proves an undesirable visitor, his money pays his passage and the authorities have only to place him on board an outgoing vessel, and the country is rid of him. It has been found that this arrangement prevents an influx of undesirable immigrants, and secures without expense the removal of the obnoxious. If any one becomes a permanent

resident, his forty dollars is considered only a proper contribution to the cost of improvements the benefit of which he enjoys.

If every visitor to our shores were required to deposit on arrival a hundred dollars, to be returned whenever he wished to leave, we should escape without trouble the element which now menaces, and have always at hand the means of returning all undesirable immigrants. The only possible objection can be that we should not thus make this the home of the oppressed of all nations. Two answers are ready for this objection. First, it is the evident duty of a country to protect itself rather than offer shelter to all comers. Secondly, it must be remembered that the countries of the Old World, almost without exception, have colonies to which they gladly would divert their surplus population. B.

THE PEOPLE NOT HOSTILE TO CIVIL-SERVICE REFORM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I was not a swift convert to the doctrine of civil-service reform, and even now I might draw the line up to which removals by an incoming Administration are justifiable beyond the point which most reformers would select; but I believe that the opposition to the adoption of the reform principle in making appointments is greatly exaggerated. The great mass of the people—even of intelligent and public-spirited people—take very little interest in the personal success of this or that applicant; but they are keenly alive to any increase of efficiency in the administration of an office. What percentage of the patrons of a post-office, for instance, care whether the postmaster be a Democrat or a Republican, so that his clerks are prompt and courteous, and the delivery of the mail be accurate and swift?

If my belief be correct, the application should be made by the appointing power. If the President should announce to-morrow that he would no longer consider the recommendations of Democratic committees as more influential than those of Republican committees in the appointment of postmasters, but would regard only the wishes of the constituency to be served and the records of the candidates as to business capacity, a great howl of complaint would go up from Democratic "workers," of course, and Flanagan's conundrum would be many times repeated; but the great mass of the Democratic party itself would make no complaint, and, after a couple of years, everybody would wonder how it was ever deemed possible to appoint postmasters after the old "spoils" principle.

The President and the Civil-Service Commissioners should not be too timid. Mr. Cleveland has done much already—more than any of his predecessors; the civil service was never so removed, as a whole, from active partisanship; but he might easily do more by putting his trust still more in the great mass of the people, who are now far from being animated by a spirit of bitterness towards political opponents, and, as I believe, ready to note and approve a marked advance in administration.

The absence of expression, on the part of the mass of the people, as to the matter of civil-service reform is a proof, it seems to me, rather of indifference as to the personal composition of the service than of opposition to the reform itself. In this light, this very silence is a powerful argument in favor of the view which I have advanced.

W. P. Beckwith.

Adams, Mass., January 3, 1887.

DOMESTIC SERVICE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent "A. S." in No. 1121 (December 23) gives as a remedy for inferior domestic service certain regulations to be established by the employer. While it is commonly admitted that the treatment of employers towards employed may be greatly improved, still it is not demonstrable that inefficient domestics are the result of this lack of wise treatment. People must adjust their actions to the class with which they deal. Many find from experience that indulging their hired girls, treating them with more than just kindness, has made them less willing to work, more apt to be discontented and unhappy. Therefore, until the "refined, intelligent" girls universally choose domestic service, and, under a lenient management, show a greater willingness to work, can your correspondent say with accuracy that through mild government ideal service is to be attained?

Any person in the employ of another must expect certain restrictions and hardships. The President of the United States does not find the word "servant hateful"; the gentleman, socially the equal of his employer, does not ask or expect to be treated other than as a servant. He has nobility enough to know that his worth is none the less assured if his master demands his "personal services." It is strange that intelligent and refined girls should find this galling to them, while intelligent and refined men do not find bitterness therein.

It is more easy to see that ideal service is to be reached by intelligent and refined girls seeking domestic service; meaning by these not girls with false pride and over-sensitive feeling, but girls with true refinement and active intelligence. Then, in the many cases where ladies are just and kind towards their servants, they will be appreciated, and in those cases where the employers have no love of humanity, the refined domestic will be a means of education to her employer.

E. V. P. M.

January 5, 1887.

LITERARY MORALITY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: On the very day when Mr. Benjamin's "Carey Bowdlerized" came to my notice, in the *Nation* of the 2d inst., I had been struggling with some troublesome passages in the 'Niebelungen Lied'—seeking the impossible in the form of a version that should fairly represent the Lied, and, at the same time, not offend American readers. I want a version not adapted to scholarly readers alone, but, like *Harper's Magazine*, suited to popular use, and fit to be laid on the family table, open to the boys and girls of all ages. Some light upon the phase of literary morality to which Mr. Benjamin called attention would just then have been specially helpful to me. But I found none, either in his opening question, or in his closing exclamation; and Mr. Palgrave's implied opinion, like Mr. Benjamin's own, fell far short of settling so grave a question.

Hundreds of teachers of English literature in America are either reading expurgated editions of the earlier writers with their classes, or apologizing for Chaucer and Shakspere and many others, by saying that the public morals of their day were so low that their writings gave no offence. The same excuse is surely due to all the great national epics, like the 'Iliad,' the 'Æneid,' and the 'Niebelungen Lied,' that have come out of the earlier and cruder civilizations. No doubt a more full and correct knowledge of the literature in its historic relations is gained through the use of the original texts in all their grossness. In those cases, however, where this is impracticable, as in most of our homes, in mixed classes, or where the pupils are in their teens, these great classics may be made available by the sacrifice of a small fraction of their value through slight omissions and alterations. Can a happy jingle atone for a lewd suggestion? That writer seems to me fortunate who, after a few centuries have made him anachronistic and ridiculous, finds a friend to throw a cloak upon his nakedness or deformity, and confer upon him the literary immortality to which he had every claim but one. Perhaps we owe a little dressing up to the old writers when we set them before a later generation with fashions that no merely poetic inspiration could anticipate. If, by the same act, we also meet an obligation to ourselves and to our children, and pay due respect to Christian civilization, we seem driven to a choice between expurgation and oblivion for many a valued classic.

Far be the day when American fathers need discourage reading in general on the part of their boys lest they be contaminated, as have some fathers in Germany, or when American mothers need restrict their unmarried daughters to a small portion of the literature read by other women, as is the fact in France. Some perils are inevitable; but let him be proclaimed an enemy of the republic who multiplies them! Even the public library, with all its marvellously increasing usefulness, brings poison to some minds. Thoughtful librarians, who find that Herrick is more read than the other British poets, and almost wholly by those who are least fit to profit by it, are heartily wishing it could be either "bowdlerized" or burned, provided no special restrictions may be put upon its circulation. Some safe way will here be found. Doubtless the publisher, after determining that his product is for popular rather than scholarly use, will recognize his interest and duty to make it decent, no less than to translate it out of a dead language into the vernacular. He will hardly ask if American readers have grown "too nice," but *how nice* they have grown, leaving it to the teachers of ethics and religion, when the people get over or under-nice, to set them right.

Close upon this follows the question whether art may properly suggest what is confessedly improper in language; but I only call attention to it as an issue soon to be met, and not necessarily to be decided on the precedent of art collections founded centuries ago. W. C. Sawyer.

Dresden, Saxony, December 23, 1886.

HISTORY AND THE GROUP SYSTEM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In quoting my article on "The Possible Limitations of the Elective System," from the December number of the *Andover Review*, you were prudent enough to pause at the right sentence. Had you gone one sentence further, you would have brought me the double mortification of seeing a blunder repeated. I stated that at Johns Hopkins University a "prospective lawyer" is forbidden Latin. He is not. On the contrary, every student pursuing the course there which fits for the law is obliged to read Tacitus and Livy. These authors are mentioned in the register under the heading of History, and reprehensibly escaped my notice.

I believe all the other exclusions mentioned exist. Prof. Adams, in his letter to you this week, points out that anybody may study as much history as he pleases outside his regular work, and also that a certain modicum of history is exacted before that work is begun. Both these statements are true and important, and so is a third statement—the only one made by me—that English history and American history enter as ingredients into but two of the seven groups of undergraduate study.—Respectfully yours,

G. H. Palmer.

Cambridge, January 7, 1887.

Notes.

HARPER & BROS. have nearly ready Dr. Franz von Reber's 'History of Mediæval Art,' translated by Joseph Thacher Clarke; 'Retrospection of America, 1797-1811,' by John Bernard, an English actor, edited from his MS. by Mrs. B. Bernard, with an introduction, notes and index by Laurence Hutton and Brander Matthews; 'Haifa, or Life in Modern Palestine,' by Laurence Oliphant, with an introduction by Chas. A. Dana; and 'A Tramp Trip: How to See Europe on Fifty Cents a Day,' by Lee Meriwether. In preparation are an 'Introduction to Psychological Theory,' by Borden P. Bowne, Professor of Philosophy in Boston University; 'Charles Reade: a Memoir,' edited by the Rev. Compton Reade and Chas. Luton Reade; and the second and last supplementary volume of McClintock and Strong's 'Cyclopædia of Biblical, Theological, and Ecclesiastical Literature,' making twelve volumes in all, and rounding out the twentieth year of publication.

Before the close of the present month G. P. Putnam's Sons expect to begin delivering to subscribers the first volume of Franklin's works, edited by Mr. John Bigelow. This edition embraces his private as well as his official and scientific correspondence, with much now printed for the first time, and also the unmutilated and correct version of the Autobiography. It will fill ten royal octavo volumes, uniform with Lodge's Hamilton, just published by the same firm, will not be stereotyped, and will be limited to 600 copies, a large part of which are already subscribed for. There will be several engravings on steel.

Thomas Whittaker issues this week Canon Luckock's 'The Bishops in the Tower: a Record of Stirring Events affecting the Church and Nonconformists from the Restoration to the Rebellion.'

A. D. F. Randolph & Co. will publish on February 1 the 'Life of James M. Hannington, First Bishop of Eastern Equatorial Africa,' by E. C. Dawson.

Rogers & Sherwood, 21 Barclay St., New York, will publish by subscription 'The History of the Confederate States Navy,' by J. Thomas Scharf of Baltimore, who writes, "not for pecuniary reward, . . . but from admiration of that service, of which I was a part." It will make one octavo volume of about 800 pages.

The issue of the first number of the *Journal of Morphology* (Boston: Ginn & Co.) has, by reason of a mechanical obstacle, been delayed till March.

'A Synopsis of the Nature and Effects of Alcohol and Narcotics,' by L. H. Luce, M.D., is announced by D. C. Heath & Co. It is intended for use in schools, directly, or through the teacher.

To describe or to praise Whitaker's Almanack to any one in quest of information concerning things British, is at the present day superfluous. That so much of the Empire could be condensed into such narrow bounds has always been a marvel of editing. The original size has at last been found quite inadequate, and has given way to a permanent enlargement to the extent of 160 pages. This compendium serves as an almanac in the ordinary sense, a great directory and statistical handbook, a statesman's year-book, etc., etc. For the Queen's Jubilee a succinct account of the principal events of her reign is given. A valuable abstract of Mr. Gladstone's Irish Government and Land Bills is added. And, for the rest, it may be said that anything sought for may be found in Whitaker, from lists of the peerage to members of Parliament, officers of the universities and colleges, colonial and foreign banks, hall marks on plate, volcanic eruptions of 1886, the year's weather, orders of chivalry, the English citizen's diary, and so forth without end. An index makes all this mass of intelligence readily accessible.

Cassell & Co. offer a prize of $25 to readers of their *Family Magazine* for the best practical paper on "The Domestic Service Difficulty in America," with suggestions for its solution—of no greater length than 2,000 to 3,000 words. The date for rendering these essays is March 1, 1887, on terms prescribed on page 448 of the last volume of the magazine.

Mr. C. D. Warner's 'Their Pilgrimage' (Harper & Bros.), which has been so welcome a feature of *Harper's* in the past year, is issued in a volume solidly bound in the old library style and of great typographical beauty. Mr. Reinhart's spirited and realistic illustrations, somewhat reduced to be accommodated to the page, are very attractive, and contribute to make an unusually handsome book. We have already commented upon the earlier chapters of the text; and the happy blending of travel and fiction which we looked forward to with confidence did, in fact, distinguish this story among the serials of the year. The appearance of the complete work allows one to appreciate better the wide area and the marked diversity of scene traversed, but the justice and delicacy of Mr. Warner's observations and the lightness of his manner are as noticeable on any page as in the whole. The rate of travel is perhaps too rapid for satisfaction; things are seen in haste and by glimpses, and of each watering place we have an outline sketch only. The idea was original and serviceable, but possibly fiction and travel, no matter how skilfully handled, are better apart.

In 'The Shakespearian Interpreter,' an address delivered by Dr. Rankin of Middlebury College, he pays a tribute to Mr. Hudson, the Shaksperian scholar, who was a graduate of the institution. The subject is really the interpreter of poetry in general, as if one should praise a man's profession instead of his work. Only a few paragraphs at the close are devoted to the critic personally. An examination and estimate of Hudson's real service to the study of Shakspere would be of use to his memory as well as to the public; but nothing of the sort is attempted in this memorial, though his work is very highly appraised in general terms.

We have already said our say, in the last volume of the *Action*, concerning Gogol's 'Âmes Mortes,' and should ere now have mentioned the translation, in two volumes, from the Russian by Isabel F. Hapgood ('Dead Souls,' T. Y. Crowell & Co.). Miss Hapgood's name is a guarantee of intelligent and faithful reproduction.

The English translation of 'Manon Lescaut' made by Arthur W. Gundry, and published in this city by F. T. Jones & Co., will, perhaps, only serve to increase the wonder that such a story should be a French classic—on the Anglo-Saxon assumption that nothing immoral or demoralizing, and unfit to be placed in the hands of children, could be deemed classical. The French style, we say, being abstracted, there remains only the story of a pair of worthless lives, conveying no useful lesson, and provocative of a false sentimentality. The book is handsomely printed, with plentiful illustrations from the French, kept within bounds.

Ginn & Co. have extended their series of "Classics for Children" with a second series of Hans Andersen's Fairy Tales, Scott's 'Ivanhoe,' and Miss Martineau's 'The Peasant and the Prince.' Likewise, the "Riverside Literature Series," issued monthly for schools by Houghton, Mifflin & Co., is increased by Franklin's 'Poor Richard's Almanac, and Other Papers,' with notes; and Part I. of Hawthorne's 'Tanglewood Tales.'

Shakspere's "As You Like It," Johnson's 'Journey to the Western Islands of Scotland,' 'Undine,' and Coleridge's 'Confessions of an Inquiring Spirit,' are the latest number in Prof. Morley's pocket "National Library" (Cassell & Co.).

The fourth series of the "Johns Hopkins Studies in Historical and Political Science" ends with a republication of Mr. Melville Egleston's paper upon "The Land System of the New England Colonies," first published in 1880. It makes a double number, 11 and 12. The importance of the subject and the excellence of the treatment warrant this method of giving it a larger circulation; but we are surprised that it was found possible, after six years of great activity in this field of research, to reissue it "without any change whatever from the original form." This we say not in the way of criticism, for we have not noticed any point in which revision would have improved the treatise; but as a testimonial to the solidity and thoroughness of the original work. This paper really belongs with the series of which it now forms a part, and affords a needed supplement and commentary to the special papers of Prof. Adams, Prof. Johnston, Dr. Channing, and others. The scope of the work can be judged by the titles of the nine sections into which it falls. These are: Original Sources of Title; Royal Grants; Grants of the Council for New England; Colonial Grants (three sections); and Land Communities (three sections). The details of these land communities—which, of course, were not family groups, and which yet were in many respects genuine communities—afford an interesting commentary and parallel to the communities of the early Germanic nations.

We have received a copy of a school edition of 'Cornelius Nepos,' edited by Karl Erbe, and published by Neff at Stuttgart. It has a large, handsome page, and serviceable notes at the foot of the page. The most distinctive feature of it is the illustrations, which are numerous, consisting of maps, portraits, coins, representations of armor, and other illustrations of ancient life, for the most part highly colored. The maps and plans are excellent, and so are many of the colored plates; the greater part of these, however, are on too small a scale and too inaccurate in delineation to be of much service. A portrait is good for nothing unless it really lets us know how a person looked, in feature and expression, as well as in general outline and bearing.

Prof. Francis W. Kelsey, in his edition of Cæsar's 'Gallic War' (Boston: John Allyn), has, like Erbe in the 'Nepos' just noticed, taken pains to illustrate the subject-matter of Cæsar's commentaries as well as his language. He gives six attractive plates representing Roman military works and implements of war, which, together with a chapter in the introduction on "The Roman Art of War in Cæsar's Time," will prove very helpful. The introduction contains also a sketch of Cæsar's life and character, and a chapter on "The Theatre of the Gallic War," with a brief account of the land, the peoples, and the history of Gaul. Especially noticeable are twelve good maps of battles, sieges, and campaigns, each of which occupies a page, and is conveniently placed just opposite the page of the text to be illustrated by it. Before the vocabulary are ten pages of well-selected Latin idioms and phrases, with their English equivalents. The notes are full and in general judicious, and altogether the edition is one to be welcomed.

The first number of *Murray's Magazine* comes to us from the International News Company. It appropriately starts off with a series of "Byroniana"—a poem, "Opening Lines to Lara," and some recollections of Mme. de Staël, written by Byron at Ravenna, August 4, 1821. It ends with the first part of a *précis* of Grant's autobiography by Matthew Arnold. The intervening arti-

cles, like "What is Germany About?" by George von Bunsen, are also attractive; but we may return to the number again.

The January *Book-buyer* (Chas. Scribner's Sons) contains the first likeness of "Uncle Remus" (Joel Chandler Harris) ever published.

A very great and equally welcome surprise is the revival of *Le Français*, under the editorship and business management of M. Jean de Peiffer, whose address is New England Conservatory of Music, Franklin Square, Boston. The proprietor and former editor, M. Jules Lévy, becomes a special editorial contributor, without pecuniary responsibility. We trust that this partnership is a guarantee of permanent success for the best French periodical ever founded in this country, and we are glad to renew our testimony to its special value as an adjunct to instruction in French, in schools or in private. Noteworthy in the January number is M. Lévy's skilful metrical translation of Whittier's stanzas on the Bartholdi statue.

The November number of the *Antiquary* opens with an agreeable article on "The Ancient Parish of Woking," by A. C. Bickley, which is continued in the December number. These papers, full of local detail, much of it of more than local interest, and told in a very interesting style, are a good example of the most useful work of this magazine. Next to this in order and in interest, in the November number, is Mr. C. E. Plumptre's paper on Lucilio Vanini, his life and philosophy, being the substance of a paper read in 1885 before the Aristotelian Society. This "martyr to the spirit of Rationalism" was burnt alive at Toulouse in 1619. Mr. Ordish's series upon the "London Theatres" treats of "The Fortune Playhouse" in November, and "The Red Bull" in December (with a curious cut). Another continued article (Nos. 2 and 3) is Mr. J. J. Foster's "On Some Miniature Painters and Enamellists who have flourished in England." In the December number is the third of Mr. J. H. Round's series of papers: "Is Mr. Freeman Accurate?" The inaccuracies pointed out in the present number seem to be on the whole the most serious detected by Mr. Round. They have reference to some Dorsetshire entries of Domesday Book, and to the imposition of Danegeld by the Conqueror; and in both cases the errors are certainly surprising. We look with interest for Mr. Freeman's defence; for, although a small matter in comparison with the great mass of his unquestioned learning, it is hard to see how the errors here pointed out can be explained.

Some useful suggestions can be got from the designs for book-cases which accompany the leading article in *Le Livre* for December; but, as a whole, the series is more fantastic than beautiful. M. L. Derôme tells of an anonymous and not very valuable work by Balzac, 'Le Code Conjugal,' and also throws a good deal of light and a little cold water on the "original edition" of "Ruy Blas" discovered by M. Jolly Bavoillot from his easy-chair in this city. Under the head of literary news will be found some interesting details concerning the regular photographic department now attached to the Bibliothèque Nationale and to the Library of the Arsenal, ready to meet the steady demand for permission to make facsimiles.

Among the announcements of new books to be published in Paris this winter is a volume by Leconte de Lisle, 'Poèmes Lyriques,' and a new volume of poems by M. Paul Bourget, of which the three books into which it is divided are called respectively *Hélène*, *Dalila*, *Antigone*. The novel of M. Bourget, which has been appearing in the *feuilleton* of the *Débats*, is now finished and will soon be published in a volume. It is called 'André Cornélis,' and it is a version, brought down into modern Parisian life, of the story of "Hamlet." During the winter two new works by André Theuriet will also appear, 'La Vie Rustique,' with illustrations by Léon Lhermitte, and a story of provincial family life with the promising title, 'Au Paradis des Enfants.'

The sum of about $2,000 for erecting a statue to François Arago, and collected for this purpose at the time of his death, thirty-two years ago, is in the hands of the Paris Academy of Sciences. Admiral Mouchez, director of the Paris Observatory, will receive additional subscriptions, and the Committee propose the early erection of the statue in the southern part of the meridian line passing through the Observatory, of which Arago was the director from 1811 to 1853.

The Pushkin celebration in 1880 formed an epoch in the study of that writer, and it may be said, without exaggeration, that his personal biography, as well as a reasonably adequate estimate of his historical significance, has only existed since that date. Bielinsky and his successors, including even Annenkoff, with his 'Materials,' were too nearly contemporaries of the poet to furnish full biographical and literary details, and to state properly the great historical fact of his appearance. Much work remained to be done, and a great deal of it was concentrated about 1880, in expectation of the literary triumph. Much also followed that event. All works previous to 1880 were subjected to unfriendly and suspicious oversight. The future historian and biographer of Pushkin will have at his disposal a vast mass of valuable material. One of his most invaluable aids will be V. I. Mezhoff's 'Pushkiniana. Bibliographical Index of Articles on the Life of Alexander Sergeivitch Pushkin, his Works, and the Productions of Literature and Art Evoked by Them.' It is published by the Imperial Alexander Lyceum, and is a volume of 400 pp., containing 4,587 items, with an index of names, objects, places, works and editions of Pushkin, and of translations into foreign languages; also, an index to miscellaneous publications and collections in which writings of Pushkin occur, as well as articles on his life and works. All journalistic literature from 1813 down to the present time has been examined for it.

Prof. Bonney of London received a short time ago from Sir Julius von Haast a small packet of volcanic dust from New Zealand, his examination of which he reports in a late number of *Nature*. The dust fell on June 10 of last year (the day of the Tarawera eruption) at Matakava, Hicks Bay, 115 miles from the scene of the eruption. Prof. Bonney describes the dust as being very fine, and of a dull, darkish gray color when regarded in the mass, but when examined in the microscope it may be divided into (1) bits of a more or less scoriaceous aspect, consisting of a somewhat brownish glass containing much disseminated ferrite, and (2) chips more or less transparent, generally not exceeding five-thousandths of an inch in diameter, and of all dimensions downwards to the finest dust. The majority of the latter are glass, commonly quite colorless, some of them containing bubbles, spherical, spheroidal, or more or less cylindrical, many of them showing a ridgy surface and evidently formed by the destruction of a very frothy pumice like that of Krakatoa. The results of Prof. Bonney's examination lead him to conclude that the dust is formed of material which was a glass wherein a porphyritic structure, on a large or a minute scale, was inconspicuous. Neither sulphur, pyrite, nor magnetite was noticed in a recognizable form.

—With the ninth volume, Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge brings to a close his laborious edition of the 'Works of Alexander Hamilton' (Putnams). It is wholly occupied with the 'Federalist,' as to the text of which Mr. Lodge has justly preferred the untouched original, and in numbering it followed the first edition of 1788. His annotations are few, and confined to the more significant changes made after the first publication. In the introduction he sets forth clearly the vexed question of authorship as between Hamilton, Madison, and Jay, and ends by expressing, undogmatically, a personal preference for Hamilton's claims over those of his associates. It is curious that the argument from internal evidence should be dismissed so easily. Take, for example, No. 54, which five of the Hamilton lists assign to Jay. It includes a defence of the slave-representation clause of the Constitution, and, whatever may be said of the style, its unmorality is quite consonant with that trait of Hamilton's which distinguishes him as a statesman. Of course Madison might equally have framed the apology put in the mouth of a Southerner. Jay, one thinks, an open opponent of slavery, would have been found, of choice, vindicating some less objectionable part of the compact; and, in fact, out of the five letters attributable to him, only one deals with a specific clause—that on treaty-making, naturally reserved for his pen, which had already devoted three letters to the general subject of foreign relations. Mr. Lodge is able to improve somewhat on Mr. Dawson's bibliography of the 'Federalist,' of which the most singular editions are certainly the French and the Portuguese. The appendix contains the Articles of Confederation, the Federal Constitution to date, a list of omitted letters already printed in the J. C. Hamilton edition of 1850, Fendall's index to the 'Federalist,' and a pretty large table of errata, mostly typographical. On the whole, the public is under decided obligations to Mr. Lodge and his publishers.

—The study of Browning continues to be prolific of books. 'Browning's Women,' by Mary E. Burt (Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co.), has a short introduction, in the nature of a card of recommendation written in haste, by Rev. E. E. Hale. The text is less analytic than descriptive, and, in fact, like much current Browning criticism, is largely a turning of the poems into prose. The author has independence and a touch of vivacity. She remarks that Balaustion is "a far closer portrait of a real American girl than our own literature affords"; and she strews her paraphrases with "sentiments" respecting the character and conduct of the women in question at the moment, which exhibit her stalwart convictions. Thus, of the woman in "Numpholeptos"—"She has heart enough, but she does not intend to give a brain in exchange for mere unreasoning affection"; or, in connection with Lady Carlisle, she says of womanly sacrifice in the Christian spirit: "There is a vast difference between dying to save a world of sinners to eternal life, and living to feed the selfishness of an unappreciative man, whose selfishness but grows the larger the more it is fed." So there is, no doubt. How far the womanly ideal in the nineteenth century exceeds that of the fourteenth, appears from her criticism of Beatrice meeting Dante—"standing unmoved with her eyes fast fixed on the eternal wheels. Instead of receiving him with the love that his life's devotion might seem to warrant, she proceeds at once to give him a lesson in astronomy, and her theories on the subject have since then all been proven false." Browning, she says, does things better; but after this curiously vapid deliverance, one is only surprised at the moderation of the remark, "I think the best critics of the day concede that Robert Browning is the only poet since Dante that has ever reached his altitude." After all, she is not sure that he has quite done justice to woman, and would not deny that there are grounds for "ominous

s of rebellion in Browning Sections" on this pic; but at least, she says, he "is certainly a ng way ahead of those men who are egotistic enough and comical enough to assign woman her sphere. In no place is man so ludicrous and amusing as when doing that." Our "Shakspere" must wait a little longer for his Mrs. Jameson. A second volume, 'An Introduction to the Study of Browning,' by Arthur Symons (Cassell & Co.), is exceptional in its class. Its prefatory essay is the work of a very ardent admirer; but the critic is not wholly swallowed up in the devotee, and the critic in this case has a clear head and some sense of the logic of poetry. He is, moreover, candid and reasonable, and if one differs from him in some of his judgments, one does so with respect. The body of his thin book is occupied with analyses, descriptions, paraphrases, etc., of the work of Browning in chronological order, and both the method employed and the limits observed are admirable. At the end are a bibliography and a reprint of early prefaces. This volume, with Mrs. Orr's excellent handbook (the treasury on which the lesser Browning "expositors" all draw), will afford sufficient aid for any Browning classes.

—Sir G. W. Cox, the well-known author of the 'History of Greece' and 'The Crusades,' has just added to the long list of books from his pen a work deserving much commendation, namely, 'A Concise History of England and the English People' (London: Joseph Hughes, 1887). Its main object is, in the words of the Preface, "to make as prominent as possible the personal career of the chief actors in the several parts of the great drama. The work is intended strictly as an introduction to a more continuous study of the subject; and the matter, it is hoped, has been so put as to awaken and call into action the reader's powers of thought and judgment. . . . These chapters may also, it is hoped, exhibit the unity of English history and the continuous and steady political growth of the people from the days of Aelle and Cerdic to our own, and leave the reader fully acquainted with the principles of English constitutional history." If "fairly well acquainted" be substituted in the last sentence for "fully acquainted," it may be said that the author has accomplished his purpose with much success. A commendable feature of the work is the judicious mixture of *Culturgeschichte* with external political history. Here and there the author briefly weighs the relative merits of original authorities, in order that the reader may obtain some conception of the canons of historical criticism—for example, in giving the stories of Vortigern and Rowena (p. 21), the Massacre of St. Brice (pp. 80-82), and the Parentage of Thomas Becket (pp. 197-198). The book contains only 527 small octavo pages, being much briefer than 'The Students' Hume,' and less than half as large as Green's 'Short History of the English People.' As a text-book for college use, it is in some respects superior to both of these, while its brevity and the absence of the usual concomitants of a text-book will commend it to those who wish hurriedly to refresh their minds on the salient points of English history. There is not a single map—a defect which ought to be remedied in a future edition.

—A correspondent writes us from Munich:

"At the Aspinwall sale of pictures, which took place at Chickering Hall last spring, Mr. L. A. Lanthier is said to have given $1,025 for Piloty's 'The Death of Wallenstein.' As the original painting is still one of the chief attractions of the New Pinakothek in Munich and the artist never duplicated it, the work bought by Mr. Lanthier must have been a copy. There are, however, only three copies, taken directly from the original, in existence. The first is a half-sized copy made in 1881 by Mr. Benjamin F. Landis, a young American artist residing in Munich, and sold to a Milanese banker. A second, somewhat larger, copy was made by Mr. Lederer for a gentleman in North Germany; and about two years ago a third, half-sized, copy was made by Mr. Landis for the Hon. Andrew D. White of Cornell University. But inasmuch as copies two and three are still in the possession of the persons who ordered them, the picture purchased by Mr. Lanthier must be Mr. Landis's first copy, or else, which is hardly probable, the copy of a copy. Mr. Landis is well known in Munich as an exceedingly clever and conscientious copyist, not only of the old masters, but also of the most famous modern painters; and the fact that one of his copies should have been sold as an original in New York at more than double the price he charged for it, or would now charge for making a similar work, is more creditable to his skill than it is to the honesty of the dealers or the knowledge and critical judgment of the connoisseurs. One of the principal reasons why many distinguished painters refuse to permit their pictures to be copied is the fear lest the copies should fall into the hands of American dealers, or, more frequently, of European dealers in America, and be palmed off on the ignorant or unwary as originals. Mr. Lanthier's experience at the Aspinwall sale would seem to show that this fear is not wholly unfounded."

—So far as the United States are concerned, the necrology of 1886 was chiefly marked by the number of Presidential candidates who, like ex-President Arthur, passed away. We include in the term both actual nominees like Gen. Hancock, Horatio Seymour, and Samuel J. Tilden, and also so narrow a miss as Charles Francis Adams, and those candidates *in petto* David Davis and Gen. Logan; the last having been besides a defeated nominee for the Vice-Presidency. A constructive Vice-President and even (for a day) President, David R. Atchison, of subsequent Border-Ruffian notoriety, may be ranged in the same category. John Kelly is associated with the foregoing as an unsuccessful President-maker or unmaker. In the corresponding high places of the world, King Ludwig of Bavaria is the one sovereign whom death claimed. Some statesmen—and one, at least, eminent—we have already enumerated. Of high rank abroad were Beust, Minghetti, the Comte de Falloux; and mentionable also are Server Pasha and W. E. Forster. Paul Bert we had better class among the scientists, where his title will not be disputed. Beside him let us name Theodor von Oppolzer, the astronomer, and the Nestor of American naturalists, Isaac Lea. The adventurous Hobart Pasha and the other chief military names recall our civil war: Hancock and Logan, as above, with Gen. David Hunter, Gen. Geo. H. Gordon, and Loring Pasha. Art has been deprived of Paul Baudry, K. Daubigny, Édouard Frère, Meyer "von Bremen," Carl Piloty, A. B. Durand, among the painters—the sole American on the list being also an honored name among our native engravers on steel; Léon Gaucherel, the etcher; Randolph Caldecott, a versatile artist; our sculptor, H. K. Brown, and admirable architects, J. Wrey Mould and H. H. Richardson, with their English confrère, James Fergusson; our art student and critic, Charles C. Perkins and Earl Shinn. In music, Liszt's name overtops all others.

—The poets for whom the past year was their last were Victor von Scheffel, Sir Henry Taylor, Sir Samuel Ferguson, Dean Trench, and our Paul Hayne—a wide range of talent, achievement, and distinction. The list of historians is perhaps more brilliant, headed as it is by the veteran Ranke, and including Waitz, Duncker, Wilhelm Scherer, Julian Schmidt, Armand Baschet, Sir Erskine May. Brief but shining is the list of philologians that consists of Madvig, the first Latinist of the age, and Leopold Zunz, a giant in the field of Hebrew criticism. We have already overlapped the vague territory of "literature," which yet yields us at one extreme "Ned Buntline" (Edward Judson), at another the editor and commentator of Shakspere, Henry N. Hudson, and joins with them Sheldon Amos, the publicist, John Esten Cooke, the novelist, or John Russell Bartlett, author of much besides his 'Dictionary of Americanisms'; and should not be allowed to exclude that rare scholar if too infrequent writer, E. W. Gurney. J. Hetzel, an author ("P. J. Stahl") of conspicuous merit, is a connecting link between that craft and the publishers, of whom Sampson Low, J. B. Lippincott, and D. Van Nostrand were also withdrawn from their labors. Henry Stevens "of Vermont," again, binds the publishers to the librarians, and here a bright example was extinguished in the person of the learned and amiable Henry Bradshaw, of Cambridge University. By himself we mention Alexander Ostrovski, the popular Russian dramatist; and our list is now dwindling to individual representatives—such as F. von Tschudi, the South American traveller; or R. R. Madden, the Irish philanthropist; or J. B. Gough, the unparalleled temperance orator; or Austin Flint, the good physician; or William Hunter, the pillar of the Department of State when all around was "rotating in office"; or that other pillar, on whom the Knights of Labor fell and were pulverized, H. M. Hoxie; or Edgar Bauer, the German political agitator; or John Humphrey Noyes, founder of the Oneida Community, and memorable illustration of the capacity of New England to breed religious fanatics; or Richard M. Hoe, associated with the enormous advance in the power of the press and the popularization of literature in all its forms; or, finally, of that skilled manipulator and inventive genius, Joseph Albert, pioneer in those various forms of gelatine printing which have revolutionized the art of photography and done wonders for book illustration.

—The opening and principal paper of the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for December is "The Position of Dr. Emin Bey," by R. W. Felkin, M.D., his friend and correspondent. Dr. Schnitzler (Emin Bey) is one of Gen. Gordon's officers, having been for the past twelve years connected with the Egyptian Equatorial Provinces, for the first four as Surgeon-General and since 1878 as Governor. He is described as a remarkable linguist, with great scientific attainments, as well as showing "wonderful ability in dealing with the natives." When he assumed the government, only a belt of land along the Nile was under control, and there was an annual deficit of £38,000. In three years the whole province, nearly as large as Europe, with a population of 6,000,000, had been reduced to order, and he had a surplus of £8,000, obtained "by the practice of rigid economy and the suppression of abuses." He has constructed roads, established a post between the forty stations, and taught the people weaving and the cultivation of cotton, coffee, rice, indigo, and wheat. Since 1883 he has been practically cut off from the world, having been compelled by repeated attacks of the Mahdi's forces to abandon all his stations except those on the Nile from Lado to Lake Albert. He is said still to have some 2,000 soldiers with him, out of a former 6,000, all negroes. Of the bravery and endurance of these men under "incredible privations and sufferings" he speaks in the highest terms, saying, in one of his letters recently received, that these events have proved to him "that the black race is in valor and courage inferior to no other, while in devotion and self-denial it is superior to many." His present situation is very precarious, as his ammunition is probably exhausted and his escape to the south is cut off by the defeat and death last spring of his ally, the King of the Unyoro, by the murderer of Bishop Hannington, the King of the Uganda. But if he had had any intention of escaping, he has given this up, as the last letter received from

him, dated July 7, 1886, says, "I have come to the determination to hold out here with my people." From this letter it also appears that he continues his work of instructing the people of the various stations still in his possession in manufactures and agriculture, besides adding largely to his scientific collections. Dr. Felkin discusses the various routes proposed for the relief expedition. These are four in number, the most direct of which is through Masai Land, and would take at least four to five months to reach Emin Bey after leaving Zanzibar. This route, as well as the one proposed by Stanley by way of the Victoria Nyanza and Uganda, he objects to, on the ground that the approach of an armed expedition to this latter country would almost certainly lead to a determined resistance, as well as the murder of the captive missionaries. His preference (and it should be remembered that he writes with a personal knowledge of the country) is for a more southern and western route, by which all danger of contact with the hostile king could be avoided. The German appointee of Gordon pays in his correspondence a glowing tribute to his chief. Gordon thus refers to him, a year earlier, in his journal: "The other day he called the Doctor (who, by the way, is a German, and who, now professing the Mussulman religion, pretends to me that he is an Arab by birth and religion. Emin Effendi is his name in Arabic). Well, Mtesa sent for him, etc., etc."

SEELEY'S NAPOLEON.

A Short History of Napoleon the First. By John Robert Seeley, London: Seeley & Co.; Boston: Roberts Bros.

PROF. SEELEY is an eminent teacher of history; he is hardly an historian. He cannot rank with Macaulay, with Carlyle, with Gardiner, or with Freeman. He is not a philosophical thinker; no one would dream of placing him by the side, for example, of John Stuart Mill. He is not a critic of the first class, such as Matthew Arnold or Swinburne. He does not possess a style of the first order: he cannot for a moment compare—to confine ourselves to his contemporaries—with Goldwin Smith or with Maine. For all this, his writings exert wide and deserved influence. If we seek for the source of his power we can do nothing better than study with care his 'Short History of Napoleon.' The book betrays in a moment the nature and limits of Prof. Seeley's strength. He is without a rival in handling the paradox of commonplace. His essential ideas are notions which, be they false or true, are the property of the world. His mode of stating them is the manner of a man who maintains powerfully a disputed thesis. Hence flows a double advantage: our author's teaching is accepted because it coincides with current opinion, while his teaching excites attention because it has the air of novelty. Nor in all this is there the least affectation. Prof. Seeley is a most sincere writer. His ideas, we take it, are his own, for he has thought them out for himself, but they are the ideas of a great number of persons besides Prof. Seeley. His presentation of them is forcible and makes an impression, and has impressed Prof. Seeley himself before it impresses his readers. He is a dupe to his own art. He places received notions in a rather new light, or, more strictly, expresses them in a new form, and makes others believe, because he believes himself, that he has propounded new truths.

Let any critic who doubts this analysis of the substance and manner of Prof. Seeley's teaching, weigh well the paragraphs which conclude his estimate of Napoleon's place in history:

"When," he writes, "we review the career of Frederick the Great, we cannot refrain, however severely we may judge his crimes, from reflecting that, after all, his monument is modern Germany. That solid structure remains to honor the workman who did so much to build it. It is, in the main, just such a structure as Frederick would have desired to see, as he intended to found. For Napoleon, too, it may be said that modern France, in its internal constitution, is his monument. Its institutions are in the main the work of his reign. But this is the monument of that earlier Napoleon who was the child of his age. The Napoleon who was *himself*, who executed his iron plans with almost unlimited power, has no monument. All that he built, at such a cost of blood and tears, was swept away before he himself ended his short life."

Let our supposed critic further, when he has read these paragraphs, reflect that they conclude, and, as it were, sum up an elaborate estimate of the most conspicuous personality at a great crisis of the world's history, and then consider whether the Regius Professor of Modern History is doing anything better than repeat in a forcible style the traditional English view of the greatest among England's enemies. Seeley's verdict on Napoleon is in effect that Napoleon himself achieved nothing. Of his works, some, indeed, live after him, but these are the monument of the Napoleon who was the child of his age, and ought not therefore to be put down to his credit. The works which were his own perished at his death. All that he really achieved, therefore, was evil, and, like most things evil—according, at any rate, to received ideas—perishable.

Nor let it be supposed that we do our author injustice in taking the last paragraphs of his book as samples of the whole. No doubt it is his intention to give a fair estimate of Napoleon, but there is not a single chapter of criticism which does not in some way or other impugn the Emperor's title to fame. His rise to power, we are taught, is nothing extraordinary, because the Revolution had opened a career for every one, and some one of low origin was certain to gain supreme authority. His conquests, it is intimated, were less marvellous than they appear, because Napoleon had in his hands the absolute control of an instrument for war such as has never fallen within the grasp of any other commander. The French armies were, when he took them in hand, a military instrument of such efficiency and potency as we shall not find again if we search the whole of history, and Napoleon controlled this instrument more absolutely than any other leader has ever controlled the forces at his command. His invincibility is itself nothing better than a received fiction; his failures were at least as great as his successes. Nor can his performances boast originality. "In the quality as well as in the quantity of his performance we may trace the working of circumstances. By circumstances he was shaped as well as favored." His policy itself, and especially his hostility to England, was simply the policy of the old French Foreign Office designed on a gigantic scale and put into effect with stupendous energy; and this traditional enmity, which possessed not even the merit of originality, was, according to Prof. Seeley, at once the explanation of Napoleon's most inexplicable acts and the cause of his easily avoidable ruin. Napoleon's very wickedness bears about it, according to his critic, an air of plagiarism: his lawlessness is an imitation of Frederick, or else the common characteristic of all revolutionary adventurers.

No doubt Prof. Seeley inserts here and there throughout his criticism saving clauses, which suggest that perhaps he himself suspects that you have hardly accounted for a great man's career by enumerating all the qualities in which he was not specially great, or at any rate not specially original. Cromwell resembled in many points scores of Puritan soldiers, and this resemblance was itself, to a certain degree, a source of power; but it is because Cromwell p[ossessed] some gift not to be found in the troopers or even in the officers with whom he took [counsel.] that Cromwell became Lord Protector. Napoleon shared many of the vices of the Jacobin to whom he originally belonged; his mere military genius may not, it is possible, have surpassed that of Moreau. But Robespierre perished on the scaffold amid universal execration; Moreau effected nothing as a politician, and, by joining the enemies of his country, cast on his own reputation a slur more permanent than could be branded upon it by the jealousy and injustice of his rival. Napoleon ruled France with such success that thirty-five years after Waterloo his traditionary fame reëstablished the Empire. We may feel absolutely sure that such success arose, in part at least, from the fact that there is to be found in Napoleon some quality not to be found in Robespierre, or Moreau, or a score of other competitors who started in the race for power with at least as fair chances as Napoleon Bonaparte.

We suspect that Prof. Seeley, if hard pressed, would reply that this peculiar quality is to be found in Napoleon's special unscrupulosity, and, let us add, special selfishness. He was as daring as Danton, and dared all not that France might be free, but for the sake of a much more attainable object—that is, for the sake of making Napoleon ruler of France. However this be, one thing is clear, Prof. Seeley's view of Napoleon is the view, and no other, which has been handed down to us from the generation of Englishmen who shared the sacrifices and witnessed the vicissitudes of the great war. It is, as we have said, the traditional English view, formed by English opinion, of the great enemy of England. Now the point on which we wish to insist is that this received view, which has been revived, confirmed, and restated by Lanfrey, is all that Prof. Seeley has to contribute towards our understanding of one of the most singular characters that ever appeared on the stage of history; and that this piece of splendid commonplace is put forward as though it were a new analysis of Napoleon's character. Prof. Seeley warns us that "to find a measure for great men—that is, men whose energy of action and whose sphere of action have been exceptional—is much more difficult than is usually supposed"; and that the difficulty is specially great in the case of Napoleon, as may be judged from the wide divergence in the estimates whether of historians such as Thiers on the one side and Lanfrey on the other, or of intelligent and impartial contemporaries, such as Goethe on the one hand and Jefferson or Southey on the other. Prof. Seeley tells us that he proposes "to inquire how much and in what manner Napoleon was favored and shaped by circumstances, and afterwards to consider how much remains to be explained by personal idiosyncrasy." Our hopes are raised high. We expect a new portrait of one of the most singular among the world's heroes. Prof. Seeley, when he draws aside the curtain, bids us treat as an adequate likeness the old and well-worn portrait or caricature of the "Corsican usurper," which for now well-nigh a century has been known to all Englishmen from their childhood. Never, surely, did any author show greater confidence in the paradox of commonplace.

CARLYLE'S EARLY LETTERS.

Early Letters of Thomas Carlyle. Edited by Charles Eliot Norton. 1814-1826. Macmillan & Co. 1886.

THE literary handling of the mortal career of Thomas Carlyle has exhibited all the faults of which biography is capable. It has long been understood that very few men can write their

with veracity. Autobiographies are ...ful because they exhibit something of ...al charm or make tacit confession of weak... and singularities, as a genuine, sincere, vigo... character does in his real human intercourse; ...f they do not serve in the place of formal and impartial narrative of events and the view of personality from the outside. A man in the course of his life suffers many changes; his intellectual and frequently his moral point of view varies, and with each decade his past takes on a new perspective; he can never reproduce in imagination, still less in memory, what he was as he was; his identity, to risk a paradox, is self-effacing. Carlyle, in writing his Reminiscences, was peculiarly at a disadvantage; he was in a mood of suffering, and he saw his past through the cloud of recent bereavement, which distorted its elements. His genius itself, so powerfully imaginative, and his emotion, which seems to have deprived him of the saving faculty of humor in some portions of his subject, were both against him; and, besides, he was an old man. Of the utmost value in the impersonal parts and of great moral interest in all that concerns himself (so far as his words are the judgment passed by a man upon his deeds at the close of his career), his Autobiography is but a small part of the material for his Life, and is directly of worth for that purpose only as it is supported by the day-to-day record of documents, by the observation of others, and by his own books. It was necessary that some one else should undertake the task of examining and reducing the copious materials which were in existence for a full biography.

Carlyle was scarcely more fortunate in his choice of one to intrust this labor to than he was in his selection of himself as the scribe of his works and days. Froude, if one considers only the judgment of the man, showed himself lacking not only in reticence and tact, but in any proper understanding of the nature of the Carlyles. This was a "grievous fault," and fatal to his success in the mere capacity of biographer. The trouble is not so much that he was indiscreet, and told more of the truth than good taste and friendly devotion to a friend's better self would warrant; but he made his blabbing disclosures without right discrimination, and so presented and arranged the facts, so moulded them with his own mistaken conceptions, and colored them with what is essentially prejudice, that they served, no otherwise than as did Carlyle's own autobiographical writings, to give wrong impressions. The facts are thrown into confusion by the brooding of Carlyle in the one case and the perversion of Froude in the other.

So much has been clear this long time, but it now appears that Froude was guilty of gross negligence in his editorial work, as has been brought out by the comparison of the original materials with his printed transcripts; and he is further charged with warping the narrative by giving to certain parts of it a bias unfavorable to the Carlyles, in the face of the evidence before him. The only inference to be drawn is, that he was equally as careless in reading and sifting the original manuscripts as he was in attending to their correct publication. The case against him is already strong enough to convict. It is Carlyle, however, and not Froude for whom the world feels concern. Both the Autobiography and the authorized Life have elements of untrustworthiness in them as records of the exact truth of events and as portrayals of characters. Under the circumstances, what is there left for a friend of Carlyle who feels the injustice of this state of the case to the principals involved, except to publish faithfully such of the originals as may give to the public opportunity to correct, at first hand, the opinions formed on the grounds of Carlyle's confessions and Froude's narrative?

This is the task which Prof. Norton has charged himself with, and the first volume of his work is before us. He attempts no narrative; the time has gone by for that. He merely prints *seriatim* letters of Carlyle from his nineteenth to his thirty-first year, up to the day of his marriage to Jane Welsh, and includes a few letters to Carlyle which are essentially illustrative of the changing situation. He adds occasionally a note of elucidation, and at the end devotes a brief appendix to the more important misstatements of Froude. The plan of the work is thus the same as that of the Emerson-Carlyle correspondence, previously edited by him. The substance, one need not say, is vastly different. These are the letters of a youth to two or three college mates, to his parents and brothers, and to the young lady whom he was destined to marry. They are the expression of a dutiful son and brother and of an interested friend, in regard to matters of family concern, his own health, his studies, pursuits, prospects; they are no more than this, for even in those letters to Jane Welsh which Prof. Norton has thought it not unbecoming to publish, with one exception, Carlyle is the student and not distinctly the lover. He was engaged during these years either in teaching school or in private tutoring, with literature in the shape of hackwork slowly taking more and more of his time to its special service, until in the last year he was fully in the harness as a professional translator. It is not to be expected that he would have much of consequence to communicate, and, so far as intrinsic worth goes, we must frankly say there is little in these epistles that need detain the attention of men. It is singular that there should be so slight intimation of any formed opinions; the young Edinburgher, periodically returning to the folks at home, read a great deal and thought about it, estimated it, wrote it out in the way of biography and translation, but had practically nothing of his own to say; or at any rate he did not intrust his meditations to letters. His mind was not developed. Carlyle, in the thoughts by which the world knows him, was not there.

What was there, however, was Carlyle's temperament. The native endowment of the youth stands out all the clearer because unconfused with any opinions. What this was is well enough understood: a quick eye for the oddities of human nature; a sound judgment of men, seemingly intuitive in its operation, but owing much to his inherited moral perceptiveness; ready intelligence, and a susceptibility to the poetic and the grotesque in man's life, so fruitful in later years; and, above all, the moral sense which was the main feeder of his genius. These things are to be felt continuously in his letters. Something of his style is also observable—lacking in brilliancy and power, but essentially there. For the rest, the only other thing which belongs to the indubitable Carlyle of fame is his dyspepsia. He writes of it from the first with an objurgatory vigor which has more of the distinct prophecy of his future in it than anything else to be found in the volume; and it is abundantly manifest, whether altogether because of this early and painful infliction or not, that he was an irritable person to live with, sharp-spoken, querulous, and hard-grained. He was proud toward the world, discontented, and ambitious; his own opinion of himself, happily justified by the event, was fully sufficient to sustain him in times of difficulty and struggle of heart and hope, and he was fully conscious of his superiority at all points.

The portion of the volume which is occupied with his letters to his parents, and their replies, is by far the most interesting; but less on Carlyle's account than as a picture of Scotch life. This special value was one reason why Prof. Norton included so large a number of the family letters, as he says in his preface. The letters to Miss Welsh are mostly letters of advice respecting composition, without any marked character, and those of them which are not in the vein of "the guide, philosopher, and friend" are not very significant. The total value of the collection, consequently, is, as has been said, not great in itself. A hard-headed young Scotchman, well-met among his few friends, attached to his kin, and bound to get on by literature in which he had the wit to find the best—such was Carlyle from the close of his boyhood to his marriage in full manhood. His character, had he ended then, would have been nothing to the world, and we suspect that the story of these twelve years will be oftener used to illustrate the late maturing of a strong genius than as any other kind of a proof-text.

The points in which the story, here spread before the reader in the original documents, differs from the account rendered by Froude in his own words, necessarily relate to the nature and relations of a few persons. They have no immediate intellectual interest; in fact, the whole subject belongs in the region of world gossip, which differs from village gossip only in the eminence of the persons involved. It was inevitable, after Froude's publication, but it was no less unfortunate, that public attention should be diverted from the intellectual history of Carlyle to the special point whether he treated his wife well. The moral ideals of Carlyle were neglected, the history of their genesis and development fell far into the background, and the question now asked was, What was his own moral practice in daily life? It is a pertinent inquiry in the cases of all men who assume to be public teachers; it is often a useful one. But in Carlyle's case it is complicated by the fact that, in the particulars in which it is commonly held that he failed of manliness, he seems to have been unconscious of his errors at the time of committing them. Defects of nature, rather than dereliction of duty, are brought out in his family history; he was hard, selfish, and dull in some matters, but he was too much absorbed in his own life to be habitually conscious of these faults, though he was aware of them momentarily from time to time. His wrong-doing in these respects began early. He indulged his weaknesses of temper amid his own people, and often expressed contrition in words which plainly apply, not to single acts, but to a general course of conduct.

The main question, however, in these early years of his life concerns the position of Edward Irving in the group, and the circumstances which led to Carlyle's engagement with Miss Welsh and the feelings which the lovers entertained towards each other. Froude inspires the belief that Miss Welsh's attachment to Irving was of a deep and lasting kind, and that it remained in her heart in the state of a blighted affection. This circumstance, he says, Carlyle did not realize. Secondly, he intimates that the marriage was brought to pass by the interference of others, whose action at least hastened it; that Carlyle exhibited a selfish temper in the preliminary arrangements for a home, and showed himself in other ways something less than a man of sense and breeding. Prof. Norton controverts Froude on all these points, which he treats of in his appendix. The evidence, so far as it is contained in the Carlyle love-letters, is not before the public: but Prof. Norton, while withholding it, clearly states that in his opinion this correspondence affords a view of Carlyle's and Jane Welsh's characters and mutual relations "different both in particulars and general effect from that given by Mr. Froude." So far as Irving is involved, Carlyle, while mentioning him with friendliness, has a clear eye for his foolishness, as he thinks it; and Miss Welsh, Prof. Norton says, came to see "his essential weakness—his vanity, his mawkish sen-

timentality, his self-deception, his extravagance verging to cant in matters of religion." This seems to put an end to any notion that in her wedded life she compared her lot with Carlyle to "what might have been."

To follow into detail the other minor matters would carry us too far. It appears, from Prof. Norton's account, that Froude has misstated the part taken by Mrs. Montague in the affairs of the lovers; that both of them were equally disposed at first to be content with an affection short of the point of marriage; and that, in the practical arrangements looking to their union, Carlyle's selfishness is not to be discerned, and more especially that Miss Welsh did not perceive any such defect in him, as Froude alleges, but on the contrary expressed her entire faith in him, regard for him, and the devotedness that belongs to the relation she was about to assume towards him. It is too soon to judge of the effect of these letters and controversial notes upon Carlyle's reputation. This present volume covers but a brief period; it remains to be seen whether Froude has misrepresented the wedded life, as he has the years before marriage. We have always regretted the labored discussion of the intimate domestic life of the Carlyles; the necessity to go over such ground again makes the matter doubly unfortunate. Yet Carlyle is entitled to the benefit of all that can be adduced in his behalf, and, at the least, should have the case stated exactly. Prof. Norton has nothing more in mind than to exhibit the papers in the simplest state, and to allow them to do the justice to Carlyle which his biographer, by his misinterpretations and inaccuracies, denied. This is the labor of a friend, and the end and issue of it will be awaited with interest.

BANCROFT'S CONQUEST OF CALIFORNIA.

California. Vol. V. 1846–48. [History of the Pacific States of North America. By Hubert Howe Bancroft. Vol. XVII.] San Francisco: The History Company. 1886.

THE changed name of the publishing firm by which this volume is issued indicates of itself that the fortunes of Mr. Bancroft's enterprise have been subject to some recent calamity. Our readers, however, will no longer need to be reminded afresh that a severe loss by fire threatened, not long since, to put an end to Mr. Bancroft's entire series of Pacific Coast Histories, and that, with commendable energy, the injured firm not only managed to reorganize for the purpose of continuing the publication of the histories, but also succeeded in permitting only the slightest delay to intervene before the appearance of the present volume. This successful resistance to misfortune is certainly a matter for general congratulation.

Previous reviews have prepared our readers to expect much of this crowning volume of the early California series. We think that there will be no disappointment with the book as published. The same hand is at work here as in previous volumes of the 'California.' Whose hand it is, we are still permitted to conjecture. But we have the sense that a good piece of work has been done once for all. There must be supplementary discussions of many of the incidents here narrated, but the main story has now been authoritatively told.

The history of the seizure of so considerable a territory as California has, of course, a natural interest for such inquiring Americans as wish to understand all the significant episodes of their country's annals. The interest of the story is, however, heightened by the fact that the tale has often been grossly misrepresented, partly for romantic, but largely for personal reasons. Those who took part in the affair had apparently no idea of any historical hereafter when what they did would not only be told in their own glowing way, but also retold truthfully, and judged on its merits. There is an air of utter irresponsibility pervading the whole conduct of the seizure. The Californians were a far-off and degraded people, with no special rights in their own land, and, above all, with no power to make such rights as they had in any wise obvious to the world. Such was the feeling of Capt. Frémont, of Lieut. Gillespie, of Com. Stockton, and of most of the other officers who had a share in the conquest. That these *rancheros* would ever make manifest to the world how their rights had been abused, the heroes of our conquering host of trappers and marines seem never to have imagined. But now at last the case of the Californians is clearly stated by a writer from among the nation of the captors; and what José Castro rightly called at the time the "despicable policy" of certain agents of the American Government, is very clearly exposed. It does, to be sure, little good to lament such long-past wrongs, unless there is some chance that we may avoid similar wrongs in the future. But from this disagreeable tale of boastful and irresponsible aggression, and of petty tyranny, we may at all events learn just what an obtrusive policy towards our Spanish-American neighbors means, and always will mean. In California the mischief was done on a small scale; yet for that not our policy, but the thinness of the population may be thanked. In future we may some time take a fancy to conquer some other California. Before we do so, let us read this story once more, and remember of what stuff such aggressions are made.

The new sources used in this volume include the papers of Consul Larkin, frequently cited, indeed, in the earlier volumes, but here of the very greatest importance. The mission of Gillespie to Frémont—a mission discussed in our previous review of Hittell's 'California'—is now explained in the light of the original despatch brought by Gillespie to Larkin; and the Frémont legend grows somewhat insignificant beside the facts. Bancroft's summary, in chapter iv, page 77 *sq.*, of the "causes of the settlers' revolt," is pretty certainly substantially accurate, although the argument concerning the motives of Frémont himself (p. 89) will seem to the unprepared reader a little less convincing than it should seem, because it is rather too brief for so complex a subject matter. Frémont was undoubtedly, as Bancroft says, "engaged in a revolutionary movement, not in accordance with, but in disobedience of, his orders from Washington." And Bancroft has no insufficient reasons for saying this. Yet the general reader, especially if the Frémont legend has become familiar to him by reason of its frequent repetition in popular histories, will hesitate to accept this statement as sufficiently warranted by the brief summary of the evidence here given. After all, however, the best cure or belief in a legend is the presence of some good sense in the reader's mind; and we heap up evidence in vain for those who are born to believe fables, and to misapprehend historical truth.

Another most amusing group of popular tales, however, has clustered about the story of Commodore Sloat's raising of the flag at Monterey, July 7, 1846. This act, wherewith began our legal possession of the romantic golden land, is a fit nucleus for legends. Yearly such are repeated at California pioneer celebrations. The chances are that they will never be forgotten. Do not all the old pioneers know about them? Thus, for instance, everybody knows about Sloat's race with the wicked English Admiral, from whom he snatched California just in time. Exactly how he came to win the race, is not always so clear, because too many stories exist concerning that episode. They are all equally well founded, but they cannot all be true at once. Sloat was at Mazatlan until the beginning of June, 1846. By this time he had heard enough of the hostilities on the Rio Grande to make him feel sure that, under his orders, he must set sail for California and seize the ports. Accordingly he did set sail, and was followed not long after by Admiral Seymour in the English ship *Collingwood*. Seymour reached Monterey nine days after the seizure of the town. He remained in the harbor for a week, showed no signs of vexation at the news of the conquest, and was socially on the best of terms with Sloat's officers during this period. Then he set sail for the Sandwich Islands. So much sober history knows. The legends, however, are aware that Sloat and Seymour had both long been equally anxious for news of the hostilities on the Rio Grande, before setting sail from Mazatlan, and that it was Sloat's superior command of secret advices which finally enabled him to outwit the Admiral. Seymour, on his part, as these stories have it, had strained every nerve to get the best of Sloat. That he was defeated in the race for information and in the subsequent race for Monterey depended on various things. Once, for instance, at the critical moment, he did temporarily get the better of Sloat in the matter of information. But thereupon Sloat sent his own son to dine on the English vessel at the Admiral's table. The Englishmen, as was their nature, drank too much champagne; and so the bold young American learned all that they could tell him. Sloat acted at once, and set sail before the Englishmen had time to recover from the effects of that disastrous dinner. And thus we won the golden land!

Of course, this account (which, by the way, Mr. Bancroft has not repeated, although we understand it to be the official legend among a certain group of pioneers) is not the only version of such a glorious story. Quite different reasons why Sloat was able to outwit the Englishmen are current, in accounts summarized from various equally valuable sources in the foot-note to p. 211 of the volume before us. But, as appears from facts which Mr. Bancroft (p. 203) makes public for the first time from the Larkin papers, Sloat actually knew of the hostilities on the Rio Grande as early as May 17, three weeks before he set sail from Mazatlan. At that time already, as Sloat shows by a "strictly confidential" letter to Larkin, he had resolved, under his instructions, to leave Mazatlan at once for the California coast. The subsequent struggle for the earliest information concerning the first hostilities, the heroic incident of the champagne dinner, and all the other exploits of that legendary time thus lose their significance at one unhappy stroke. We may, indeed, ask ourselves, Why then did Sloat still delay so long? But we shall be sure, at all events, that he could not have been passing those three weeks in an hourly struggle to outwit the dreaded Englishmen. Either he was playing no game against them at all, or he spent three weeks in making them a present of the game.

But in fact the whole legend about the hostile English designs upon California is now utterly ruined. On page 208, *sq.*, Mr. Bancroft's discussion of the topic is quite sufficient to make the matter clear to intelligent students. We miss in it one important item only of the evidence, namely: if there were nothing else known about the matter, would it not be clear that Sir Robert Peel's Cabinet was the last one to engage in such an aggression as the one that the legendary account of Admiral Seymour's instructions attributes to the English Government of the day? Mr. Bancroft refers to the conversation in Parliament in August, 1846, between Bentinck and Disraeli on the one side, and Palmerston on the other. In this conversa-

tion enough appears to make it tolerably sure that the English Government had had no hostile designs upon California. But Mr. Bancroft's account does not point out what is equally significant, namely, that not Lord Palmerston, but his predecessor, must have given Seymour instructions, if any were given, with reference to California. Quite impossible, nevertheless, is the supposition that Peel's Government, which so long and carefully sought every chance to avoid coming to blows about Oregon, should at that very moment have been meditating the deep laid scheme which the brave son of Commodore Sloat wrested from the lips of the nefarious and abject Englishmen, while he enjoyed their hospitality at the legendary dinner.

We hasten to point out, further, in the briefest manner, a few of the more significant novelties in the rest of this volume. In the story of Stockton's rule, Mr. Bancroft presents (p. 271) conclusive evidence that Larkin, acting in his character as confidential agent of our Government, undertook on Stockton's behalf to make peaceful overtures to Castro in the South, and that these overtures were the occasion for Castro's known attempt, August 7, to enter into negotiations with Stockton. Stockton's insolent rejection of Castro's offer at the time when it was made, appears in this way in a worse light than ever before. On page 344, *sq.*, is given what may be called the first authentic account of the savage little fight at San Pascual, a fight of which Gen. S. W. Kearny chose to give so false an official report. Mr. Bancroft's account is made up from a number of not previously accessible sources, especially those collected by Judge Hayes of Los Angeles, in papers which are among the most noteworthy possessions of the Bancroft library. After the conquest history is completed, the most significant novelty of the volume seems to be the detailed plan of San Francisco in 1848, together with the long explanatory notes, founded in part upon testimony not previously accessible to historical students.

Of matters that seem to us doubtful, in Mr. Bancroft's views in this volume, we venture in conclusion to lay stress upon the reasoning (p. 226) whereby the hesitation of Commodore Sloat at Monterey, before raising the flag, is made to depend rather upon Larkin's advice than upon the consequences of Frémont's hostile action. To the writer of the account before us, the Bear-Flag hostilities would seem to have been additional reasons urging Sloat to quick action. We are disposed to regard their influence upon Sloat as only tending to increase his previous hesitation; and a careful reading of Mr. Bancroft's arguments has not convinced us of the contrary. Larkin, indeed, plainly advised the delay, and Sloat, during the time of the delay, doubtless often spoke as if, for his own part, he was ready to act at once. But Sloat had spoken just so, long before, at Mazatlan; and yet, as we have seen, he had afterwards hesitated. That Frémont and the Bear Flag can have been encouraging to the mind of such a man, we still must doubt. It is impossible to acquit "the Bear" of having done all the mischief that he could, in this matter as well as in every other. The valiant beast of the Sonoma flag was an unmitigated nuisance to California, and we cannot grant him the poor honor of having urged on Sloat to action.

With this volume on the conquest, Mr. Bancroft has reached the boundary line between the early history and the history of the modern State. We hope that there will be no falling off in the later and most difficult portions of the task. Thus far there is good reason for congratulation. The history of early California has been written in great detail, and in a fashion that must make the book readable only in single chapters or episodes—never as one connected whole. Yet nowhere else can we find so thorough an account of the beginnings of an important community. It is an axiom of historical study that to make the exact truth accessible, must be a true end in itself for the investigator. If this be so, then no one should complain that Mr. Bancroft's book deals so exhaustively with provincial annals. Out of provinces grow, if not always nations, then at least organic and vastly important members of great nations. No one can doubt that the Pacific States have a very significant history before them. In the future, near or remote, no sensible man will doubt the value of the elaborate research which has now made the early portions of this history both accessible and comprehensible for all time. We have expressed our decided disagreement with some features of Mr. Bancroft's plan. We have no doubt of the great importance of what has resulted.

A Muramasa Blade. By Louis Wertheimer. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

In this unique work, Mr. Wertheimer has essayed a task none the less difficult because others, with no mean pretensions to learning and literary skill, have signally failed in it. These were unable to succeed because it is impossible to call the past into resurrection—to "recreate the rose with all its members"—by the science of archæology alone. One must have, in addition, keen insight and warm sympathy to write a story of life in the Japan of five hundred years ago that will translate easily into the vernacular, and seem, when read by a native, the product of the soil. Yet this is what Mr. Wertheimer has attempted to do, and we think he has succeeded, excepting a few sentences serving to an American reader as hooks and eyes of speech. The story is truly and minutely Japanese in English. A Tokio *hanashika* (story-teller), under his matawning in Yanagi Chō, might tell to his open-mouthed auditors this tale of a sword, and not shock one of his auditors. And this, notwithstanding that such listeners are as critical of idiomatic accuracy as is a four-year-old child of the integrity of bed-time lore.

Improbable as many of the incidents and characters are, from our point of view, and impossible as some of them certainly are in the eye of science, all are in harmony with what the natives call Yamato Damashii (the spirit of ancient Japan)—that fierce code of honor which formed the ethics of gentlemen and the religion of heroes like Mutto and Sennoské of the story. So faithfully has the author conceived his palingenesis of a vanished ideal, that in one or two points the narrative becomes to us a ludicrous farce, though in the oblique eye the most orthodox tragedy. In reading, we unconsciously suffered our risibilities to rise. On reflection, we felt like the outraged auditor in a theatre, in whose vicinity a boor guffaws during the death-scene. Possibly Mr. Wertheimer might have pleased the Japanese fancy a little less, and satisfied the Occidental taste somewhat more, had he sooner rung down the curtain on certain acts. Yet we are not so sure, remembering our own sensations in a Japanese theatre, when an actor committing *hara-kiri* occupied twenty-two minutes, by the watch, in disembowelling the bag of blood which did duty for his abdominal economy. The author evidently has his eye on the gallery gods afar off, for in chapter x. the endurance of Yamagawa is prolonged beyond belief. The aged servitor opens the region below the navel in a "regulation cut of six inches long and one deep." While thus ripped open, he indulges in a conversation with his young master; and then, clapping his hand to his gushing midriff, listens bolt upright and calmly to the reading of his prolix will by a comrade. In print, this document occupies twelve solid octavo pages. Even supposing the soldier to be a fair scholar and able to read Chinese fluently—hardly so, we think, in the fourteenth century—the perusal must have required twenty minutes. Now, supposing the *seppuku* of that age was not in the severing of the great artery in front of the spine, but only an "inch deep," still, such a power of endurance in so old a man savors more of the Japanese stage than of physical possibility. It is, to say the least, not good art, and we question whether Bakin would countenance it.

Apart from this criticism, we cannot but pronounce Mr. Wertheimer's literary effort a superb triumph. His knowledge of Japanese history is as exact as it is copious. His references to tradition are to the taste of literary orthodoxy as tested by the latest researches. His local coloring is from actual study and an experience of thirteen years in the language and the land. Despite the literal faithfulness to the *samurai's* ideal, the romance is one of absorbing interest to the Western reader. It pictures the bright and glorious side of feudalism. Then, the soldier's calling was the noblest, war was a profession, the sword was the soul of the samurai, the forger of the bright true blade a pet of princes, and the possessor of a Muramasa was envied of millions. Yet the very brilliancy of the picture, while helping us to understand the gleam which even now lights up the bronze stolidity of a Japanese face when *hara-kiri* or swords are mentioned, shows also the arc of horrible darkness in which the lower strata of humanity rotted under pride and tax and the swashbuckler's tool. We remember only too well the sight of slashed corpses lying in the streets of Tokio, and our feelings at stumbling, while travelling at night, over dead bodies in the public roads, of seeing beggars allowed to drown in sight of withheld but convenient help, of bloody dogs hacked in head, body, and limbs—for the sword once drawn must not be sheathed till it tasted blood. With all true reformers, we rejoice that the reign of the sword, even of the Muramasa blade, with its consequent brutality, is over, and that the humanity of the beggar and pariah is now a fact recognized in law and custom. The reading of this book, which held us fascinated to the end, has been a powerful reminder that the horrors and wonders of the feudalism which we witnessed in the days of 1870 and 1871 are now at an end.

The subject is worthy of the noble literary and artistic treatment given it in this book. The illustrations are remarkable in that they have not been contaminated or voided of their spirit by alien hands. The five copper-plate engravings are by Nakamura Munéhiro of Tokio, who has caught the old-time spirit fully. The three-score and ten drawings of a native artist now in this country are on the average good; in some places, as in war scenes, they approach excellence. They have been reproduced by photo-lithography. Print, binding, and index are of the first class. In the silk-bound copies the Kiôto brocade, of Mikado red inwoven with chrysanthemums, makes a fitting case for this mirror of Oriental chivalry.

Memoirs of the Rev. J. Lewis Diman, D.D., late Professor of History and Political Economy in Brown University. Compiled from his Letters, Journals, and Writings, and the Recollections of his Friends. By Caroline Hazard. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1887.

The materials for this biography were scanty. Prof. Diman's outward life was uneventful, and he did not make his private letters a record of

inner experience, or pour out in them learning, wit, and impressions of men and affairs, any more than the secrets of conscience and growth. This volume consequently deals almost entirely with external matters. The subject of it was born of excellent New England stock, and piously reared. The tradition of his family, his youthful discipline, and his own nature united to direct him to the choice of the ministry as his profession; and, after completing his college course at Brown University and having spent some time at a parsonage and at Andover, he went abroad and resided at several of the German universities, where he saw and listened to the famous doctors of the time, and was well received by them. At the end of two years, in the course of which he visited the principal places of interest in middle and western Europe, he returned to this country and was settled over a church in Fall River, and later in Brookline. He had been from the first impatient of dogma, and attached to the spiritual rather than the theological elements in the Christian faith, and his mind continued to grow more liberal and comprehensive. He was the first of his denomination to exchange pulpits with Unitarian clergymen. This breadth of view and freedom of practice led to adverse comment and dissatisfaction on the part of the more rigid in the faith, and when, at the age of thirty-three, he was called to the professorship of history and political economy at Brown University, it was probably a welcome and certainly a most satisfactory solution of a position which would have constantly grown in difficulty. He continued, however, to preach, and received invitations to accept pastoral charges many times, including one from the Unitarians. His ripe conviction upon the matter is perhaps expressed in declining a call to the Second Church in Boston: "For success in the ministry, a man needs to be the mouthpiece of a sect, or at least to be able to express himself with great distinctness on certain disputed points. On many of these points my own judgment is in suspense, and it would be hypocrisy for me to assume to speak with authority; and in such a position as that which the minister of the Second Church would almost of necessity hold, he would be continually called on to define his position." The quality of his theological views is amusingly illustrated by the story of the ambassador "of the Greek obedience" who dined with him at Senator Anthony's, and inquired afterwards what his religion was, remarking that he thought he might be of the Orthodox Apostolic Church. A sketch and estimate of Prof. Diman's theology are furnished by Prof. George P. Fisher, which will satisfy the curious in doctrinal matters.

At Brown University Prof. Diman continued to grow in reputation, and almost from the time of his settlement he had calls to chairs in other colleges and universities, East and West, in some cases including an offer of the presidency; and although he declined these, his sphere of usefulness was enlarged by his acceptance of lectureships in Baltimore and Boston, by contributions to the press and the periodical literature of the day, and by public addresses. He was thus a busy man for nearly a score of years, and he expressed his aim during this period most completely when he wrote briefly to a friend regarding some one of his numerous declinations of higher posts, that he cared "more for scholarship than for position." It is his life as a scholar that these pages contain—an account of his tasks, both at the college and in private with the young ladies whom he taught, and in the different schools at Providence in which he took a humane interest; and with their details are woven some personal impressions of him in his literary club, and brief notices of vacation days and of his second short tour in southern Europe. Of his domestic life very little is said, but his home is described as a pleasant one. Of the development of his mind, the growth of opinion, and of his sentiments and tastes, he apparently left no record except in his published works. He led preëminently a scholar's life; his mind broadened without any crisis of feeling or jar of broken bonds, and his beliefs seem to have had an unimpeded natural growth. That his life-work fell so easily into the department of history, which his intellect found entirely congenial and satisfying, was a piece of excellent fortune.

This memorial of him will be especially pleasing to those whom it will enable better to recall the charm of his personality and to renew their living memories of him. His comparatively early death cut him off from the best years of his usefulness, for his virtues and studies were those that are most fruitful in the last years of a long life.

The Book Fancier; or, The Romance of Book Collecting. By Percy Fitzgerald. Scribner & Welford.

MR. PERCY FITZGERALD has taught us not to expect much from him. After all the fifty or a hundred volumes with which he has weighted the shelves of the second-hand booksellers, he does not yet know how to plan a chapter or to write a sentence. His construction is as careless as his style is slovenly. The best that can be said for him is that he is a lively writer, with a gift for finding good texts for his bookmaking. That he should have written this little volume on book collecting tends to prove that the recent growth of interest in books as books is even wider than we had supposed. That he should have made as poor a book as this is, shows that his own knowledge of the subject is skin-deep only. It is a sort of scrap-book of snippets of gossip, odds and ends of all kinds tumbled into its pages, helter-skelter and higgledy-piggledy. For example, the chapter on the Elzevirs and Plantins is chiefly taken up with a journalistic description of a modern printing-office, concluding with a list of comic misprints! It is easy enough to see that Mr. Fitzgerald, although he has used his paste and scissors diligently, has no real knowledge of the subject and no firm grasp on it. Any chapter of Mr. Lang's 'Library' or 'Books and Bookmen' is richer and sounder than Mr. Fitzgerald's whole book. We may note especially the obvious absurdities at the top of page 144 and of page 153, and the apparently late discovery of Allibone's 'Dictionary' and of Poole's 'Index.' Of recent French books—which are many and excellent—Mr. Fitzgerald knows little or nothing; he refers to the beloved Bibliophile Jacob as "La Croix" (p. 201), and this is typical of his erudition. He berates the French for their indifference to Molière as evidenced by the few editions of his works!

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, Mrs. By Woman's Wit: A Novel. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
All is Not Gold that Glistens: A Sketch. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
American Law Review. Vol. xx. St. Louis: Review Publishing Co.
Bainbridge, Elizabeth G. Schoolroom Games and Exercises. Chicago: The Interstate Publishing Co. 75 cents.
Beers, Rev. R. W. The Mormon Puzzle and How to Solve It. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.
Browne, F. F. Bugle Echoes: A Collection of Poems of the Civil War, Northern and Southern. White, Stokes & Allen. $2.50.
Child, F. J. The English and Scottish Popular Ballads. Part iv. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $5.
Claveau, A. Contre le flot. Boston: Schoenhof.
Crump, A. The Theory of Stock Exchange Speculation. H. W. Rosenbaum.
Deriot, Sophie. The Beginner's Book in French. Illustrated. Boston: Ginn & Co. 95 cents.
Dostoïevsky, L'Esprit souterrain. Traduit par E. Halpérine et Ch. Morice. New York: Christern.
Faguet, E. Études littéraires sur le xixe siècle. Boston: Schoenhof.
Faguet, E. Les Grands maîtres du xviie siècle. Boston: Schoenhof.
Foster, D. S. The Romance of the Unexpected. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Gannett—Jones. The Faith that Makes Faithful. Eight Sermons. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. 50 cents.
Gunn, Dr. R. A. The Truth about Alcohol. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Halévy, Ludovic. Princesse. New York: Christern.
Handbook of School Law. Manual of School Law in the State of New York. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen.
Hanson, G. P. The Legend of Hamlet, Prince of Denmark. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co.
Heilprin, A. The Geographical and Geological Distribution of Animals. D. Appleton & Co.
Hildeburn, C. R. A Century of Printing: The Issues of the Press in Pennsylvania. 1685-1784. Vol. ii. 1764-1784. Philadelphia.
Kennard, Mrs. E. The Girl in the Brown Habit. Harper & Brothers. 20 cents.
Littell's Living Age. Fifth Series. Vol. 56. October-December, 1886. Boston: Littell & Co.
Lodge, H. C. The Works of Alexander Hamilton. Vol. ix. and last. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $5.
Whitaker, J. Almanac for 1887. London.

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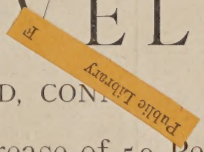

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 43

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS 46

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:
Labor Legislation 48
Judge Gresham's Decision in the Wabash Case 48
How the People Voted 49
The Sharples Portraits 49

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:
Nebulous English Politics 50
The Land War in Ireland 51

CORRESPONDENCE:
The Inter-State Commerce Bill 52
The Supply of Teachers 52
The "Issuing" of Silver 53
The President's Excuse in Michigan 53
A Story Without an End 53

NOTES 53

REVIEWS:
McClellan's Own Story.—I 57
England's Case against Home Rule 59
The Crimean Journey of Catharine II 60
Recent Religious and Ethical Literature 61
About Money and Other Things 62
Romances of Chivalry 63
Ancient Cities 63

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 64

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SOUTHERN HISTORICAL PAPERS.

In March, April, and May, the SOUTHERN BIVOUAC published valuable articles by Colonel R. T. Durrett on the "Resolutions of '98 and '99," settling finally the authorship of those resolutions. In May and June, it published some interesting illustrated articles on "The Virginia Cavaliers"; in September, October, and November, it published Paul Hayne's delightful papers on "Ante-Bellum Charleston." These papers, with biographical and critical sketches of Southern statesmen and men of letters, will be continued from time to time. The "Unpublished Letters of Jefferson," begun in December, will be completed in March or April, and in February will begin some biographical papers of Captain John Cleves Symmes, the author of "Symmes' Theory" of a hollow world. In an early issue there will appear sketches of General P. R. Cleburne and John C. Calhoun.

WAR PAPERS.

Each issue of the magazine contains much in relation to the civil war. It has published valuable papers on Hood's Campaign in Tennessee; on Bragg's Invasion of Kentucky; on the Fall of Fort Sumter, and on Chattanooga. It has ready for early publication a series of articles by General E. M. Law on "The Fight for Richmond"; an article by Dinwiddie B. Phillips on the "Merrimac"; with other articles relating to various features of the contest.

The papers by Judge Thomas H. Hines on

"THE NORTHWESTERN CONSPIRACY"

constitute one of the most valuable contributions to a true history of the war that has yet been made. These papers began in the December issue, and will continue for several months.

POETRY AND FICTION.

The short stories in the SOUTHERN BIVOUAC have been original and pleasing. They describe Southern character, Southern habits of life and modes of thought in a graphic manner. For early publication stories are announced from H. S. Edwards, "A Government Clerk"; from Falcon, "'Squire Johnson's Court"; from Lee C. Harby, "Jessamine"; from Mrs. M. Sheffey-Peters, "Hi Roark's Shadow," and "The Dance of Death"; from H. W. Cleveland, "Old Scipio"; from Will Wallace Harney, "Origin of Creek Fire." In addition, papers will be published describing peculiar features of life in the Southern States, among them a paper by Young E. Allison on the Mountaineers of Eastern Kentucky. Poems from Margaret J. Preston, Clinton Scollard, Will Wallace Harney, William H. Hayne, Charles J. O'Malley, and others will appear from time to time.

Reference is made to these articles not as exhausting the resources of the SOUTHERN BIVOUAC, but to define, as far as possible, the field which it seeks to occupy, and to show that in its purposes, and in what it has accomplished, it is a worthy representative of the literary and artistic element in the Southern States. It is enough to show that the new South is not to be exclusively a material revival; that the activity so noticeable elsewhere is not lacking in literature and in other branches of life. Moreover, the magazine aims to present fairly, faithfully, but with no prejudice or passion, the story of the old South; to trace its progress, its development, and its perpetuation in the South of to-day.

To show that in this attempt the publishers have met with no small measure of success, we submit only a few notices from the press, which has been unusually encouraging and cordial:

[*The Nation.*]

The SOUTHERN BIVOUAC for March has a valuable contribution to the history of the "Kentucky Resolutions of 1798 and 1799." This consists in part of a facsimile of Thomas Jefferson's letter of December 11, 1821, to J. Cabell Breckenridge, in which he avows the authorship of the resolutions. There is also a facsimile of a printed copy of the resolutions as they passed the Legislature, of which the author of the article says it is "an original copy now in the possession of the writer." The reproduction of the letter, with the address, frank, and postmark, conclusively settles the disputed point as to the person to whom the letter was addressed.

[*Penman's Art Journal.*]

The SOUTHERN BIVOUAC for October is the best number of a $2 magazine we have ever seen. If a subscriber in the course of a year should read nothing but Maurice Thompson's paper, "Ceryle Alcyon," he would be amply repaid.

[*Christian Observer.*]

It occupies the foremost place in the publications of the South, and compares favorably with any in the land.

[*Washington Hatchet.*]

The SOUTHERN BIVOUAC is the best magazine which the South ever gave to literature. It has the sectional color which one expects from its name, but this adds to its general value. Its literary standard is decidedly above the commonplace, and it has proven itself most admirably able to do the work which it had marked out.

[*Christian Union.*]

The first volume of the SOUTHERN BIVOUAC, just received, handsomely bound in cloth, decidedly increases our respect and regard for this Southern magazine. We are pleased to learn that it is receiving that measure of success and popularity to which its merits entitle it. As a whole, this volume gives indubitable evidence of judicious and intelligent editing.

[*Chicago Inter-Ocean.*]

Among the most interesting of the magazines that come to our table. It is mainly devoted to army life among the Confederates and the incidents and history relating thereto, but all told in the best possible spirit, and as enjoyable to the Union as the Confederate soldier.

[*N. Y. Observer.*]

The October number is in all respects the finest which has come under our notice, and is wanting in scarcely any feature of a first-class periodical. The BIVOUAC is the foremost literary representative of the new South, and as such we wish for it the fullest measure of success.

[*Boston Herald.*]

It is a source of genuine pleasure to open the SOUTHERN BIVOUAC in these days. There is not a trace of political bitterness in it, and there is considerable evidence that writers, new and old, at the South are making a strong effort to maintain their former literary standing.

[*Indianapolis News.*]

It is by odds far ahead of anything the South has produced in periodical literature.

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SOUTHERN BIVOUAC, Louisville, Kentucky.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 20, 1887.

The Week.

THE coal-heavers in New Jersey have struck for an advance of wages, and propose to have the fairness of the demand settled by the arbitration of "District Assembly No. 49"—that is, by themselves. Their work is heaving or "handling" coal—that is, shovelling it from cars into barges, or from barges into cars, as the case may be—the lowest form of manual labor. They say that if they get what they ask for, their pay will amount to two dollars a day, which seems high for this sort of work at this season. But, whether high or low, the fact is that for every man who does not think one dollar and seventy-five cents enough for this sort of work, there is another waiting for the job which he rejects, and eager to take it if they can get protection from the police while doing it. The same thing is true of the striking 'longshoremen who are now disturbing the steamship owners. The trouble there is, that the Union men do not wish other men to accept payment of their wages by the week or by the month from the Old Dominion Company, instead of payment by the hour. There is, as we understand it, no dispute about the rate of wages. Nor is there any dispute between the company and that portion of the men who are paid by the week, about the time of payment. A does not say that he does not wish to be paid by the week or month, but by the hour. On the contrary, he prefers it because it means steady work. It is B, who is paid by the hour, or is not in the employment of the companies at all, who is dissatisfied by the way in which A is hired. He therefore tells A that he must not be paid monthly or weekly, and, on A's refusing to heed him, lies in wait for him as he goes to his work, and tries to hit him with a stick or stone. More than this, B goes to other steamship wharves, and threatens to hit with sticks and stones anybody who moves freight which has ever passed through A's hands. While all this is going on, not only is an important branch of business suspended or greatly impeded, but A and his family live in terror of their lives—almost as great terror as if they were settlers in the Apache country when Geronimo was afield. His wife and children expect every morning when he leaves his home to see him brought back with his skull fractured or his ribs broken, and all because B does not like weekly payments.

There are concerned in the coal strike about 6,000 men, all manual laborers—that is, 3,000 on strike, and 3,000 who want, if protected by the law, to do the work which the strikers refuse to do. The presumption is that the latter 3,000 possess in a far higher degree than the others the conditions which in a laborer excite commiseration. They are evidently poorer; they are more willing to work; they have undoubtedly families in a large number of cases dependent on them for support. They are, too, much more peaceable, for, instead of attacking the strikers and driving them from their work, so as to get the job for themselves, they allow the strikers to drive them from it, in the absence of police protection. Nevertheless, they are a forgotten element in most of the discussions about strikes. Nine out of ten of us when we talk of "labor," mean simply the laborers who join the unions, and never think of the still larger number of even more necessitous laborers who do not choose to join the unions. We talk as if the 3,000 strikers had a right to be employed to heave coal by a particular employer, and as if the other 3,000 had no right to be employed by anybody, but were bound to look on and starve, while the strikers loafed and lived on "assessments."

There seems, in view of the proceedings at St. Stephen's Church on Monday, nothing for the followers of Henry George to do but start a church of their own. We do not believe that any of the existing religious denominations has the requisite accommodation for the doctrine that the land of the country may be lawfully taken from its present owners without compensation. This may be possibly a moral doctrine or the doctrine of the future, but no existing church is ready for it or likely to be within any reasonable period. In all existing churches no distinction is made between real and personal estate, as the subject of property rights; and all consider the ousting of a man from his house or land against his will to be robbery in the ordinary acceptation of that term, and as such an improper thing for a good church member, and much more a professional theologian, to advocate or be engaged in. Under these circumstances, if the Georgites feel the need of a religious creed and religious services of their own, the wise and kindly thing to do is to start a church, and embody the George view of land in the creed. It is not for us to suggest the precise way in which it should be organized, but it may not be unbecoming to express the opinion that Henry George should occupy a very high, if not the highest, place in the hierarchy. In fact, the place of Archbishop does not seem a bit too high for him. It would not, in truth, be as high as that held by another famous reformer, Brigham Young, in the Mormon Church. The advantages, too, of belonging to a church whose founder is still living, and may be consulted at any moment on knotty points of doctrine and discipline, are too obvious to need enumeration.

The popular demonstrations in favor of Dr. McGlynn are, no doubt, deserved tributes to his long, laborious, and faithful services as a pastor. But such services are common among the Catholic priesthood. Indeed, a parish priest who should fail in rendering them could not long hold his place. Neither the services themselves nor the affection which they inspire can hide the real issue of the controversy, which is whether Dr. McGlynn will obey an authority which even Martin Luther recognized and bowed to when he was summoned to the Diet of Worms. What the authorities of the Church at Rome might do if its summons were obeyed, is an after consideration; but the meetings held and the resolutions passed on Monday went upon the assumption that Dr. McGlynn had already been tried and condemned, which is wholly gratuitous and strictly false. Nor does it stand to reason that the Church of Rome, in so grave a matter as this, is likely to have its counsels swayed and its world-wide policy established by the assumed prejudices of Archbishop Corrigan and Vicar-General Preston in New York.

The anti-Mormon bill as passed by the House last week preserves the main features of the act as it was sent over from the Senate last winter. The most important new departure in this measure is the section which annuls all territorial acts establishing the religious corporation known as the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints, and the corporation known as the Perpetual Fund Emigration Company, and makes it the duty of the Attorney-General to dissolve these corporations. It is through these corporations that the Mormon Church has done its work, and their destruction is undoubtedly a terrible blow for the hierarchy. At the same time it must be admitted that the North Carolina member who opposed the bill on the ground that this proposition is unconstitutional, made out a strong case. The Constitution provides that "Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion or prohibiting the free exercise thereof," and it is certainly a grave question whether under this provision it has the right to dissolve a religious corporation because members of the corporation break the laws. The principle that a legislative body may thus interfere in religious matters is a dangerous one to establish, and its adoption in this case is the less excusable because there seems no doubt that polygamy could be overthrown without recourse to so doubtful an expedient.

The passage of so drastic a measure with scarcely a dissenting vote by a Democratic House disposes of another Republican bogy. Next to the theory that the Democrats were going to pay the rebel debt and pension the ex-Confederates, perhaps the most popular of the old stand bys for the Republican organs and stump-speakers has been the claim that the Democrats favored polygamy in the expectation of converting the Territory of Utah into a Democratic State. At the rate things are now moving, there will not be a splinter left by 1888 of that ancient "view-with alarm" plank of the Republican platform.

The House of Representatives passed last week the measure, which had been urgently recommended by the President in his annual message, to provide for an additional Judge of the United States Court in New York, but not without some remonstrance from Western members, who alleged that their needs for more judges were quite as pressing as those of the commercial metropolis. If this

claim is well founded, it is an argument for more judges at the West also. No disposition of the Treasury surplus, or that small portion of it required to recompense the Federal bench, can be made so advantageously as by employing a sufficient number of first-class men, and paying them first-class salaries, to clear the court dockets and keep them clear. The delays of justice in the Federal courts, and in State courts as well, amount in many cases to a denial of justice. How great and aggravating is that denial here in New York a few facts will explain. Secretary Manning, in reply to a House resolution of March 23, 1886, stated that there were then pending in this district 2,201 separate revenue causes dating from October, 1867, and involving the aggregate sum of $11,519,268. It was estimated that the interest running against the Government on the claims, which would probably be decided in favor of the plaintiffs, was $150,000 per annum —an amount sufficient to pay the salaries of twenty-five judges at their present rate of compensation. This is the state of the case as regards Government business only, or rather one single branch of it. How must it be with the ordinary business of private litigants? The truth is, that New York has become as great a centre of commercial litigation as it is of commercial transactions generally. The business of the Stock Exchange, and of the Clearing-house (as compared with other similar institutions in the United States) is fairly representative of the business of the United States courts. Suits involving railroad and other corporations in Texas, Oregon, and every State in the Union, and mining properties in all the Territories, are multiplying here all the time. Patent suits are gravitating here more and more, while the admiralty business corresponds in magnitude to the shipping carried on at this port, and the criminal business is no small item. The net result is a perfect gorge, at which the Judges, Wallace and Brown, with such help as they can occasionally get from neighboring districts, are toiling with more than Sisyphean industry. It ought to be an axiom of the public service that its judicial equipment should keep pace with the country's growth. Instead of one new judge for this district we ought to have six, and they ought to have $10,000 a year each. They could all be kept employed.

The passage by the House of the bill to pension all dependent soldiers and dependent parents of soldiers is the first departure, on a large scale, from the foundation principle of pension laws. This principle affirms, that the Government is held to look after and provide for those soldiers who have been more or less disabled and hindered from earning a living by wounds or disease contracted in the service. As to all others, it made a contract to pay them so much per month, to provide them with rations and clothing, and restore hem at the expiration of the service to their respective homes. Some departures have been made from this rule in particular cases before now, and these have whetted a demand that the rule itself shall be set aside, as it has now been by the vote of the House. The new rule, if anything can be called a rule which is only the discretion of Congress, means that pensions shall hereafter be granted according to the ability of the taxpayers to supply the money. This is what we are coming to. But the worst part of the bill that was passed on Monday is that which makes "dependence" a gauge of the right to draw a pension. It is a premium on sloth, a discouragement to independence. When we read the piteous tales of hardship endured by ex-soldiers after twenty-three years of peace—hardship not traceable to military service in any way whatever—we sometimes wonder what must be the condition of the ex-Confederates, to whom no pension ever comes, no matter what degree of disability may have been incurred by them in addition to the loss of the great battle itself. How do these men get a living? Who supports them?

There is an air of opéra bouffe about the proposed investigation of the Pacific Railroads by a permanent salaried, and boarded, and free-passed, and liquored, and tobaccoed commission attached to the Interior Department. The character of the investigation is disclosed by a letter written by Theophilus French, ex-Auditor of the Pacific Railroads, to a person in the office of the Central Pacific Company, obviously intended to be shown to Mr. Huntington, in which Mr. French hints darkly at certain memoranda that he obtained in his official capacity years ago. It might be worth while for Mr. Huntington to pay something to get those memoranda out of French's hands, but he thought on the whole that it would be better to take the public into his confidence immediately by sending French's letter to the newspapers, and herein we agree with Mr. Huntington. It is reported that another ex official of the Auditor's office, a more recent product than French, and also a more rapacious one, is working up the proposed investigation. The steps taken by the intending blackmailers show very clearly that there is plenty of law on the statute-book now to make any desired investigation, for it is quite as easy for the present Auditor to get the information that French hints at as it was for French himself to get it. If Congress wants to know anything that has not been brought out in the numerous investigations and lawsuits of the past twenty years, it has only to signify its wishes to the officer in charge of the bureau created expressly for the purpose of auditing these accounts. This would be the regular course of procedure. The only objection to it appears to be that the present Auditor is a high-minded man, with a reputation to preserve, who would not lend himself to the particular kind of "investigation" that his predecessor, French, hints at. There may be items of past expenditure that the companies would rather not have made public, but they can much better afford to throw open their books than Congress can afford to equip a blackmailing commission.

A curious feature of the recent House debate upon naval reorganization was that the most important provision of the bill under consideration was ignored by both parties. The bill establishes a "board of council," which is to continue independently of the will of the Secretary of the Navy, except that he can change its personnel, and which is to advise him upon all questions of naval policy that he may submit to it. Under the existing system the Secretary of the Navy, like the heads of the other departments, gets the best counsel he can on each subject from the sources which he deems most authoritative. Whenever he wants the advice of a board, he convenes such a board as he thinks best, continues it as long as he finds it useful, and dissolves it when it has served his purpose. Under the proposed system a new Secretary, when he first enters the Department, will find a board already organized to receive him and to make his ignorance bliss, by tendering him professional counsel of so high authority that he will never need any knowledge of naval affairs except what his mentors may choose to impart. Then, when engines break down and ships capsize, he can compound with his conscience by the reflection that he never did anything but follow, to the best of his ability, the authority established by Congress for his guidance.

The project has no support in reason or in precedent. No one ever proposed or heard of a board of generals as a part of the legal organization of the War Department, to show the Secretary of War how to run his Department; nor did any Secretary of the Treasury ever ask Congress for a board of financial experts to advise him upon his fiscal policy. It would puzzle the most ingenious advocate of the plan to invent a sound reason why Congress should make the creation of a particular board of council mandatory upon the Secretary of the Navy rather than upon the Secretary of War or the head of any other department. The Naval Committee did not venture upon the perilous task of explaining it in their report, and it is curiously illustrative of the indisposition of Congress to scrutinize the measures before it that, in a three days' debate upon the bill, not a member called for the reason of so anomalous a feature. That it originated either with the Committee on Naval Affairs or with Secretary Whitney, no one supposes; in fact, it has been urged from time to time by a few naval officers for forty years. But it never before got so far on its way without being challenged and turned back.

No one can read the argument of Professor Smyth before the Andover Board of Visitors, as it has been published in full, without carrying away a high opinion of its acuteness and learning, and a conviction of the author's perfect sincerity. Not every one, however, will be persuaded that his defence is entirely successful. He easily shows that he has not departed from the Seminary creed more widely than those who are at the bottom of the prosecution. In fact, there is something singular about the sudden zeal for the creed on the part of those who have been known, for years, to hold it, in parts at least, in a thoroughly non-natural sense. Andover students of ten or fifteen years ago could hardly bring themselves to believe it possible, when these proceedings were first talked of, that Prof. Smyth, the most conservative man on the Faculty, hopelessly behind the times, according to the standard of Prof. Park's

lectures, should turn out a radical, while Prof. Park should appear as the virtual accuser of his colleague, on the ground of holding opinions at variance with the creed. There can be no complaint, certainly, by those who have brought on this trial that they have not been treated with abundant generosity by the defendants. Only in an incidental way have the latter shown that the prosecution did not object to departures from the creed, but simply to departures from its own particular departures. If an appearance of over-technicality is to be found in any part of Prof. Smyth's argument, it is where he contends for his right to hold to his views of future probation, even under a strict interpretation of the creed. That the new doctrine is not explicitly condemned in the creed may be true, but to contend, as the Professor does, that it is, in addition, logically implied in the creed, seems to be to fall into that confusion which Sir Henry Maine has shown to attach to the old idea that new legal decisions, really making new law, were yet but an inference from a definite, original set of legal principles. The unwillingness to admit a positive advance, which the author just cited affirms to be characteristic of jurisprudence, is an old failing of theology. And when Prof. Smyth goes further, and refuses to interpret the creed by the known opinions of the men who framed it, he would seem to be disowning one of the accepted canons of historical symbolics.

Decidedly the most interesting thing brought out in this trial is the attitude towards the Andover creed, not of the accused professors, but of their present judges. The testimony of Professors Hincks and Harris made it clear that they had been distinctly and directly authorized by the Board of Visitors to take the creed with any number of mental reservations, even including this very matter of future probation. We should think it must have been very hard for President Seelye and Dr. Eustis to maintain a becoming appearance of judicial gravity when it was put in evidence that they themselves had already passed upon the main question submitted to them, and that they were very much in the position of a civil judge called upon to find a man guilty of an offence which he had privately assured the accused was not indictable. To make this comic situation complete, it is now announced that a decision is not to be expected until after a considerable time; the judges must needs deliberate carefully, it is said. It had long been suspected that the trustees and visitors were of the opinion that the subscription exacted of the Andover professors meant nothing in particular. This suspicion became a certainty, three or four years ago, when Prof. Thayer demanded that the trustees should set him right by making public the assurances which they had given him in private, and indignantly resigned on their refusal to do so. After the express declarations made in the present trial, we do not see how it can any longer be questioned that the Andover idea of subscription is much like the old French Legitimist's view of the *Charte* as given to Niebuhr—"that it had been granted, but that of course there was no intention of observing it."

For some years past, Prince Bismarck has only put in an appearance in the Reichstag when it has become necessary to bring his personal influence to bear upon that body in the interest of Government measures. It is a matter of record that, on almost every such occasion, he has lost his temper, and, instead of argument, has employed violent abuse, threats, and insults in addressing the Opposition. It is not too much to say that no minister in Europe ever ventured to treat a representative body with such contemptuous imperiousness, and, but for the forbearance of his adversaries, out of deference to his age and great past services to Germany, his vehemence would have led more than once to turbulent scenes on the floor of the Reichstag. In his recent speeches on the Army Bill, he was more than true to his regular rôle of parliamentary bully. Nevertheless, the passage of the Army Bill could not possibly result in any immediate considerable strengthening of the imperial army, and its failure would not at all involve the national danger which the Chancellor made the burden of his speeches. The Minister of War admitted distinctly before the Committee to which the bill was referred, that, under the actual operation of the measure proposed by the Government, the army would be increased by only about 14,000 men at the end of the first year, and that it would take altogether fully twelve years to reach the total maximum increase of 150,000 men of the active army and reserve. He admitted, further, that if war should break out in the spring, it would be unwise to attempt to carry out the provisions of the bill, as this would obstruct the mobilization of the army. The Opposition had, therefore, the advantage of being able to contradict Bismarck's plea for the urgency of the bill out of the mouth of another spokesman of the Government.

Neither the speeches of Bismarck nor of Moltke contained anything new except Bismarck's contemptuous dismissal of the Bulgarian trouble as something which does not concern Germany, and for which Germany will certainly not break with Russia. This was doubtless intended to back up Moltke's warning to France that she is not going to catch Germany unprepared. The increase of the army, Moltke said, meant peace. The refusal to increase it would mean war, and France must also understand that no opportunity for aggression through an alliance with Russia was going to be afforded her. Of course, this is also a warning to Austria that she must look after her own interests in the Balkans, without help from Germany; but as she certainly can count on England and Italy, and has nothing to fear from Germany, it will probably not greatly disconcert her. France, it is pretty sure, will never take the field against any first-class Power until she has again tried her strength with Germany. All her military resources will be husbanded for a supreme effort to recover Alsace and Lorraine.

The condition in which this increase of armaments will leave Europe is something which will always remain a blot on the history of modern civilization. It is something which, in what is called "an industrial age," is really astounding. France, Austria, Germany, Italy, and Russia have very nearly 3,000,000 men in the flower of their age constantly under arms in time of peace, and offer enormous premiums to the best talent of the period for the improvement of instruments for the destruction of life and property. Besides this force, another still larger, although not constantly under arms, is kept more or less tormented and disturbed by drills and evolutions in preparation for war. All these Powers, too, are now gradually furnishing their troops with repeating rifles in exchange for the old breech-loaders, which made such a sensation twenty years ago. There is no immediate prospect of an end to this state of things until the Ottoman Empire is dead and it is finally settled who is to have Constantinople. Europe came out of the war of the French Revolution in 1815 with two burning questions constantly ready to set the Continent in a blaze. One was the Italian, and the other the Eastern question. The Italian question was disposed of by the three bloody wars of 1859, 1866, and 1870. The Eastern question has caused two almost equally bloody, that of the Crimea and that of 1877. These brought it somewhat nearer to a solution, but the end is still far off, and will probably only be reached by another frantic struggle. The Turk has his trunk packed and is ready to go, but he would be a bold man who should undertake to say who his successor will be.

The death of Lord Iddesleigh removes one of the best of the older school of politicians from English public life — the school which bred Canning and Peel and Gladstone, and which made the English House of Commons, since the Reform Bill, the foremost debating assembly in the world. He was an English gentleman of the very best sort, well-informed, conscientious, public-spirited, fair-minded, just, kindly, and good-tempered. He treated everybody courteously, and his statements in public and private life could be absolutely relied on. As soon as the Disraeli type of Toryism began to take root—the tricky, unscrupulous, evasive, and abusive type—Sir Stafford Northcote, as he then was, began to find himself more and more out of place, and his removal to the House of Lords was a plain hint that the party needed a different kind of man. Putting him in the Foreign Office while suffering from a disease which made excitement dangerous, was, in the present state of European politics, simply a sign of the extreme scarcity of first-rate men in the party. But the attempt of some of the Liberal journals to make political capital out of his death by throwing the blame of it on Lord Salisbury, seems brutal as well as absurd. Every man who goes into politics takes the chances of the game, and it is for him to judge whether he is physically fit to face them or not. Nobody else can or ought to decide for him whether they will put his life in danger or not. What those who put an unsound man in a responsible place have to consider, is not whether the duties of it will kill him, but whether he will be competent to discharge them properly while he lives.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

WEDNESDAY, January 12, to TUESDAY, January 18, 1887, inclusive.

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND has approved a new civil-service rule, giving the Civil-Service Commissioners power to appoint a Central Board of Examiners, to which will be submitted all examination papers of candidates' grading.

The Senate on Friday refused by a vote of 25 to 36 to recommit the Inter State Commerce Bill for conference, and subsequently passed it by 43 to 15. The affirmative vote consisted of 23 Republicans and 20 Democrats. Three Democrats voted in the negative. The House will adopt the conference report by a large majority.

The House on Wednesday passed the Tucker substitute for the Edmunds Mormon Bill. The bill makes the lawful husband or wife of any person prosecuted for bigamy, polygamy, or unlawful cohabitation a competent witness against the accused; provides for the registration of all marriages, making it a misdemeanor for any person to violate the provisions relative to such registration; annuls all Territorial laws providing for the identification of the votes of electors at any election, and also all laws conferring on the Territorial courts the power to determine divorce cases, and abolishes woman suffrage in the Territory. Penalties are prescribed for unlawful intercourse, and polygamy is defined as a marriage between one person of one sex and more than one person of another sex, and is declared to be a felony. The financial corporations known as the Church of Latter Day Saints and the Perpetual Emigration Fund Company are dissolved, and the Attorney-General is directed to wind them up by process of court; and all laws for the organization of the militia of the Territory and the creation of the Nauvoo Legion are annulled. Polygamists are made ineligible to vote, and a test oath is prescribed to all persons desiring to vote that they will obey the laws of the United States, and especially the laws in respect to the crimes defined in this and the original Edmunds act. The bill provides for the immediate appointment by the President of all judges and selectmen of the county and probate courts, and by the Governor of all justices of the peace, sheriffs, constables, and other county and district officers.

The House of Representatives has passed, by a vote of 222 to 26, the bill to create a Department of Agriculture and Labor. It passed on Wednesday a bill authorizing the appointment of an additional United States Judge in the Second Circuit, which includes New York, Connecticut, and Vermont.

In the House of Representatives on Friday Mr. Caldwell (Dem., Tenn.) submitted the conference report on the Electoral Count Bill, and it was agreed to without debate or division. The amendments of the House to the bill are substantially adopted, and the principal changes made in the text are in the nature of more definite statements touching the exclusive right of the States to determine what electoral returns shall be presented to Congress. What is known as the Oates amendment was also accepted by the Senate conferees. The effect of this amendment is to strike out of the Senate bill the clause which allowed the President of the Senate to announce the name of the successful candidate, and confine his functions to the mere announcement of the state of the vote, which will be regarded as sufficient to indicate the result.

The Senate Trade-Dollar Bill, with the amendment of the House Committee, was submitted to the House on Saturday morning. The silver men gave notice of a minority report, and say privately that they will oppose the bill to the end unless the House agrees not to interfere with the present purchases of silver bullion.

The House of Representatives on Monday, under a suspension of the rules, passed, by a vote of 179 to 76, the bill for the relief of dependent parents and honorably discharged soldiers and sailors who are now disabled and dependent on their own labor for support. Mr. Matson (Dem., Ind.) said that the total number of persons who would be benefited by the bill was estimated at 33,105, and the annual cost to the Government would not reach $6,000,000

The bills granting pensions to Mrs. Logan and Mrs. Blair, widow of Gen. Frank Blair, were defeated on Tuesday in the House Committee on Invalid Pensions, the Democrats voting against them.

United States Senators were practically elected on Tuesday by the Legislatures of the several States in separate session as follows: Maine, Eugene Hale (Rep.); Delaware, George Gray (Dem.); Illinois, Charles B. Farwell (Rep.); Missouri, F. M. Cockrell (Dem.); Michigan, F. B. Stockbridge (Rep.); Minnesota, C. K. Davis (Rep.); Pennsylvania, M. S. Quay (Rep.); Connecticut, J. R. Hawley (Rep.). The contests are close and undecided in New York, New Jersey, Indiana, Nebraska, Massachusetts, and West Virginia.

The Democratic majority in the Indiana Senate on Monday evening unseated McDonald (Rep.) on the ground that he had used money in securing his election; and gave his seat to Brannowan (Dem.). This gives the Democrats two majority on joint ballot.

The Republican Senatorial caucus at Albany made no nomination on Monday night. The first ballot resulted: Miller 44, Morton 35, Hiscock 12; necessary to a choice 48. On a second ballot the only change was a transfer of one vote from Hiscock to Morton. The caucus then adjourned to meet on Tuesday night. The Democratic caucus nominated Smith M. Weed. In the Assembly and Senate on Tuesday the Republicans voted as they had in caucus, and the Democrats for Mr. Weed. There was consequently no election. Mr. Miller gained one vote in Tuesday night's caucus.

The annual report of the New York State Board of Charities shows that the value of the property devoted to charitable purposes on October 1, 1886, was $52,128,192.

At a meeting of the reform Democrats of Maryland in Baltimore on Wednesday night the following resolution was adopted: "That we heartily endorse the national Administration of President Cleveland in its efforts to secure reform in the currency and tariff reform, and also its civil-service reform, whenever it is carried into effect in its true spirit, but we are compelled to express our regret that in the State of Maryland the laws and rules establishing said reform are not administered in good faith, and that the Federal appointments in Maryland, with few exceptions, have been made in accordance with the spoils system in its worst form, which system the American people condemned in the election of President Cleveland himself."

Gov. Rusk of Wisconsin, in his biennial message to the Legislature, said: "With those agrarian and socialistic theories of fanciful society that deny the right of private property, or of each individual to full protection in the enjoyment and control of all his lawful earnings, whether obtained by his own labor or by contract, we can have no sympathy. They are as un-American as monarchy, and as treasonable as secession. They contemplate the destruction of both justice and liberty, and would accomplish the destruction of both if their application to existing society were seriously attempted. We are not prepared as American citizens to even consider a change in our form of Government. Republican institutions and individual liberty go hand in hand, and must and will be loyally maintained."

Judge Pratt of Brooklyn on Thursday evening denied the application for a stay of proceedings in the case of ex-Alderman Arthur J. McQuade. He was taken to Sing Sing on Monday.

Owing to a strike of coal-handlers in this city and shipping points tributary to it, a coal famine is threatened.

The Rev. Dr. Edward McGlynn, who has been suspended from his pastoral functions at St. Stephen's Roman Catholic Church, in this city, on account of his advocacy of Henry George's doctrines, was succeeded on Saturday by the Rev. Arthur Joseph Donnelly, for thirty years pastor of St. Michael's Church, at Ninth Avenue and Thirty-first Street. The congregation have held an indignation meeting.

Jonas Gilman Clark, the wealthiest citizen of Worcester, Mass., has announced his intention of founding in that city an institution for the promotion of learning in all its higher branches, to be called Clark University. He will start it with an endowment of $1,000,000.

Mrs. Abby Kelley Foster, widow of Stephen S. Foster, the anti-slavery agitator, died in Worcester, Mass., on Friday. She was born at Pelham, Mass., January 15, 1811. Her parents were descendants of Irish Quakers, and she was educated at a Friends' school, and became a teacher. At the age of twenty-six she resigned her position as a teacher, and started out as an anti-slavery lecturer, being among the first women to address mixed audiences in favor of abolition. She suffered many indignities. In December, 1845, she married Stephen S. Foster in Pennsylvania, and was in full accord with his advanced opinions, speaking with him for many years. Their home was on a farm near Worcester up to Mr. Foster's death some years ago. Mrs. Foster necessarily took an active interest in woman suffrage, and also became a pronounced Prohibitionist. In private life she was amiable and unassuming. Her last work was the preparation of material for a biographical sketch of her husband on Tuesday of last week. She has led a quiet and invalid life during recent years.

Henry Brewster Stanton died on Friday of pneumonia, in this city, in the eighty-second year of his age. He was a native of Connecticut. His early education was acquired in the district schools. In 1826 he removed to Rochester, N. Y., where he wrote for a newspaper, entered politics as a Whig, and became Deputy County Clerk. Then he studied in Lane Seminary, Cincinnati, intending to enter the ministry. The anti-slavery agitation diverted his course, and, as general agent of the American Anti-Slavery Society, he travelled all through the Northern States and in some of the border States, delivering speeches. In many instances the meetings which he addressed were broken up by mobs. He attended the World's Anti-Slavery Convention in London in 1840, and spoke in most of the large cities of Great Britain and Ireland. During the years 1838–1840 he was active in the movement to form the abolitionists into a compact political party, which was resisted by Garrison and others, and resulted in a lasting dissension in their ranks. After this he acted with the Liberty party, and then joined the movement to establish the Republican party. Meanwhile he had studied law, and practised it with success, at first in Boston and afterwards at Seneca Falls, N. Y. He was twice elected to the New York State Senate. When Horace Greeley was editor of the *Tribune*, Mr. Stanton wrote for that paper, and for the last eighteen years he had been a member of the editorial staff of the *Sun*. In the latter part of his life his political affiliations were with the Democratic party. Mr. Stanton married in 1840 Miss Elizabeth Cady of Johnstown, N. Y., daughter of Daniel Cady, an eminent lawyer.

Prof. Edward Olney of the University of Michigan, the author of a complete series of text-books and one of the best-known educators in the West, was found dead at his home in Ann Arbor on Sunday. He was sixty years of age.

Gen. W. B. Hazen, the Chief Signal Officer, died in Washington on Sunday evening. He had been out of health for some time. Gen. Hazen was born in Vermont in 1830, and was graduated from West Point in 1855. He first served against the Indians, was later Assistant Professor of Military Tactics at West Point, and served through the war for the Union. He was appointed Chief Signal Officer in 1880.

Prof. Edward Livingston Youmans, the distinguished writer on scientific subjects, died in this city on Tuesday at the age of sixty-five. He established the *Popular Science Monthly* in 1872, and has since been its editor, assisted in recent years by William J. Youmans. For nearly forty years Prof. Youmans has held intimate relations with the publishing house of D. Appleton & Co., and it is understood that his influence had much to do with making the publication of scientific works a leading feature of the firm's business. Through him Herbert Spencer's works were first published in this country. Prof. Youmans was a personal friend of Mr. Spencer, and was well known to scientific men in all parts of Europe. He projected in 1871 the "International Scientific Series," arranging for the publication of the works in New York, London, Paris, and Leipsic, with a subsequent extension of the system to Milan and St. Petersburg. He was the author of a 'Class Book of Chemistry,' 1852; 'Alcohol and the Constitution of Man,' 1853; 'The Chemical Atlas,' with text, 1855; 'The Handbook of Household Science,' 1857; 'The Correlation and Conservation of Forces,' 1864; and 'The Culture Demanded by Modern Life,' 1867.

FOREIGN.

The debate on the German Army Bill was continued in the Reichstag on Wednesday. Herr Hasenclever declared on behalf of the Socialists that they would oppose every increase of the army. He vehemently criticised the contemptuous manner in which the Chancellor refered to the Reichstag, and said that in every other Parliament in the world a minister who so treated the majority would be forced to resign. The Chairman called Hasenclever to order. Both Hasenclever and Windthorst reproached Bismarck for his blunt explanation of German and French relations, which they said would excite instead of calm France. Bismarck made no reply.

Prince Bismarck made another notable speech in the Reichstag on Thursday, in the course of which he said: "The papers even ask us to use our soldiers to bar Russia's road to Constantinople. To do this would, perhaps, be in England's interest. But we have a difficult task to maintain peace and act permanently as moderator between two Powers, both our friends. Had I acted in 1867, at the epoch of the Luxemburg question, not as mediator, but in the manner in which I have been asked to do now, I should not have had to meet one bloody war alone, but many. In years to come, if Russia attacks us, then we must and shall defend ourselves to the last drop of blood. As matters stand, Russia has no cause to attack us, nor have we any cause to attack Russia. It is just as little conceivable that the Poles would involve us in war with Russia, for it would be very doubtful whether they would profit by Russian victory. I fail to understand how the same party should, on the one hand, seek to involve us, while on the other hand they would refuse or curtail the means of war. The comparison which has been drawn between our treaty with Italy in 1866 and the agreement of the King of Hanover with Napoleon does not hold good. According to the latter the Hanover Legion was only to act in the event of the cession of the left bank of the Rhine. You found no analogous clause in our treaty with Italy. There could never have been a question of the cession of German territory. Nor is it possible to show the existence of any understanding with Italy bearing the slightest resemblance to that between George V. and Napoleon III."

On the reassembling of the Reichstag on Friday Herr von Stauffenberg's amendment limiting the duration of the bill to three years was carried, the vote being 186 to 154. The Conservatives, Imperialists, and National Liberals voted with the minority. The Socialists and most of the Alsatian members abstained from voting. Prince Bismarck immediately read an imperial message dissolving the Reichstag. An imperial decree was issued on Friday afternoon, fixing February 21 for the holding of general elections for members of the new Reichstag.

The publication in Paris of the full text of Prince Bismarck's speeches in the Reichstag is tending to alter the tone of public opinion regarding his utterances. The Chancellor is charged with brutality, and with endeavoring to provoke a war with France. The principal result will be to strengthen Gen. Boulanger's demand for military credits. The War Minister, in order to avoid a conflict with his colleagues, has consented to accept a credit of 87,500,000 francs as sufficient for the present year; but his original demand for 325,000,000 francs remains his estimate on paper.

M. Floquet, on assuming the chair of President in the French Chamber of Deputies on Thursday, said he hoped that wise concord and a spirit of compromise would prevail among the members of the Chamber, who, he hoped, would all be animated by patriotic emulation to work for the progress of national institutions, in the first rank of which the Government placed the army. This declaration was received with applause. Continuing, M. Floquet said: "When, without distinction of party, we follow with equal solicitude the earnest efforts of the valiant youth of France, and when with unanimous impulse we accept every sacrifice to increase our country's power, we do not feel agitated by feverish impatience or desire. Only with tranquil persevering shall we place ourselves in position to fulfil all our duties and secure for France the respect of all. The essential condition of that is peace, which we prize as highly as anybody in the world."

In a test vote on Monday in the French Chamber of Deputies, Premier Goblet was sustained by 273 to 220.

The Russian budget for the past year shows a deficit of $26,113,310. The Minister of Finance proposes to raise $30,357,140 for extra expenditure by means of a loan.

Italy will act as mediator between Russia and Bulgaria, France having refused the duty.

In the recent Greek elections all the members of the Ministry were returned. The Government will have a majority of two-thirds in the new Chamber.

The British political world was startled on Wednesday morning by the announcement that Lord Iddesleigh had died suddenly. He fainted while ascending the stairs of Lord Salisbury's official residence in Downing Street as he was about to visit his Lordship. He was taken to the Prime Minister's room and expired in twenty minutes. His physician says: "Lord Iddesleigh for many years past has suffered with cardiac affections, which, while not placing his life in immediate peril, rendered the prospect of its sudden termination only too possible. He died of syncope." Lord Iddesleigh (Sir Stafford Henry Northcote) was born in London October 27, 1818, educated at Eton and Oxford, graduating first in classics, was private secretary to Mr. Gladstone in 1843-5, when the latter was President of the Board of Trade, and in 1851 succeeded to the Baronetcy of his grandfather. He assisted Sir C. E. Trevelyan in drawing up a report, in 1854, which led to the civil service being thrown open to public competition. He entered Parliament in 1855, was Financial Secretary to the Treasury in 1859, President of the Board of Trade in Lord Derby's third Administration in 1866, and Secretary of State for India from 1867 to 1868. He was a member of the Joint High Commission whose labors resulted in the Treaty of Washington in 1871. In 1874 he entered Disraeli's Cabinet as Chancellor of the Exchequer, and when Disraeli became a peer he succeeded him as leader of his party in the House of Commons, holding office until 1880. Sir Stafford led the Opposition during Gladstone's Ministry from 1880 to the formation of the Salisbury Ministry in June, 1885. Meanwhile Lord Randolph Churchill had come into notoriety by his frequent attacks on Mr. Gladstone, his breaches of party discipline, and his evident sympathy with certain phases of Radicalism. He gradually surrounded himself with a coterie of young men who aspired to turn Toryism in new directions. When Lord Salisbury formed his first Ministry (June, 1885), this element worked to have Sir Stafford Northcote "decently shelved." He was given the high Cabinet office of First Lord of the Admiralty, but was transferred to the House of Lords under the title of Earl of Iddesleigh, thus losing his leadership. In Salisbury's second Ministry (1886) he was made Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs. This office he held until Lord Randolph Churchill's recent resignation from the Cabinet. In order to enable Lord Salisbury to form a coalition Cabinet with the Whigs, Lord Iddesleigh proffered his resignation. When the Prime Minister failed in that undertaking, Lord Iddesleigh considered himself entitled to his old portfolio, but was offered the Privy Seal. This he rejected, and retired from office under a strong sense of having been ill-treated.

It was announced in London on Tuesday that Saturday's Cabinet Council determined to bring in a bill at the beginning of the session to empower the Crown in certain cases to summon special jurors, and, if necessary, to change the venue, and also to confer on magistrates power to deal summarily with inciting to conspiracy, intimidation, and boycotting, the punishment for such offences not to exceed three months' imprisonment. The striking feature of this news is, that even a Tory Government no longer dares introduce a coercion bill for Ireland alone; for the new bill will be applicable to the whole United Kingdom.

Mr. W. H. Smith, First Lord of the Treasury, and Conservative leader in the House of Commons, has sent a circular to supporters of the Government asking them to make every effort to attend the opening of Parliament, as they will be invited to proceed directly to the consideration of questions of grave importance.

Mr. Goschen will contest the Exchange Division of Liverpool. He has issued an address in which he asserts that he is still a Liberal, and that he rallied to the support of the Government under the influence of deep conviction that the duty of men of all parties was to close up their ranks in the face of the common danger threatening the existence of the United Kingdom.

Mr. John Bright, in a letter declining an invitation to attend a meeting of the advocates of federation, on the ground that he has no sympathy with the objects and purposes thereof, says the federation project is mainly the offspring of the jingo spirit which clamors for a vast and continually widening empire, and seems almost ready to boast that the Empire can fight the world outside of its own limits. Mr. Bright says he would recommend sensible men to let the question rest.

In the course of a speech in London on Thursday Mr. Henry M. Stanley said that he had decided to take the route by way of the Congo River as the best and most expeditious for the relief of Emin Pasha. Passage might be forced by other routes, but he pointed out that after the caravans had passed along them all those routes would be closed, while the Congo would always be open. The expedition would leave London, he said, January 20. Later reports of his intentions point to the Zanzibar route.

LABOR LEGISLATION.

Among the few labor problems which, nearly all persons are agreed, can be dealt with by legislation, are the two questions of child labor and weekly cash payments of the laborers' wages. No dispute, it is thought, can arise here as to either the wisdom or the efficiency of summary and stringent laws to limit the one and to enforce the other. England and America have gone far to restrict the employment of children in factories, and economists are at one with philanthropists in seeking to extend such legislation by advancing the limit of the child's lawful working age. Equally are they agreed as to the need of some means for abolishing store payments and monthly payments of wages, and substituting the cash system. If there are great difficulties surrounding both these reforms, as to the need of which there is little difference of opinion, should we wonder that the radical philosophers and orators who declaim about the wrongs of labor either take refuge in generalities, when asked to frame bills to carry their ideas into effect, or end in some ridiculous climax like Gov. Hill's recommendation that a new legal holiday be established, to be called Labor Day, and to be set apart for meditating on the subject of labor?

The two questions of child labor and weekly payments form the subjects of the annual report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the State of Connecticut. This Bureau has been in the charge of Prof. A. T. Hadley, as Commissioner, a trained thinker, investigator, and statistician, known to the country as the author of the best treatise on another vexed question, commonly called the Railroad Problem. It has been stated in the newspapers that Prof. Hadley's place as Commissioner "is wanted" by some politician or Walking Delegate, and that he is to be removed from office. However that may be, he has left on the public records of the State the most intelligent and painstaking examination of these two labor problems that has been supplied from any American source. That his sympathies are altogether with the laboring man is apparent on every page, but he does not fail to show that the reforms demanded, which upon the whole he favors, can be gained only after much pain and suffering among the wage workers themselves, and at the expense of the poorest and feeblest members of the class.

Connecticut passed a law last year prohibiting the employment of children under thirteen years of age. "If any law is to be obeyed," says the report, "this one ought to be." Yet there has been the greatest resistance to its enforcement. This has come from places where it would be least expected—that is, from the most needy operatives, "to whom the twenty-five cents a day that a child can earn by working in the mills is a present consideration that will outweigh anything else, who will not merely connive at evasions of the law, but make every effort to obstruct its enforcement." The case is cited of a twelve-year-old boy who was actually supporting a family on wages of five dollars a week earned without detriment to his own health and vigor. When the law came in force he was driven out of the factory by the State inspectors. This case is cited, not as an argument against the law, but as an index to the secret and powerful opposition to its enforcement among the operatives themselves. Prof. Hadley thinks, however, that "the general object to be obtained is so good that we must be prepared to enforce the law even though it may create great hardship in individual cases." He thinks that the thirteen years' limit can be enforced, and that possibly a fourteen years' limit might be, but that beyond this there would be grave doubt whether the State could insure obedience to it. As a general rule applicable to all labor laws, Prof. Hadley remarks that "when workmen are ready to make personal effort to enforce the law in their behalf, it is surprising how little legislation is needed." It is a great mistake to suppose that employers are the ones to suffer from the discontinuance of child labor, or that they are opposed to its abolition. The effective opposition comes from the weakest of the laboring class, since it is upon these that the heaviest burden of the change falls.

The larger part of the report is taken up with the questions of weekly payments, factorizing, store pay, the credit system, etc. Here we have not only a large array of statistical information and individual opinion from employers and employees, but also a careful collation of the laws of other States, all forming the foundation of a methodical treatment of the subject. The question is really that of the cash system against the credit system in factory labor. The cash system is the best, of course, because it dispenses with interest on money, and promotes habits of saving and thrift among the operatives. The laboring man is easily enticed, by the facility of obtaining credit, to spend a little more than he would if he had the money in his pocket and was obliged to pay cash down. There is a certain amount of sheer waste in the credit system that amounts to a loss to the whole community. Why not, then, pass a law requiring all employers to pay their workmen weekly? Three leading objections are urged by employers, who are, however, rather the small employers in the villages distant from banks than the large firms and corporations. In so far as there are hardships connected with the system of weekly payments, Prof. Hadley shows by a rigid analysis that they will fall upon the weaker firms, and by so much add to the predominance of the stronger—in other words, create monopolies or enlarge existing ones. The three objections are:

(1.) In many lines of business it is impossible to ascertain as often as once a week the amount which a man has earned; still less possible is it to pay him for work which is in an unfinished state.

(2.) In a still larger number of cases payment at frequent intervals, while not absolutely impracticable, seems to involve additional expense and inconvenience on account of the additional clerical force and work which it demands.

(3.) Other concerns, again, especially in the smaller towns, find it difficult to maintain the necessary cash reserve which weekly payment involves.

All these objections are examined by the light of the statistical and other information gained, and all are set aside as insufficient to rebut the arguments which are urged in support of the proposed law. But when we have got to the end, we find that we have not, after all, abolished the credit system, which is the real object of attack, since usurers will step in and lend money to improvident operatives at exorbitant rates of interest, if they are sure of getting paid in the end. This condition would be rather worse than the existing state of things. After considering all the pros and cons, Prof. Hadley concludes and recommends, as a measure better than any arbitrary requirement respecting weekly payments, that a law be passed exempting from legal attachment (prior to the obtaining of judgment and execution) the wages of laboring men, and he favors total rather than partial exemption. Already, exemptions, either total or partial, are embodied in the laws of one-half of the States of the Union. The protection which the right of attachment gives to the storekeeper being taken away, he will give no more credit except to those whose personal character entitles them to it. A law against the assignment of wages would be a necessary corollary, and these two measures are considered to be the only practicable and self-executing means to achieve the ends sought to be reached by the system of weekly payments.

JUDGE GRESHAM'S DECISION IN THE WABASH CASE.

It will be worth the while of any person interested in railroad securities to read the decision of Judge Gresham in the case of the Wabash Railroad (now published in the *Federal Reporter*), resulting in the dismissal of the receivers for breach of duty to the bondholders, and the appointment of a thoroughly competent man, Judge Cooley, as receiver in their place.

It is not hard reading. Like the opinions of most clear-headed lawyers, it is perfectly comprehensible to any one who will have the patience to make himself acquainted with the details of facts. There are no citations of authorities, no parade of aphorisms about moral duties, or repetition of the utterances of other courts, to break the sequence of the argument. Indeed, there is scarcely room for argument—outside of a court-room, where everything seems arguable—on a question involving the claims of receivers, based on orders obtained from a facile judge to pay debts of the Missouri Pacific Railway by receivers' certificates; which were expected to have priority over the earliest mortgages of the Wabash; while threats of enforcing them as such were used to compel the bondholders to accept a lower rate of interest for bonds which were perfectly secure, if the rights of the holders were respected. These bonds the receivers had greatly depreciated in value, and had rendered apparently insecure by diverting the revenues of the road to other purposes than the payment of the interest on the earlier securities.

Without any rhodomontade, the opinion states that an order was obtained directing the receivers to pay a loss of more than three millions of dollars, incurred by the Missouri Pacific in operating the Wabash system as lessees, just as if it was a debt of the Wabash Railroad, when it was, in fact, that of the

lessees to whom the profits would have accrued, and who therefore were responsible for the losses. The Court does not take the trouble to inquire whether such a loss was incurred, or whether it was only a question of book-keeping, but is satisfied to state that it was not a debt of the Wabash which the receivers paid.

Next, it disposes of an order directing the receivers to pay $2,300,000 of notes of the Wabash Railroad endorsed by Solon Humphreys, one of the receivers, and by Gould, Dillon, and Sage, in the petition for which it appears that the notes were endorsed by sundry individuals of high credit and financial standing. "For the sake of *entire* frankness," says the Court, "the name of Solon Humphreys was disclosed as one of the endorsers, but the names of Gould, Dillon, and Sage, the other three endorsers, were withheld 'because of the *personal inconvenience and injury which might result* from the publicity given to their business affairs.'"

It next takes up a most charming arrangement by which the receivers supplied the railroad with coal from a mine owned by Humphreys, one of the receivers, Gould, Dillon, Sage, Hopkins, and Charles Ridgley, all directors of the Wabash, at a price which Judge Gresham could not approve of, and in relation to which the opinion says: "Men with a proper appreciation of their rights and of the rights of others—trustworthy men—are not apt to be found in such inconsistent relations. Gould, Humphreys, Dillon, Sage, Hopkins, and Ridgley are men of stern integrity if their interests in the coal company did not improperly influence their action as directors of the Wabash Company."

Next the Court holds that the minority bondholders who refused to be bullied into accepting a lower rate of interest on their bonds, "if they *selfishly* stood out against the committee's scheme, and would enter into the most complicated litigation ever known in the railroading of this country, with its exasperating delays and endless expense," can have ample redress; dismisses the receiver, and directs the mortgage to be foreclosed for the benefit of the minority bondholders, who have some rights which the law and receivers must respect.

There is certainly a directness and clearness of purpose in this decision which contrasts favorably with the labored productions of some judges, who cannot state the most self-evident result without leaning for support on the decisions of other courts. Probably instances of equally gross malversations of duty have come before other courts. The dealings of the receivers and the directors with their coal mine appear, perhaps, less offensive to those engaged in railroads than to this judge and other men; but the wholesale payment of the loss of one railroad out of the property in the hands of the receivers of another, belonging to the mortgage creditors, is certainly exceptional, and the payment of Humphreys's and Gould's endorsements of unsecured debts may be called unique. It is not often, however, that the offence is so distinctly stated, and the result made to follow so absolutely, and without any apology by the Court to offenders as high in financial circles as these.

With the order dismissing the receivers who did the wrong, and proceeding to give redress to the minority whose rights were threatened by the Purchasing Committee, the decision ends. For these latter persons there is redress, but what is the redress for those whose timidity or poverty compelled them to sell out at a depreciation? Probably none. That class of people go to the wall, or into smaller rooms and garrets, and trouble syndicates no more in this world.

HOW THE PEOPLE VOTED.

THE Republican press, and that part of the Democratic press whose happiness is increased by any indication that it thinks it can discover of a lack of popular support of President Cleveland, made much use, immediately after the November elections, of the discovery that the Democratic majority in the next House of Representatives would not be so large as is the majority in the present one. No mention was made, of course, of the fact that, at the Congressional election that follows a Presidential election, it has almost uniformly been the case that the representation in the popular legislative body of the party in power has been decreased, and especially was there an omission of any presentation of the vote of the people by States. The official canvass in many of the States is made with deliberateness, and it was not until the announcement was made on Monday of the official vote of Texas that a presentation of the State statistics could be made in official form. Now that they are at hand they are worthy of inspection.

Twenty-four States voted last November for State officers at large. Of these, the official vote of all but one—Colorado—has been declared. There being practically no opposition tickets in either Delaware or South Carolina, and only a judicial contest in North Carolina, these States are omitted from the tables of comparison. The pluralities of the heads of the other State tickets compare as follows with the pluralities for Presidential candidates in 1884; all the States not marked with an asterisk elected a Governor last year:

PLURALITIES.

	1886		1884	
	Rep.	Dem.	Rep.	Dem.
Cal	.....	652	13,128	.....
Conn	.....	1,898	.....	1,276
*Illinois	34,705	.....	25,118	.....
*Indiana	3,319	.....	.....	6,427
*Iowa	14,712	.....	19,773	.....
Kansas	33,918	.....	64,274	.....
Mass	9,463	.....	24,372	.....
Michigan	7,730	.....	3,308	.....
Minn	2,600	.....	41,620	.....
Missouri	.....	50,635	.....	33,059
Neb	23,300	.....	22,521	.....
Nevada	594	.....	1,615	.....
N. H	485	.....	4,066	.....
N. J	.....	8,020	.....	4,412
*N. Y	.....	7,818	.....	1,047
*Ohio	11,781	.....	31,802	.....
Pa	42,851	.....	61,019	.....
Tenn	.....	16,801	.....	9,180
Texas	.....	163,540	.....	125,301
Wis	18,718	.....	14,698	.....
Total	204,176	249,364	327,314	180,702
Net	.....	45,188	146,612	.....

The changes which this table presents are very striking. It will be seen that the Republican majorities in 1886 show a loss of 123,138, while the Democratic majorities show a gain of 68,662, making a total Democratic gain (or Republican loss) of 191,800.

The total Republican and Democratic vote in the years named was as follows:

	1886		1884	
	Rep.	Dem.	Rep.	Dem.
Cal	84,318	84,970	102,416	89,288
Conn	56,920	58,818	65,923	67,199
Illinois	275,366	240,661	337,469	312,351
Indiana	231,922	228,603	238,463	244,990
Iowa	180,309	165,597	197,089	177,516
Kansas	149,615	115,697	154,406	90,132
Mass	122,346	112,883	146,724	122,352
Michigan	181,518	173,788	192,669	189,361
Minn	107,064	104,464	111,685	70,065
Missouri	178,490	229,125	202,929	235,988
Neb	75,956	52,656	76,912	54,391
Nevada	6,463	5,869	7,193	5,578
N. H	37,819	37,334	43,249	39,183
N. J	101,919	109,939	123,336	127,778
N. Y	460,636	468,454	562,001	563,048
Ohio	341,095	329,314	400,082	368,280
Pa	412,485	369,634	473,804	392,785
Tenn	109,837	126,638	124,078	133,258
Texas	65,236	228,776	93,141	225,309
Wis	133,247	114,529	161,157	146,459
Total	3,312,561	3,357,749	3,814,726	3,655,111

An analysis of this last table shows that, while the Republican vote of 1886 fell off in the twenty States 502,165 as compared with that of 1884, the Democratic vote suffered a loss of only 342,550. Thirteen of these States gave a plurality for Blaine in 1884, and seven of them gave a plurality for Cleveland. In nine of the Republican States the Democrats made gains in 1886, and in a tenth (Wisconsin) the Republican candidate, as is acknowledged, received many votes outside of his party because of his firm stand against the rioters last summer. Every one of the seven States that were Democratic in 1884 increased the Democratic majority last year save one, viz., Indiana. If the Blaine press or the anti-Cleveland Democratic press can find in these figures any grounds for thinking that public opinion is shaping itself in favor of a spoils ticket in 1888, they are welcome to make their plans accordingly.

We add a fuller comparative table of the Prohibition vote of 1884 and 1886 than has been published:

	1886.	1884.
California	6,432	2,920
Connecticut	4,691	2,305
Illinois	19,527	12,074
Indiana	9,185	3,528
Iowa	578	1,472
Kansas	8,094	4,495
Massachusetts	8,251	9,923
Michigan	25,333	18,403
Minnesota	18,966	4,384
Missouri	3,504	2,153
Nebraska	8,175	2,899
Nevada	.....	.....
New Hampshire	2,132	1,571
New Jersey	19,808	6,153
New York	36,414	24,999
Ohio	28,982	11,069
Pennsylvania	32,422	15,283
Tennessee	.....	1,131
Texas	19,486	3,534
Wisconsin	17,089	7,656
Total	268,769	135,752

Here is an increase of nearly 100 per cent. in the vote of this third party in two years, and an increase so evenly distributed that it has taken place in sixteen out of twenty States.

THE SHARPLES PORTRAITS.

THE comfortable assurance, under which many of our citizens have rested, that we were soon to possess veritable treasures in the so-called Sharples portraits of Washington and his family, now on exhibition and for sale in this country, has received a severe shock from the report on these portraits presented to the Massachusetts Historical Society on January 13 by Mr. Francis Parkman, chairman of a committee appointed by that society to investigate the historical value of these pictures. In November last, Major Walter, who represents the family in England now owning the portraits, and who has published a large and elegant volume entitled 'Memorials of Washington' (see No. 1114 of the *Nation*

in support of their claim to authenticity, appeared before the Historical Society with a view to obtaining its backing in his appeal to the national Government at Washington to purchase the portraits for the nation. The result is the present report of Mr. Parkman, which will not be pleasant reading to Major Walter or his coadjutors. As a model of quiet and yet crushing sarcasm it is as good as Bentley's essay on the letters of Phalaris.

The claim in question rests mainly on letters published by Major Walter, which are ascribed to Washington, to the artist Sharples, and to "good Robert Cary," the London banker, who figures as "the friend, benefactor, and admirer" of Washington. Of the Washington letter, which has no date, Mr. Parkman says:

"Its style bears no resemblance to the well-known style of the alleged writer. It bears, however, a striking resemblance to the very peculiar style of Major Walter, which is marked by frequent and conspicuous solecisms. One of these is his often repeated use of the verb *to name* in the sense of *to mention*. Washington also is made to say, 'I have been solicited *to name* that, if Mr. Sharples thinks of returning to this country, a good opportunity would be offered to bring them [the pictures] out.' And again, a few lines below, 'My wife declines to join in asking your consent—I have undertaken simply *to name* it.' The letter begins with thanks for two jars of pickled tripe, sent as a present by Cary, and the illustrious writer adds: 'Dental infirmity impels us caring for this necessary item in our domestic commissariat'—a sentence eminently Walterian, as is also the injunction that Sharples shall be required to paint copies of his portraits 'in the best manner of his capability.'"

The original letter from which these precious extracts are taken is said by Major Walter to have been destroyed at Washington's own request "for politica reasons." No explanation is given of the sudden appearance in print of a letter which was destroyed in the last century. Another of Major Walter's favorite expressions is the use of *evidence* as a verb; and Sharples in his letters follows his modern admirer, and says: "General Hamilton *evidences* more what painters would call 'background knowledge.'" This and the other phrase *to name* have infected to a disgraceful extent the styles of Washington Irving, Hawthorne, Emerson, Macready, Col. Trumbull, Albert Gallatin, and others, as they appear in their letters quoted by Major Walter.

But the gem of the whole collection of letters is that of the banker Cary, quoted by Major Walter on p. 242 of his 'Memorials.' "There," says Mr. Parkman, "we look in vain for the characteristic traces of Major Walter's pen." But, "by a remarkable coincidence," the sentiments of the old London banker and even his very words reappear in a speech made by the Irish orator Charles Phillips in 1814 on Dina's Island, in the lakes of Killarney. We give the letter and the speech in parallel columns:

THE BANKER CARY.	CHARLES PHILLIPS.
"May not the follies of the Old World at some distant day inter all the pride of its power and the pomp of its civilization, and may not human nature find her destined renovation in the empire created by Washington! May not the glory of past great ones prove to be legendary traditions! The monumental record of natural rise and natural ruin proclaims that no splendor of achievement, no solidity of success, can insure to empire the permanence of its possession. Troy thought so once, yet the land of Priam lives only in song! Thebes thought so once, yet her hundred gates have crumbled and her tombs are as the dust they were destined to commemorate. So thought Palmyra! Where is she? So thought Demosthenes and the Spartans, but Leonidas is trampled by the timid slave. The days of their glory are as if they never had been, and the Island that was then a mere speck, rude and neglected in the barren ocean, now rivals all the wealth of their commerce, the glory of their names, the fame of their philosophy, the eloquence of their Senate, and the inspiration of their bards." ('Memorials of Washington,' p. 242.)	"Who shall say that when, in its follies or its crimes, the Old World may have interred all the pride of its power and all the pomp of its civilization, human nature may not find its destined renovation in the New? . . . When the glories of our name shall be but the legend of tradition, philosophy will rise again in the sky of her Freedom, and glory rekindle at the urn of her Washington. I appeal to history. Tell me, thou reverend chronicler of the grave, can ambition, wealth, commerce or heroism secure to empire the permanency of its possessions? Alas! Troy thought so once, yet the land of Priam lives only in song! Thebes thought so once, yet her hundred gates have crumbled and her monuments are as the dust they were vainly intended to commemorate! So thought Palmyra; but where is she? So thought the countries of Demosthenes and Leonidas; yet Sparta is trampled by the timid slave, and Athens insulted by the servile Ottoman. The days of their glory are as if they had never been; and the island which was then a speck, rude and neglected in the barren ocean, now rivals the ubiquity of their commerce, the glory of their arms, the force of their philosophy, the eloquence of their Senate, and the inspiration of their bards."

All will agree with Mr. Parkman's remarks on this coincidence:

"If it is not likely that the 'plain London merchant'—the words are Major Walter's—would have poured himself out in this rhetorical strain, neither is it likely that the Irish orator had ever heard of Cary, or still less have got access to his private papers. On the other hand, it is very likely that the words of Phillips, which have been often printed, and which some of us will remember in the school-books of our boyhood, may have met the eye of Major Walter."

The report ends as follows:

"The Committee began their inquiry under a strong impression that the three portraits were what they were represented to be; but this was quickly removed on an examination of the evidence produced by Major Walter in proof of his assertions, since it is of such a character that, for reasons given above, and others almost equally cogent, they feel compelled wholly to reject it."

We trust that the authorities at Washington will take this document into serious consideration before they add these new treasures to the national gallery of historic portraits.

NEBULOUS ENGLISH POLITICS.

LONDON, January 1.

THE Queen's jubilee year is coming in like a lion. It is to be hoped that it will be true to the whole of the proverb, and go out like a lamb. At present we are in the region of storms, meteorological and social. The one hope of peace abroad lies in the fact that France and Germany, between whom lies the real point of disturbance, are each too strong to attack the other. Neither can get at the other. The frontier on either side of the Rhine is reported by experts to be impregnable, save by the invasion of the neutral territories of Belgium and Switzerland. Austria is too weak to challenge Russia alone, and Germany would certainly not see Austria attacked and dismembered. If England's interest in the Bulgarian and Eastern questions is, as Lord Salisbury contends, too slight to make it necessary to interfere as a principal in the controversy, most persons will be disposed to agree with Lord Randolph Churchill that she ought not to interfere at all. However, reason and calculation speak only in the beginning of a quarrel, or before the quarrel has begun. Passion and accident usually decide the actual entrance into a fray, and, like love in the poem, will find out the way.

At home, politics, like the streets, are in a state of fog, which only now and then lifts. Statesmen, like pedestrians, are involved in "a London particular," and accidents and collisions abound. When I last wrote to you, I mentioned the opinion entertained by some very close observers that Lord Randolph Churchill's retirement from the Government would not be long delayed, and that before the session was many weeks old he would have found a pretext for withdrawing himself. In the view of some well-placed critics it was thought that the opposition of his colleagues, or, if they were won over or bullied into acquiescence, of a large number of the Conservative party, to closure by a simple majority would give him the pretext which he desired. But he has been in too great a hurry to wait. I referred also to the opinion that an understanding existed between Lord Randolph Churchill and Mr. Chamberlain, and that they would find an opportunity of coming together. This, too, has been confirmed. Mr. Chamberlain, who could not come to London to attend the Unionist meeting over which Lord Hartington presided, was called to town, no doubt on purely private business, a day or two before Lord Randolph exploded his resignation on the public in the columns of the *Times*. He dined with the Chancellor of the Exchequer—as Lord Randolph Churchill was then and still is, and will be till his successor is appointed—in Connaught Place. There is reason to suppose that he knew what was going to happen. The speech which Mr. Chamberlain delivered in Birmingham on the day of the announcement scarcely affected surprise. The eulogy which he passed on Lord Randolph's democratic Toryism had all the air of being thought over beforehand, and of having been kept in reserve for the occasion. The relations between Lord Randolph and Mr. Chamberlain have been very close and intimate, off and on. Each has a strong admiration for the audacity and unscrupulousness, and an immense belief in the cleverness and the future, of the other. They have a good deal in common. Lord Randolph is a sort of Blenheim Chamberlain. Mr. Chamberlain is a sort of Brummagem Churchill. They are drawn together by the attraction which unites, not like to like, but like to difference. Personal and political quarrels have not been infrequent with them. They have attacked each other in the House, reciprocating accusations of treason and falsehood, to which neither of them is particularly sensitive. There have been seasons in which they have ceased to speak to each other; but the quarrels have been those of outraged affection, and have been followed by the renewal of love.

Another political revolution has been not less remarkable. Mr. Chamberlain has bitterly resented Mr. John Morley's claim to have a political soul of his own, and his daring to remain in a government which Mr. Chamberlain had quitted. In the political sense, Mr. Chamberlain believed that he had invented Mr. John Morley and patented him, and that no one else had a right to employ him. Their mutual criticism on public platforms has been of a more than sub-acid kind. Lord Randolph is supposed to cherish the same sentiment towards Mr. Henry Mathews, whom he brought into the Cabinet and made Home Secretary, and who has declined to follow Lord Randolph out of the Cabinet. To return to Mr. Chamberlain. His speech at Birmingham was interpreted as showing signs of a yielding or coming-on disposition, and Mr. Morley was authorized or felt himself at liberty to enter into negotiations with him. They have celebrated their personal reconciliation by going to the play together, and witnessing Mr. Irving's performance of the part of a politician able to give lessons to the most expert wire-puller and caucus manager. Whether a political understanding with a more considerable personage than Mr. John Morley will follow this personal reconciliation, is a question which is hidden in the bosom of the future and of Mr. Gladstone. If Mr. Gladstone can see his way to modifying and restricting his home-rule scheme so as to bring it within limits compatible with the maintenance of the United Parliament as established in the Act of the Union, and the authority of the Imperial Executive over every portion of the United Kingdom, the controversy, so far as Mr. Chamberlain and the Radical Unionists are concerned, would be at an end. There would still be room for a large devolution of properly Irish business to a National Council, with its own Executive acting in subordination to the Imperial Parliament and Executive. Mr. Chamberlain cannot go further than this without self-stultification. Mr. Gladstone, with no other inconsistency than is involved in a statesmanlike accommodation of himself to circum-

stances, might fairly take the result of the last general election as decisive against the form and mechanism of his scheme, and set about the task of adjusting it to the conditions imposed by the declared opinion of the nation. If Mr. Gladstone cannot bring himself to take this course, there seems to be little advantage in sanctioning his late Chief Secretary's explorations into Mr. Chamberlain's feelings and intentions. Even if Mr. Gladstone's personal objections were overcome, Mr. Parnell would have to be squared or otherwise operated on. The "gastric fever" of the Irish Parliamentary leader has happily been subdued, but there is reason to fear that the "complications" with which it was accompanied remain. Mr. Gladstone, however, might not be indisposed to welcome a reunion of the Liberal party which should put it into the position in which he invited the country to place it at the general election of 1885—a position in which, while prepared to listen to the suggestions of the Irish party, it should be numerically and therefore morally independent of them.

It is obvious from many public symptoms as well as privately notorious, that Mr. Chamberlain feels his position as a dissentient Liberal following the lead of Lord Hartington as unsuitable as Lord Randolph Churchill felt his democratic Toryism to be in the Conservative Cabinet of Lord Salisbury. He cannot cut the knot as Lord Randolph did, and must, therefore, do his best to untie it. It is doubtful whether anything could bring back Lord Hartington into the Gladstone fold. It was his vote, added to that of the peers, which defeated, in the penultimate Gladstone Cabinet, Mr. Chamberlain's proposal of a National Council for Ireland. In the Cabinet deliberations of Mr. Gladstone's Government, Lord Hartington has always been much stronger in resistance than in his platform and Parliamentary declarations. It is only the personal authority of Mr. Gladstone which has kept Lord Hartington and Mr. Chamberlain in the same Government. It is doubtful whether they will ever belong again to the same ministry. A formal coalition of Whigs and Conservatives may not be imminent. What is more likely is such a reconstitution of parties as will rank the party of semi-socialistic Radicalism and experimental Democracy with Mr. Chamberlain, Mr. John Morley, and very possibly Lord Randolph Churchill, on the one side, and the adherents of the older political economy and the traditional politics of England—whether so-called Whig or Conservative—on the other.

For the moment, however, the question is, Will Lord Salisbury's Government last, and of whom is it to consist? This will be known to you in all its details so many days before this letter can be in your hands, that it would be challenging the worst fate that can imperil even a prophet, whether in his own country or in another, to venture on prediction. Lord Randolph may be in again and out once more before Parliament meets. There may be a large reconstruction of the Ministry or a paltry patching of it. The one thing certain is that there can be no result entirely satisfactory. Lord Randolph Churchill can only be an element of disturbance and distrust to any ministry which he may join or rejoin. Lord Hartington and his friends have elected to be independent auxiliaries of the Government. If Mr. Goschen were either now or in the course of a few weeks to be persuaded to come in as Chancellor of the Exchequer and leader in the House of Commons, he would be wholly out of harmony with the party which would vainly endeavor to follow him. His conservatism of the closet and of the city has nothing in common with the Conservatism of the Tory country gentleman and the Tory vestryman. In fact, there is scarcely the possibility of a real Conservative leader of the House of Commons. Such a man ought to unite the tact of the man of business, the good breeding of the country gentleman, and the combativeness of the prize-fighter. If Lord Salisbury could become Lord Robert Cecil again, the difficulty would be solved. But the House of Lords is like the other world—anybody may go there, nobody can come back from it. "Don't talk to me of Prime Ministers," said the late Sir George Lewis. "I can name half-a-dozen possible Prime Ministers. Tell me who your leader of the House of Commons is, and I will tell you how your Ministry will fare." For the moment, and probably for much longer than the moment, the policy of Lord Salisbury is reduced to the policy of keeping in—*j'y suis, j'y reste*—and of Lord Hartington of helping him to keep in. F. L.

THE LAND WAR IN IRELAND.

DUBLIN, January 4, 1887.

WHAT is known as the "Plan of Campaign"—that is, the united action of the tenants on each estate in demanding a reduction in rent proportioned to the fall in prices, and the payment, if the landlord refuses it, of the reduced rents to trustees, who are to use the fund to defend the tenants in case of legal proceedings—is an excellent substitute for the outrage, violence, tumult, and bloodshed which have characterized similar crises in past times. The plan has been entirely successful so far, for it has induced many landlords to recognize the inability of tenants to pay rents based on higher prices, and it has brought about many peaceful settlements. It is too soon to say how matters will end where the money refused by the landlord has actually been paid to trustees. A landlord with a long purse may possibly win; he may succeed in evicting some, and perhaps all, his tenants, if he perseveres to the bitter end; but it will only be at great money loss to himself.

There has been a good deal of discussion about the morality of the plan of campaign, much quibbling and sophistry. "Salus populi suprema lex" is, however, its one and ample justification. On the rejection by Parliament of Mr. Parnell's bill, a struggle of some kind was inevitable; it is better that it should be orderly and organized than spasmodic and accompanied with outrage, riot, and murder. The national programme will have gone far towards settling the question of the amount of rent to be paid, before the Royal Commission appointed to inquire into the subject has framed its report. Meantime the situation between the Government and the Irish people is becoming more and more strained. The prosecution of Messrs. Dillon, Harrington, O'Brien, and others keeps the agitation in Ireland and the public interest in England alive. It should not be forgotten that the old Liberal party were just as ready as the present Government to resort to coercion, to make use of obsolete laws, to pack juries, and even to transgress the law in their efforts to put down agitation and to suppress the national spirit. But the old Liberal party is dead and gone, though in Ireland we have hardly realized the change effected by the last extension of the franchise. Those who in English and imperial politics are Liberals are pleased that the Conservatives should now be ringing the chapel bell, and keeping the Irish question to the front as they are doing. They are by their present policy helping towards a speedy settlement of the Irish land and home-rule questions; the issues to be settled are becoming narrowed and more clearly defined day by day. The Irish question will be as prominent next session as it ever was, and an insuperable obstacle to English and imperial legislation. English and Irish Conservatives have, it is evident, no policy of any kind on the subject, and the principle of Gladstone's Home-Rule Bill still holds the field.

Many stanch adherents of the national cause objected strongly to the details of that measure, and condemned the eagerness of the Irish members to accept it. Those who did so are as anxious for a real union between England and Ireland as any persons can be, but think that any imperial control in purely local questions will be a cause of friction, and will lay the foundation for a disturbance of friendly relations. A fallacious phraseology is current, and persons agree in words while they really mean very different things. "The supremacy of the Imperial Parliament is to be maintained." "Certainly," say both parties; but one person means that Parliament at Westminster is to be supreme to the extent of interfering, overseeing, and controlling all things as at present, while the other means that the Imperial Parliament is to be supreme in imperial matters only. Home rule would be a delusion if any English power of interference in purely Irish matters should remain. In peace and war, in colonial policy, in foreign relations, the Imperial Parliament should be supreme, but it should not have power to interfere in questions of local government or taxation, education, or administration.

A new weekly paper, to be called *North and South*, is about to be published in Dublin. It is intended to advocate principles of reconstruction and conciliation on the platform of home rule. Its policy will be a positive one, and not merely one of negation and attack on the enemy. C. H. Oldham, Hon. Sec. to the Protestant Home-Rule Association, has accepted the editorship. This is a guarantee that the paper will be free from all sectional taint, that it will be characterized by vigor and originality. In the political turmoil of the last six years, attack and defence have had exclusive occupation of men's minds. It is a good sign that the attention should now be directed to a consideration of our future and permanent organization. The landlord party is of course the one obstacle to home rule, but many landlords recognize that as inevitable. Some acquiesce passively in the national programme; others are only waiting in hopes that they may divest themselves of their landed property before joining the national ranks. The agrarian is inseparable from the home-rule question, and the leaders of both Conservative and Liberal parties are evidently prepared to terminate the land war by purchasing the landlords' interests. The only difference between them is, how and on what terms it is to be done. The Conservative plan is to adhere to the present system, by which each tenant purchaser is the direct debtor of the English Treasury. The Liberals would hand over the working of the scheme, and the collection of the interest, to an Irish Government which should be responsible for the repayment as a whole of whatever loans were made for this purpose. As long as the scheme is looked upon and worked as a political matter, and not on commercial principles, it will be unsound, and the taxpayer's money will be in danger. The Conservatives' plan is fraught with danger to the public purse, for with them the theory still prevails that the Irish landlord has been plundered, and that restitution is due to him. Hence the present Land Purchase Act was passed more as a landlords' relief bill than as a measure of permanent settlement.

In such a scheme the security of the public purse should be the first and paramount consideration. The danger lies not in the gross amount to be advanced, but in the possibility of imprudent lending of many small amounts. It is far more easy for administrators to say yes

than no when it is a question of lending or giving other persons' money. It is unlikely that the Conservatives will be able to carry a vote of more money for this purpose on the present lines. They opposed Mr. Gladstone's bill in the alleged interest of the taxpayer, and however ready they may be to eat their words, they could not succeed in the face of Liberal and Radical opposition. John Morley, the *bête noire* of the landlords, is an uncompromising advocate of the necessity of a Land Purchase Bill. Over and over again he has stated in public that England was bound by every obligation of honor to the landlords to deliver them, as far as is compatible with public economy, from their evil plight; that she is bound, too, in setting up a government in Ireland, not to leave it with the burden of the present land system on its shoulders. Such a Government, he said, should have a fair start; it could not, however, until the relations of landlord and tenant were brought by some means or other into a more satisfactory state.

The prospect, then, before the Irish landlords is that of being bought out, but no longer on their own terms. In many cases they can now practically fix these. "Pay up an impossible rent, and all arrears, or buy at my price," are the alternatives given to the poorest occupiers. This is represented as a contract freely entered into, and as such the price is to be taken, according to the landlords, as the fair value of the land. Such contracts are often made without the exercise of any open duress, but with a great deal of undue influence. Any extension of the purchase system will probably include powers being given to both landlord and tenant to compel the other to sell or buy, as the case may be; the price to be fixed judicially or by arbitration. Copyhold legislation in England affords a precedent for this. That tenure having been found so inconvenient as to be contrary to the public welfare, laws and amending laws of a permissive character were passed to facilitate its abolition. Finally, and in spite of outcries of confiscation and interference with sacred rights, the present law was passed, by which either party can compel the enfranchisement of the copyhold lands. The question of the abolition of the Irish landlord and tenant system differs in principle from this only in its financial aspect. That, however, is one of the great stumbling-blocks to the average Englishman. As much money is spent annually and unnoticed in maintaining the landlord system as would carry on a considerable war; but the idea of voting directly a bulk sum for the termination of the war, and putting an end to the annual drain, has not yet been assimilated in England. A section of the Radical party is strongly opposed to any such use of the imperial credit, but if a system of prudent lending can be insured, and if the English taxpayers can be shown to be fully safeguarded, it is unlikely that this section would persevere in their opposition.

A LAND VALUER.

Correspondence.

THE INTER-STATE COMMERCE BILL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In this letter I shall try to point out what I believe to be the most important of the effects which would follow enforcement of the Inter-State Commerce Bill, and yet one which has well-nigh escaped attention.

If the short-haul rule is enforced, the result will be a vast system of local discrimination, too complex to be described. In the first place, it makes a discrimination as between the towns and the great trade centres. Obviously, the railroads will drop that part of their business which pays least, namely, the business from great cities, in order to preserve the more paying portion. This will not benefit the small cities particularly, but it will injure the great cities. *The result would be a rise in the average rates of freight.* This may be surprising, but it is none the less true, as the operation of a similar rule in Germany has, I believe, demonstrated. As regards the effect on our export trade, a striking example has been given by Commissioner Blanchard:

"The conference bill also absolutely prohibits taking grain, for example, from Kansas City to New York for direct Liverpool export, in national competition with the Black Sea and India, at even a fraction less than the charge to the residents of New York for grain there consumed. The former might be to the gain of every American interest involved and injure none."

Another authority points out that this provision would throw the carrying trade into the hands of the Canadian roads, which could put their through rates so low that the American roads would be compelled to drop their Chicago business altogether, in order to preserve the main body of their paying freight.

More important still, perhaps, though as yet hardly noticed, is the discrimination implied in the bill as between cities and sections having desirable water-communication and those which have not. In your issue of January 6, this appears clearly enough in the somewhat ingenuous remark of Mr. Nowell, that "The passage of this bill would make Duluth the great depot for Dakota wheat." This remark is followed up by the claim that "right then would commence the only real competition—that between carrying by water and by railroads." Why this is "the only real competition" is, I confess, as puzzling a question as why this competition should begin when one of the competitors is prevented from competing. Dakota wheat will still reach New York, whether this bill passes or not. It would practically take a very large army to prevent it. But I think it obvious that if the short-haul principle—which implicitly bases rates on distance—were put in force, "not a grain of Dakota wheat will reach the mechanics of New York." Under our present system, as Mr. Atkinson has beautifully shown in his "Distribution of Products," "the annual ration of 1,000 people can be placed in the city of New York from a point 1,700 to 2,000 miles distant, with an exertion of human labor equivalent to that of four men working one year in producing, milling, and moving the wheat." This rule simply multiplies the necessary labor.

If we examine the newspapers, we find evidence that this aspect of the bill is attracting attention, particularly in trade centres without water competition. The Cincinnati *Times-Star* says, "Mr. Reagan would sacrifice the commercial interest of the entire West in order that Galveston may roll in high clover. He is a patriot, perhaps, but his patriotism flows in a narrow channel." The Nashville *Union* says, "We cannot believe . . . that any member of Congress from Tennessee, Alabama, or Georgia . . . will vote for it. . . . *Whenever he does, he signs the death-warrant of his section of country.*"

It may be admitted that the enforcement of this rule—a very different thing from enacting it into law—would benefit Duluth, Galveston, New Orleans, and the South Atlantic ports, though at the expense of the rest of the country. It may even benefit Chicago, St. Louis, and Toledo, though that is more doubtful. But it cannot, it seems to me, be doubted that it would be a crushing blow to Kansas, Colorado, Nebraska, the Pacific States, great parts of Texas, Dakota, and the Middle States. It would destroy nearly all those industries (or at least severely cripple them) which depend on a wide distribution, and for which extraordinarily cheap rates are as necessary as they are for coal. New York would be affected in both ways—both as a receiver of products and as a distributor of manufactures—and would probably suffer more by the actual enforcement of the short-haul principle than any other city in the country.

If any one has the fatuity to believe that the Commission created by the act would remedy the evil effects of it—if, like Mr. Richard T. Ely, he does not believe in experience as a guide, but thinks himself warranted in expecting what never yet has happened—there is still a reply. If the Commission is to dispense with the principle in these cases, does it not show there is something wrong in it? If the Commission is to let the necessities of traffic prevail in some cases, why should this not continue to be the rule in all cases as it is now? But the important thing is the actual probable result. This is, that the Commissioners—being human—would dispense with the rule wherever most "pressure" was brought to bear. Powerful centres like New York would be relieved of its operation very soon, while sections like the far West would be helpless. There would be combinations in the Commission and in Congress to favor certain cities, just as is now the case with the River and Harbor Bill. Does not this statement appeal to the common sense of the readers of the *Nation*?

Lastly, I wish to give two instances of the working of the commission system which have come within my own experience. In Michigan the law provides that the Commissioner of Railroads shall "approve" the maps of proposed railroads. In one case the Commissioner arbitrarily refused his approval, by an arrangement he had made with other railroads for that purpose; in the other case, another Commissioner demanded (through an indirect channel, of course) $4,000 as his price for approving the map. In the present state of public sentiment there is no remedy for such things as this. Anybody who is "agin' rail'odes" is right, and is the people's friend.

If this bill becomes law, it will be the worst instance of tyranny ever afforded by our Government—one which the framers of the Constitution could not apprehend specifically, but which they did all in their power to prevent.

CHARLES S. ASHLEY.

TOLEDO, OHIO, January 9, 1887.

THE SUPPLY OF TEACHERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have been much interested in reading your recent articles on the excessive number of teachers annually graduated at the New York Normal College—the more so because the same complaint is made with equal reason by other observers in many different localities. There is, however, a way out of the difficulty which has not yet been suggested, but which I feel sure you will heartily approve. It cannot for a moment be maintained that the supply of good teachers, either in New York city or elsewhere, is equal to the need. One of the best authorities on the subject in the country, Mr. C. W. Bardeen of Syracuse, N. Y., has truly said that there is at the present time no calling in which the very best service secures so little pecuniary remuneration, and the poorest service is so well paid, as in the teacher's. It is a notorious and disgraceful fact that the majority of teachers in the country secure and retain their places on other grounds than their ability to teach. If the authorities would devote all their attention to securing the best possible service for their money, we should soon cease to hear complaints that more teachers were graduated than could find employment.

There is nothing dangerous in encouraging the best and brightest pupils in our public schools to prepare themselves to become teachers. All we need is discrimination. At the present time thousands are pushing their way into the ranks of teachers, not because of any special aptitude or ability, but because they think they have the friends or influence to secure an appointment if they can only pass the required examination. Arbitrarily cutting down the numbers of those who are trying to prepare themselves will, under the present system, afford no proper relief. The unworthy and inefficient will struggle no less to obtain the desired diploma, trusting to influence and importunity to procure situations; and it is a significant fact that, of those who go through the prescribed courses, the best qualified are the ones who most easily allow themselves to be driven off into other vocations.

Let the business of making the appointments be intrusted to those who will recognize no title to favor except genuine desert, and the unqualified and inefficient will not be long in learning the hopelessness of their effort. I speak from long experience and wide observation when I say, that in no department of our public work is there more pressing need of reform than in the method of selecting and appointing teachers in the public schools. If you can bring your public to recognize this fact, and to sustain those authorities who seek to discriminate only on merit, you will find that the normal schools in New York and throughout the country do not furnish half enough graduates. B.

Syracuse, N. Y., January, 1887.

THE "ISSUING" OF SILVER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In reply to your remarks on my note, I should like to say that I spoke of "issuing" silver in order to show that my argument referred only to the silver actually forced into circulation, either bodily or by means of silver certificates. There is already a considerable amount of such silver, and unless the people shall allow the Treasury surplus to be further swollen, all silver coined hereafter will be added to this amount. I do not think any one supposes that the surplus will be allowed to reach and remain at a much higher point than it has already attained; and thus, in looking to the somewhat distant future—as Mr. St. John's proposition does—the part played by the piling up of silver dollars (unrepresented by paper) is practically eliminated. F. F.

Baltimore, January 14, 1887.

[We remarked that the argument of "F. F." in last week's *Nation* was "thus far inconclusive." He now supplies the missing link by giving the opinion that Congress will some day force all the silver dollars into circulation, as a portion of them have already been. We can find no warrant for the statement that any silver dollars have been forced into circulation. Those that have gone into circulation have been taken out voluntarily by people who could make use of them, and have all been taken at 100 cents gold each. It is hardly proper to call that a forcing process which comes about as a consequence of the retirement of national-bank notes and of small greenbacks. It is not that kind of forcing that "F. F." has in mind, but rather, we judge, some violent expulsive movement on the part of Congress. It is certainly well to keep the possibility of this in mind, but we should like to have the process described before considering measures to counteract it.—Ed. Nation.]

THE PRESIDENT'S EXCUSE IN MICHIGAN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* for January 6 is a criticism of the Administration for its appointments to Government offices in Detroit. The facts are as "W. E. H." states them, and it may be said of the whole State of Michigan that the civil-service-reform policy of President Cleveland is a flat failure. Is the Administration, however, justly to be blamed for this? The State of Michigan has not a representative in Congress who is not an open enemy of civil service reform. She has not a public man of prominence who gives the reform more than a qualified support. There is not a newspaper of influence in the State which honestly advocates it. Moreover, it is to be doubted whether Mr. Cleveland and his advisers could have found four men in Detroit, whose reputation and experience would justify their appointment to the important offices in question, who would unequivocally endorse the President's reform policy. Which, then, is at fault, the Administration or public sentiment?

Mr. Cleveland was elected to be the chief executive of the nation—a position of large and many-sided responsibilities. Is it to be expected or desired that he should wreck his Administration by a too close adherence to a policy in which he is not supported by the sentiment of his party, and for which he is only ridiculed by his opponents?

Of the prospects of civil-service reform it must be said that its ultimate success does not depend upon the favor of a single Administration, but upon an awakened and enlightened public sentiment. This is only to be attained by organized effort through the press, by public meetings, and by the active political exertions of the supporters of the reform. Is such an agitation going on at present? Or do reformers really believe that their end is to be gained by criticism of President Cleveland's well-meant but ineffectual endeavors to make a practical application of their teachings? Surely, they will not rest satisfied with the present inadequate law. Civil-service reform may not be said to be accomplished until all the minor officers of the Government are appointed under its rules, until every State government is administered upon its principles, and every municipal and county office feels the benefits of its system. Truly there remaineth yet much more land to be possessed, and it is for the reformers to enter and take possession.

Wm. W. Hudson.

Detroit, January 14, 1887.

A STORY WITHOUT AN END.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you allow me to point out, through your columns, to the readers of the Annual which I have the honor to edit for Mr. T. Fisher Unwin, and which is republished in America by Messrs. Appleton, under the title 'The Witching Time,' that my contribution to it appears in the American edition without a tail? Messrs. Appleton have, inadvertently of course, sent the volume to press before they had received the proof of the last sheets of "Two of a Kind," and consequently, as what was intended for the point of my story appears, not improperly I venture to think, in the tail of it, it is without point of any sort. The fault is no doubt mine for not having my proof ready at an earlier date, but I must take the first and best opportunity of explaining that I am not guilty of quite such an invertebrate piece of fiction as has been presented to the public in my name. Henry Norman.

London, January 8.

Notes.

Robert Browning's new volume, 'Parleyings with Certain People of Importance in their Day,' will be published in this country by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Ticknor & Co. publish next week 'Happy Dodd,' a tale of New England life, by Rose Terry Cooke; and 'Sons and Daughters,' by Henry Hayes, author of 'The Story of Margaret Kent.'

Cupples, Upham & Co. have in press a second edition of Dr. David Greene Haskins's 'Ralph Waldo Emerson: His Maternal Ancestors, with some Reminiscences of Him.' Curious silhouettes of the poet and his brother Charles are among the illustrations. There will be also a limited large-paper edition.

Ginn & Co. announce for next month 'Spanish Idioms, with their English Equivalents,' by Sarah Cary Becker and Señor Federico Mora. Some ten thousand phrases are included.

Henry Holt & Co. will have Miss Augusta Larned's 'Village Photographs' ready in the spring.

The common dictionary has long since outgrown its primitive scheme in encroaching on the domain of the encyclopædia. Hence one is not surprised that the J. B. Lippincott Co. have added to Worcester's Dictionary a new pronouncing biographical dictionary of nearly 12,000 "personages"—something more than "names," as we conjecture—and a new pronouncing gazetteer of the world, embracing more than 20,000 places.

The derivation and history of words will always be a favorite subject of intellectual sport as well as of serious investigation. As a part of education, such exercises deservedly rank very high; and Mr. Arthur Gilman's little book, 'Short Stories from the Dictionary' (Interstate Publishing Co.) will undoubtedly, as it deserves, find a warm welcome with American teachers. Its geniality and suggestiveness recommend it above other books of the class, for those who wish more than the dry bones of etymology. This study, however, if fascinating, is perilous at times; none is more full of pitfalls. For example (p. 46), Mr Gilman accepts the derivation of *saunter* from *sainte terre*, which, we believe, is now generally abandoned. Skeat says, "origin unknown."

We have already delivered judgment on the general scheme and usefulness of the series of "Actors and Actresses of Great Britain and the United States" (New York: Cassell & Co.), edited by Brander Matthews and Laurence Hutton, of which the last two volumes are now issued. In the first of them Macready and Forrest are written of by Lawrence Barrett, who is a sympathetic and effective author: and of the more noted of their contemporaries Charlotte Cushman is done by Clara Erskine Clement, Fechter by Kate Field, Sothern by Wm. J. Florence, and McCullough by William Winter. The last volume takes up the present time. The most important sketches are that of Booth, also done by Lawrence Barrett, that of Irving by J. Ranken Towse, a very just study, Bunner's tribute to Joe Jefferson, Winter's Wallack, Miss Gilder's Mme. Modjeska, and Mr. Laffan's excellent notice of Barrett. The articles are of extremely uneven merit, and as a whole are less good than the earlier volumes in criticism and style; but the completed work affords a comprehensive view of the personalities of the stage, and is convenient for reference.

Mr. Samuel Waddington, a sonnetteer himself, and the editor of at least two collections of sonnets, has now collected in a neat and pretty little volume 'The Sonnets of Europe' (London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribner & Welford). Mr. Waddington has gathered nearly 250 examples from Italian, Spanish, French, Ger-

man, Dutch, Scandinavian, Portuguese, Polish, and Greek poets, with one in Latin, erroneously ascribed. Many of these have been specially translated for this collection by Mr. Austin Dobson, Mr. Edmund Gosse, Mr. Cosmo Monkhouse, Mr. W. M. Rossetti, and the editor. Mr. Dobson's rendering of the frigid "Sonnet of the Mountain" of Mellin de Saint-Gelais is admirable in its precision, and excellent also are his translations from Du Bellay and of Molière's Sonnet to La Mothe-le-Vayer. Mr. Thomas Ashe supplies a version of the famous "Sonnet d'Arvers" which alone preserves that poet from oblivion, but he is scarcely as successful as was Longfellow, whose rendering is here also. Not a few other Americans appear here as translators, including Bryant, Col. Higginson, Mr. T. W. Parsons, Prof. Norton, Mr. Lowell, and Mr. Charles T. Brooks. Mr. Waddington's introduction is brief but to the point, and his notes full and exact.

Mr. William L. Hughes, who translated into French 'Les Aventures de Tom Sawyer,' has now followed it up with 'Les Aventures de Huck Finn, l'ami de Tom Sawyer' (Paris: Hennuyer; New York: F. W. Christern), with seventy-three illustrations by M. Achille Sirouy. It would be interesting to get Mr. Clemens's honest opinion of a French artist's pictures of Jim and the King and the Duke.

M. Jules Simon, in his official capacity of perpetual Secretary of the Académie des Sciences morales et politiques, continues his *notices historiques* of the eminent members of that body. Mignet, his predecessor, had omitted to speak of Michelet, fearing that he might not be impartial in regard to an historian whose methods and opinions were so different from his own. M. Jules Simon, perhaps because he is not an historian himself, has not felt the same reluctance. On the 4th of December, at the annual public session of the Academy, he read his address upon Michelet, which, while emphasizing the genius of this remarkable writer, is really a refutation of his views, a protest against many of his doctrines. We are here far from the *éloge académique* in which nothing but praise was dealt out, far from the panegyric pronounced in the French Academy when a new member is received. Michelet's 'History of France' and his 'History of the Revolution' are not spared. M. Jules Simon does not share the four hatreds of the author whose work he describes. Michelet loved many things as few men have loved, but he shows, especially in his 'History of the Revolution,' "la haine du prêtre, la haine du roi, la haine de l'Anglais, et la haine de la bourgeoisie." But, in spite of his protests, M. Jules Simon is kindled by the fire of Michelet; he too, usually calm, glows with indignation when he speaks of things past, with which, unconsciously perhaps, he connects what is now going on in France.

The fifth volume of the 'Mémoires de Saint-Simon' has been published in the 'Collection des Grands Écrivains de la France' (Paris: Hachette). The first volume was issued in 1879. M. Wallon, noticing the work in the *Journal des Savants* last year, said justly that he was beginning the examination of a publication of which he should certainly not see the end. He further expressed the hope that the scholar who had undertaken it would live long enough to terminate his work. M. Boislisle, though in the strength of age, will be a happy man if he can carry out this edition of the Mémoires as he has begun it. Thirty, even forty volumes may not suffice. On many pages the notes of the editor take up a great deal more space than the author's text, and there are, besides, numerous appendices and tables. So voluminous are the annotations that for the mere reading of Saint-Simon it may be preferable to use the 12mo edition just completed, based on the text of Chéruel, and prepared by M. Adolphe Regnier fils. The fifth volume of the "Grands Écrivains" edition is wholly filled by the year 1698, and contains 240 pages of appendices.

M. Charles Bigot, of the French delegation to the ceremonies attending the completion of the Bartholdi statue, is giving in the *Revue Bleue* his impressions of New York in a very entertaining manner. His accuracy seldom fails, though "New Jersey City" is one syllable too long, horse-cars *do* run on Madison Avenue, and it was Jim Fisk (not "M. Field") whom Stokes killed. M. Bigot cannot praise the loveliness of this city, nor its rectangularity, nor its numbered streets.

The Bulletin of the Société de Géographie contains a lively account, by M. H. Duveyrier, of the journey of the French Minister at Morocco from Tangier to Fez, and his interview with the Sultan at the latter place. There are also papers on the M'Bochis, a people inhabiting the right bank of the Congo above Stanley Pool, and describing a visit to the volcano of Jorullo in Mexico. The most valuable article is a "General View of New Caledonia," by M. Opigez. After a sketch of the country, its resources, political divisions and colonists, he gives a very full and interesting account of the manners and customs of the natives. These are divided into tribes speaking thirty-two dialects, so different that, though "two neighboring tribes can understand each other very well, two separated by a third are generally unintelligible to each other." They cultivate the land, hunt and fish, but have no other industry. Their religion consists in the recognition of two superior beings, the one good, the other bad. To the former they rarely pray, saying that as he is always good, it is needless. Their peculiar marriage and burial customs are also described at length. In common with all the Polynesian races, with the possible exception of the Fijians, they are rapidly disappearing. They number now about 22,000, three-quarters of whom are men.

The December Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society contains a very instructive paper by Mr. J. Y. Buchanan, "On the Similarities in the Physical Geography of the Great Oceans," the result principally of his observations made during the voyage of the *Challenger*. In describing his work in the Gulf of Guinea, "a hitherto unexplored region of the ocean," he made the statement, which may prove valuable for navigators, "that for a considerable distance along the Guinea coast the salinity of the surface water was an almost accurate test of the proximity of the land." The remarkable changes of temperature along parts of the continental shores (as, for instance, at Cape St. Lucas, where the temperature fell ten degrees in less than an hour), which have been generally attributed to the direct influence of currents from high latitudes, are shown to be due to the off-shore winds. These remove the surface water, which has to be supplied from the readiest source, the deep water on the coast—that is, not "by a long surface current, but by a short vertical one." The paper is illustrated by a map and diagrams showing the temperature and density of the oceans. Maj. de Lannoy de Bissy contributes an article on "Recent French Explorations in the Ogowe-Congo Region," by which a territory one-fourth larger than France, having a coast line nearly 800 miles long, with access to 5,200 miles of river navigation, and containing eight river basins, has been acquired by the republic "without shedding a drop of blood and at the trifling cost of £90,000." There are also the usual notes, reports of societies, and recent geographical publications.

A fine portrait of the late Marco Minghetti is given in the *Illustrazione Italiana* of Milan for December 26, 1886. The accompanying obituary notice is chiefly occupied with the political career of this high-minded statesman; but reference is made to that versatility which has so frequently characterized the great men of his race, as, to take a not remote though a more striking example, in the case of Massimo d'Azeglio.

Mr. Edward Roth, 1135 Pine Street, Philadelphia, is nearing the end of the biographical portion of his 'Complete Index to Littell's *Living Age*' (first 100 volumes). His tenth number ends with Vespucci.

The first issue of the *Proudhon Library* is before us (Boston, P. O. Box 3366). It begins the 'System of Economical Contradictions: or, The Philosophy of Misery,' translated by Mr. Benj. R. Tucker.

Prof. Palmer's second paper on the "Possible Limitations of the Elective System," in the January *Andover Review*, is no less suggestive than its predecessor. He maintains that the objections levelled against the system at Harvard are really intended for "its bastard brother, *laissez-faire*," and he shows how far from unrestricted, if only by "conflict of hours," the choice now is. As to soft or easy courses, he says they "will exist and ought to exist. Prescribed colleges, it is often forgotten, have more of them than elective colleges." As matter of fact and experience at Harvard, the forces which the elective system sets astir have such an influence, on teachers and pupils alike, "that questions of hard and easy studies do not, as outsiders are apt to suppose, seriously disturb the formation of sound intentions." Prof. Palmer looks forward to the extension, to the whole body of students, of the system of surveillance of individual progress through a committee, now applied to the special students. He has a capital answer to those who complain that the degree of A.B. loses its definiteness.

In the January *Auk*, Mr. Ira Sayles attempts to solve the question whether vultures have a keen sense of smell. From his own experience he concludes that all experiments should be made with reference to the wind, and on this ground he rejects Darwin's well-known trial with the condors at Valparaiso as proving "absolutely nothing." But he forgets that, whether the parcel of meat was carried to windward or leeward, Darwin declared that no dog under similar circumstances would have let the meat go undetected.

The *Forest and Stream* Publishing Co. announce a new periodical, the *Audubon Magazine*, to be printed in the interest of the Audubon Society for the Protection of Birds. It will be issued from the office of the Society, 40 Park Row New York, and will be largely devoted to natural history and subjects of interest to the young.

The *Science* Co. announce the immediate publication, in connection with that weekly, of a monthly magazine, called the *Red Cross*, in aid of the Agassiz Association work. This will supersede the well-known department in *St. Nicholas*. It will be edited by Mr. Harlan H. Ballard.

A trial bibliography of the writings of the late George P. Marsh is made in the December number of the *Library Journal*.

Among the various schemes of instruction by correspondence now in operation in this country, room certainly existed for one in the art of reasoning. This deficiency is now offered to be supplied by Mr. Charles S. Peirce of this city, whose address is No. 36 West Fifteenth Street. Mr. Peirce is well known in all scientific circles, and his special competence for this particular line of instruction is attested by the fact that he was formerly a lecturer on the Logic of Science at Harvard and at Johns Hopkins. He proposes to proceed "entirely by means of practical exercises to be performed by the pupil, each being accompanied by the necessary explanations of how it is to be executed, and followed by reflections upon

See p. 94

the nature of the proceeding and why it has been successful, with criticism of faults, and with answers to questions and resolutions of perplexities." Mr. Peirce has especially in mind "the wants of those young men and women who have been debarred from the privileges of a college education, and even from the training preparatory to it."

At Bonn, on the 15th of November, at high noon, under the auspices of the Neu-Philologischer Verein of the University, was unveiled the tablet marking the house in the Weberstrasse wherein died Friedrich Diez, author of the 'Grammatik der romanischen Sprachen' and 'Etymologisches Wörterbuch der romanischen Sprachen,' and quondam professor there. The inscription reads as follows: "In diesem Hause starb am 22 Mai 1876 Friedrich Diez, der Begründer der romanischen Philologie. Gewidmet vom Akad. Neuphilol. Verein zu Bonn." Appropriate remarks were made by Prof. Dr. Foerster, the successor of Diez. In the evening a meeting of the Verein was held, at which were present, among the guests from abroad, professors of the Romance philology from Göttingen, Marburg, and Madrid. The *Fest-rede* was delivered by Foerster, and speeches of a less formal character were delivered in French, Spanish, English, and German.

We take the following from a late issue of the *Novosti*: "Russian life is evidently beginning to have a very deep interest for Americans, thanks, especially, to the translations from the works of Gogol, Dostoyevsky, Count Tolstoi, and others of our writers, of which we have already had occasion to speak. The vast and really unexpected success of these translations has inspired some American writers to invent [the word also means 'to compose'] romances of Russian life for the benefit of the public. The New York bibliographical journals announce the appearance of several such romances. Among the rest, Marion Crawford, who is well known, and is one of the most popular American littérateurs, is preparing a long romance from Russian life under the title of 'Paul Patoff.' Crawford is not unknown to the Russian public. His romances 'Mr. Isaacs' and 'An American Politician' have been translated into Russian; the first under the title of 'In the Far East,' the second under the title of 'The Patriot.' Crawford has undertaken this novel of Russian life, not in the least deterred by the fact that he knows absolutely nothing of Russia or of the Russians, and that the whole sum of his knowledge of 'Russian customs' has been culled from the English translations of the productions of Russian authors. Moreover, as has been remarked recently by the French critic Bentzon, who has published an entire volume on American letters, Crawford, as a rule, does not trouble himself in the least to preserve historical illusion or vivid probability in his romances; in all his writings he gives free rein to his imagination, and describes only such tiny corners of the world as are connected with wonderful mysterious legends—India, for instance. It would be interesting to know what sort of a 'Russian legend' has served as canvas for this new romance of 'Paul Patoff.' The success of this story is assured, however, from a material point of view at all events, since the proprietors of the *Atlantic Monthly* paid Crawford a very large sum for the right of printing it, even before the MS. of the romance was completed."

— The march of Leslie Stephen's 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan) makes even the reviewer quicken his pace in order to keep up. Volumes viii. and ix. have just appeared, with a short interval between them, and break off with the sketch of Thomas Chaloner. Great is the array of the tribes of Burton, Butler, Cameron, Campbell, Carew, Carey, Carter, Cartwright, Cavendish, Cecil, and Chalmers in especial. The editor has reserved for his own most competent handling Bishop Butler, Byron, and Carlyle, and manifests once more his remarkable gift of compact narration, presenting a multitude of details alike without confusion and without dryness. As to the causes of Lady Byron's separation, he evidently holds that, rejecting the story told through Mrs. Stowe, some sufficiently weighty moral ground must be believed to have existed. Froude is tacitly censured for his execution of the literary trust confided to him by Carlyle. Byron's famous reference to his "grandad" is not forgotten in the sketch of the Admiral; but in the notice of Admiral John Byng one misses Voltaire's sarcasm, "pour encourager les autres." Under Camden the fact is mentioned that his house at Chislehurst became the refuge of Napoleon III. Isaac Butt is regarded as the probable inventor of the phrase "Home Rule." The publication of John Byrom's 'Universal English Shorthand' marked an era in the history of stenography. Henry Carey's authorship of the national anthem is held to be very doubtful. As usual, the catholicity of this dictionary produces strange juxtapositions. Elizabeth Canning, "impostor," and Margaret Catchpole, "adventuress," are admitted to good and regular standing beside the Queens Caroline and Catherine. The oddest name is perhaps that of Sir Julius Cæsar, and the oddest personage Alice (or Ellys) Carmylyon, a painter whose sex is left undetermined. It is pleasant to find (speaking of female artists) that Mrs. Julia Margaret Cameron, the Isle of Wight photographer, has not been overlooked.

— The American contact of these volumes is considerable, whether we instance Sebastian Cabot, or John Carver, or the Calverts of Baltimore, or Gen. Richard Butler of the United States Army, or Gen. Guy Carleton, or Patrick Calhoun, father of John C. Calhoun, or Alexander Campbell of the sect founded by his father, or Mathew Carey; that graceless wanderer Bamfyld Moore Carew, or the explorer Jonathan Carver. Of this last his biographer says, referring to his deed of land from the Sioux and Ojibways in 1767, he was spoken of by the Indians as "our good brother Jonathan," and makes the random guess—"whence possibly came the name of the Americans collectively." As Carver, like Trumbull, was a native of Connecticut, this does not disturb the Nutmeg State's claim to have bred the original "Brother Jonathan." "Frank Leslie" (Henry Carter) is credited with having been the first to cut up large wood blocks into small pieces for expeditious engraving. The late Randolph Caldecott, who died here, is commemorated in a space which seems disproportionate when compared to that allotted to America's great friend in her civil-war distress, the economist Cairnes. Finally, not a few friendships in this country are associated with Mary and Philip Carpenter.

—The fourth session of the Modern Language Association of America, held at the close of last month in Baltimore, was the most interesting and successful of its annual gatherings. About 150 members were present at the meetings in Hopkins Hall. James Russell Lowell was elected President for the ensuing year. The Association is emphatically a union of the younger philological scholars and teachers of literature. Some are members of the American Philological Association, but most, finding the time of meeting of that body inconvenient, or from lack of interest, had not previously been united in any common effort to promote linguistic study. The recent publication of a solid volume of transactions of 250 pages, embracing the papers read at the second meeting in 1884 (the preliminary gathering was only for organization), shows how important is the field of work which the society has assumed as its province. It contains original investigations in early English, French, German, and the different Romance dialects. A large and valuable portion is occupied with discussions of the order and method of study, and what constitutes a systematic course in the modern languages. It was necessary that the earlier meetings should devote special attention to this subject, owing to the imperfect recognition of these studies, and the fact that there was no agreement as to their relative order and position. In investigating the character and amount of attention devoted to the modern languages in the various colleges, and especially in the various papers presented upon the study of English, the Association has accomplished a valuable work. The improvement in instruction in the Southern colleges has been even more marked than in some other sections. Many of them offer thorough courses in the philology, as well as the literature, of the English language One important influence of the Society has been to stimulate the investigation of local dialects and put on record present forms which are in process of change, or are becoming extinct. The French dialects of Louisiana and of Canada have found competent investigators. The vast field of study presented by the languages of the American continent has been only in part entered upon. Having mapped out its field of work, the Association will naturally devote less attention hereafter to the purely pedagogic side, and more to literary and philological subjects. The Association publishes the *Modern Language Notes*, in which the most recent publications are reviewed. It also issues separate monographs which are designed to promote the study of the modern languages. These are often translations of noteworthy discussions which have appeared abroad, and whose further dissemination will promote the aims of the organization.

—President Gilman, at the opening meeting, welcomed the Association to Baltimore, and especially to the hospitality of the Johns Hopkins University. President Carter of Williams College delivered the annual address. The Secretary's report showed that the Association numbered 220 members, and that two members, Mr. William Cook of the Institute of Technology, and Prof. Louis Habel of the University of Norwich, had died during the year. The constitution of the Association was amended so as to provide for the election of three Vice Presidents, who shall form, with the other officers, a special committee upon the papers to be read at each annual meeting. The next session will be held in Philadelphia. A committee was appointed to aid in securing from American scholars contributions in aid of the monument to the Grimm brothers at Hanau. Prof. Wood and Drs. Todd and Bright of Baltimore have charge of this matter. The social hospitalities of this meeting were no small part of its attractions. President Gilman gave a reception to the members on Monday evening, December 27, and Mr. D. L. Bartlett, a prominent citizen, on Wednesday evening. On Thursday the Association left for Washington, where it was accorded a reception by President Cleveland, and where the Corcoran Art Gallery and other collections were opened to it.

—The death of Mrs. Abby Kelley Foster last week recalled the enormous change in the public relations of the sexes in this country during the past half century, in no small measure because of this excellent woman's labors and sufferings. She was a young Quaker school-teacher in Lynn when she first heard Garrison speak against African colonization, and presently went and sold her trinkets and turned the proceeds into

the anti-slavery treasury. Meantime the Grimké sisters of South Carolina came to New England to lecture on slavery, and against their will (though agreeably to their conscience) were drawn into addressing mixed audiences of men and women. This impropriety, which was thought nothing of on the stage or in the concert hall, drew down upon them the famous "Pastoral Letter" of the Massachusetts Congregational clergy, and other circumstances conspired to terminate their public career. "After the Grimkés left the lecture-field, only one woman entered it" —as she, Mrs. Foster, then Miss Kelley, has herself related—"and worked as well as she was able for seven years, before another woman came to her side. The service was terrible. The cross well-nigh crushed her. Besides the usual incentives to mob the abolitionists, came the requisition of the church and clergy to keep women in their proper sphere. Not only unsavory eggs, but the contents of stables and outhouses, were hurled against her meetings. Worse still, not a few ministers of high standing preached against her, their favorite text being Rev. ii, 20, 'I have a few things against thee, because thou sufferest that woman, Jezebel, which calleth herself a prophetess, to teach and seduce my servants to commit fornication.'" Worse still, we will add, the editor of a religious paper insinuated, in reference to Miss Kelley, that it was disreputable for a woman to be closeted with two men on a committee. Over her raged the memorable controversy in the abolition ranks concerning the right of women to participate equally with men in the direction and proceedings of the societies; and her appointment on a committee of the American Anti-Slavery Society in 1840 was made the occasion of a sectarian secession. She continued to lecture long after she was married, and lived to see female lecturers a common and unobjectionable spectacle, and women associated with men on all sorts of committees, and made equal members of school committees and State boards of charities. She was one of the most pleasing and effective speakers of her sex, and Lowell has happily characterized her in the lines (dating from 1846)—

> "A Judith there, turned Quakeress,
> Sits Abby in her modest dress,
> Serving a table quietly,
> As if that mild and downcast eye
> Flashed never with its scorn intense
> More than Nedon's eloquence. . . .
> No nobler gift of heart and brain,
> No life more white from spot or stain,
> Was e'er on Freedom's altar laid
> Than hers—the simple Quaker maid."

—That Henry B. Stanton died on the same day with Mrs. Foster (January 14) was no mere coincidence, for he had an active hand in the schism just referred to, though he cared nothing about the abstract question of woman's rights. His ambition was thoroughly political, and his aim, along with Holley, Birney, and other founders of the Liberty party, was to convert the anti-slavery organization into a political machine. He failed, and what he termed the "miserable" (and one of his associates the "confounded") woman question was one of the obstacles to his success, since female abolitionists at least could not be voters, and political action could not be exacted of them as a high moral duty. His detachment from the abolitionists was fatal to his distinction as a reformer, and won him no laurels worth remembering as a politician. He took what advantage he could of the clerical opposition to women as public speakers, so long as it aided his attack on the non-resistant (and therefore non-voting) wing of the abolitionists; but at the London World's Convention in 1840 he favored the admission of the female delegates from America, and his wife, as is well known, became one of the foremost leaders of the organized woman's-rights agitation a few years later.

—The *National Review*, a foremost and able organ of the younger section of English Toryism, whatever may be thought of its political principles or of the vehement tone in which its writers advocate those principles, is eminently noticeable for the thoroughness and all-round excellence of its contributions in the department of pure literature. From among several articles, in its issue for the current month, well deserving the attention of the general reader, that on Carlyle's 'Cromwell,' by Mr. Reginald F. D. Palgrave, may be especially particularized. Carlyle, it will be remembered, in his quality of reproducer of Cromwell's speeches, claims for himself the character of "a pious editor." By the epithet "pious" we are, of course, to understand a profession of inflexible fidelity. Not a little startling, then, is the demonstration, just produced, that Carlyle, instead of using with scrupulous honesty the materials available for delineating the Protector, did not hesitate to manipulate them after the fashion of a person who, resolved on making good his theory in the teeth of fatally adverse evidence, shrinks from nothing in the shape of suppression or distortion of facts, or other discreditable devices and manœuvres. Beside these practices on his part, one must recognize as dwindling to a comparative trifle the license in which he allowed himself, unwarrantable as it was, of altering, by interpolations, omissions, and otherwise, the "authentic utterances of the man Oliver himself," in cases where their import is materially retained, to such an extent that he would not have had to go very much further if he had recomposed them *de novo*. All this is brought out, in detail, by Mr. Palgrave, and with a cogency of convincingness which it seems impossible to elude. Of multitudinous documents of first-rate value and authority, germane to his subject, it is also evinced that the "pious editor" had no knowledge as being existent, or else, where he had that knowledge, was too indolent or too remiss to make their acquaintance. It would appear now as if there were a studied disingenuous design in the language which he all but invariably employs regarding the manifold sources whence he derived his garbled representation of Cromwell and Cromwell's doings. "Foul Lethean quagmires," "waste rubbish-continents," "shoreless lakes of ditch-water," "hideous old Pamphletary Imbroglio," "dreary old records," "very watery," "the thing called Burton," "this two-legged Rhetorical Phantasm," and "pedants and dullards," are some of the contemptuous and repellant designations with which he bespatters them, as though of set purpose to deter others from the task—no very laborious one, considering his superficial research—of attempting to verify his statements and to test the validity of his conclusions. Pretty evidently those statements and conclusions are very far from being such as an exhaustive exploration and a dispassionate estimate of relevant historical data will ultimately be found to justify. The veritable Cromwell, as pictured at full length by some future Gardiner, will unquestionably differ in important features from the supposititious Carlylean hero.

—Prof. Willard Fiske's 'Biographical Notices, I. Books Printed in Iceland 1578-1844: A Supplement to the British Museum Catalogue' (Florence), already mentioned by us as in the press, has now come to hand. It makes a pamphlet of 29 pages, including the index. The library that has furnished this list of 139 titles is probably the most complete collection of its kind, either public or private, in existence. Its beginnings were made many years ago, but while as a whole it thus represents the gradual acquisitions of almost a lifetime, its greater part has been accumulated since the visit of Prof. Fiske to Iceland in 1879. How rich it really is is proved by the present list, which, as its title indicates, is a supplement to the British Museum Catalogue of books printed in Iceland. It aims, however, to supplement but a small part of that list, which is continued down to 1880, while this ends with the year 1844; the compiler, as he states in his "preliminary note," having taken the latter date as a convenient stopping-point because of the removal in that year of the then only existing press in Iceland from the island Videy, in the harbor of Reykjavik, over to the capital itself, which event was soon followed by increased activity, by the establishment of other presses, and by marked changes in typographical methods. That some such changes were necessary appears from the fact—which, however, Prof. Fiske does not cite—that the last title of his list, and probably last issue of the Videy press, is so full of typographical errors that it has furnished a popular proverb, current in Iceland to this day: As full of errors as the Videy Njals Saga. Descriptions of books printed after 1844 and most of the books themselves may be procured without difficulty. Prof. Fiske's list is not a mere catalogue. Every title is followed by full bibliographical notes, well and carefully compiled. Title-pages and the accompanying vignettes are described in detail. From about the middle of the eighteenth century the title-page frequently bears the price at which the book was sold. For the first half century this value is usually in stock-fish; prices ranging all the way from one fish for an arithmetic, compiled from a work by the Englishman, Edward Hatton, to thirty for a church *graduale*. In some cases the history of the particular copy described is given in full. The first book of the list, the code of laws known as the Jonsbok, printed at Hólar in 1578, for instance, belonged originally to King Frederick II. of Denmark—his arms and those of his queen appearing on the covers. On the death of that monarch it passed into the possession of Johan Bocholt, royal governor of Iceland. Afterwards it was owned by the German historian, Christopher Besold; and the year after his death it belonged to the Benedictine Abbey of Weingarten. Ultimately it became a part of the private library of the present King of Wirtemberg, whence it was sold. Based as they are upon an unparalleled knowledge of Icelandic bibliography, the notes are overflowing with important material, which not only sets at rest many vexed questions of authorship, but completes information until now only fragmentary. The author further announces in course of preparation: (a) Francis Petrarch's treatise *De Remediis utriusque Fortunæ*—text and versions; (b) Studies in Icelandic Booklore; (c) a Bibliographical Record of Lorenzo da Ponte of Ceneda; (d) Works by Francis Petrarch printed in the fifteenth century—texts and translations.

—Dr. Wilhelm Junker, who has just returned to Europe, after a seven years' absence in Central Africa, was born in Moscow in 1840. Educated as a physician, the greater part of his life since 1874 has been spent in Africa. In the latter year he visited Tunis, and the following found him exploring Lower Egypt and the Libyan desert. His first important journey began in 1876, when he crossed the desert from Suakim to Kassala, and proceeded thence by Khartum and the White Nile to the Nyam-Nyam country visited by Dr. Schweinfurth six years before. Here he devoted himself particularly to investigating the sources of the Welle, with a view to solving the problem as to the course of that river, and also in order to determine the watershed between the Nile and the Congo systems. From this journey he returned in 1878, bringing with him valuable collections which were deposited in the Mu

seum at Berlin. The next year, now accompanied by a white servant, he started for the same region, which was reached in the summer of 1880. He was received in a very friendly manner by the most powerful of the native kings, at whose town he made his headquarters. For two years he was busily employed in making extended excursions, to the west especially, tracing the courses of various rivers, mapping the country, making ethnographical collections, as well as in aiding the Egyptian commanders, Gessi and Lupton Bey, to rid their provinces of the slave-traders. In 1882, his companion having become seriously ill, he himself was seized with a longing for rest and home. First, however, he provided for the safety of his man, sending him to the northward with his collections. With great difficulty Bohndorff, abandoning the collections, forced his way through the districts already in revolt, to Khartum, where he saw Gen. Gordon and got his promise to aid the traveller if it was in his power. But the attack of the Mahdi's troops on the southern provinces of the Sudan, in which Lupton Bey was taken prisoner, followed soon after, and Dr. Junker was obliged to take refuge with Emin Bey at Lado, the principal station of the Equatorial Province. With him he remained till the beginning of last year, always hoping to be rescued by the English troops from the north. When this hope was finally abandoned, he started southward and reached the town of Kabrega, the King of the Unyoro, and asked permission to pass through Uganda. The King of this country, the son of the well-known Mtesa, who is almost crazy with fear of the whites, and had just refused to allow the relief expedition under the late Dr. Fischer sent by Dr. Junker's brother to go through his land, answered his request by sending an army which killed Kabrega and destroyed his town. The traveller, however, fortunately escaped, and made his way with great difficulty to an English mission station, at the south of Lake Victoria Nyanza, and thence to Zanzibar, which he reached December 4, 1886. Dr. Junker possesses in a high degree one quality essential to success in an African traveller—the ability to inspire the natives with respect and confidence. Their belief in his possessing supernatural powers saved his life on one occasion in 1881 when taken prisoner by a hostile chief. The reports of his journeys, which are undertaken at his own expense, are mostly brief, and deal largely with geographical questions. In this they differ from those of Emin Bey, which are very readable accounts of the people, their customs, traditions, and surroundings, together with graphic descriptions of scenery and the various details of a traveller's life.

McCLELLAN'S OWN STORY.—I.

McClellan's Own Story. The War for the Union, the Soldiers who fought it, the Civilians who directed it, and his relations to it and to them. By George B. McClellan, late Major-General commanding the armies. 8vo, pp. 678. New York: Charles L. Webster & Co. 1887.

In 1863 Gen. McClellan prepared a volume which was entitled 'A Report of the Organization and Campaigns of the Army of the Potomac.' This was filed in the War Department office, and in the next year an edition of it, with the addition of a sketch of his campaign in West Virginia in June and July, 1861, was published by Sheldon & Co., and used more or less as a campaign document in the Presidential election when McClellan was a candidate. The book was regarded by the Secretary of War as an extra-official paper, since it not only traversed the ground of his whole military career, the several campaigns of which had been separately reported in his current communications with the War Office, but collated and published much correspondence which did not call for new report, since it was already upon the files of the Department. It was received, however, and, after some months of delay, of which the General's friends complained, it was given to the public. It was his history of his military career, prepared as the justification of his conduct and generalship, and as his criticism of the Administration which had relieved him from command.

The present volume is in substance a revised edition of that Report, with considerable additions, a few omissions, and with some chapters of extracts from his private correspondence, chiefly with his wife. The changes are most noticeable in the earlier part of the narrative, where the discussion of relations to the Administration of Mr. Lincoln and of the organization of the Army of the Potomac naturally led him into matters which had not found place in the original edition of the Report. The chapters concerning his personal intercourse with Lincoln, Stanton, Scott, Halleck, and others, are, of course, new. Still, it will be found that the larger part of the Report, both substance and form, are embodied in the present book. Gen. McClellan's method, as indicated by his editor, seems to have been to annotate the original Report, referring to corroborating documents and correspondence. It can easily be seen that such a treatment of the material would not be so likely to lead to a full discussion of open questions as if there had been a complete rewriting of the work; though we must also remember that the earlier part of the book, which is most changed, is also that in which such discussion would naturally occur, and that the lack of it will be a sore disappointment to its readers.

In the original Report, addressed as it was to the Government, it was necessary to waive personalities, and to hold the tone of respectful narrative of fact. The change in the present edition which is most noticeable is the attribution to the Administration of Mr. Lincoln, and to the leaders of the Union party (as it was then called), of a conscious purpose to sacrifice the Army of the Potomac in order to diminish the personal and political importance of the general in command. This he speaks of as a "treasonable conspiracy," and says that it was to be carried out, "first, by endeavoring to force me into premature movements, knowing that a failure would probably end my military career; afterwards, by withholding the means necessary to achieve success" (p. 150). Although McClellan thus formulated the charge in the last years of his life, his private correspondence shows that he adopted it after the President and Congress began to be impatient at his inaction in the autumn of 1861, and that he never abandoned it.

Three questions are thus definitely raised by himself as the central ones in his public life: Did the Administration and the party in power endeavor to force him into premature movements? Did they afterwards withhold the means necessary to achieve success? And did they do this knowingly and wickedly, being "treasonably" willing to involve the country in ruin if they might thereby ruin him?

If this issue had not been thus tendered in the additions to the book written since 1881, it would seem incredible that any intelligent person could, at this distance from the war and its passions, hold any such opinion. Yet we are told that McClellan retained his full mental powers to the last, and pursued his study of military science with undiminished devotion, carefully noting all that occurred in the armies of the world, and keeping thoroughly informed of the progress of military discussion at home and abroad. The puzzle of it is, that by any possibility he could fail to see that such charges must react with destructive effect upon his military reputation, unless they are shown to be true in the light of our present knowledge of those events. As a military man he must have known that not a single writer upon our military history, of any repute whatever, thinks or believes that the supposed state of the case assumed by him when he penned his report of 1863, was the true one. The facts, as he believed them then, and as we know them now, differ in such essential particulars that arguments which were plausible then are now worthless. It is worse than blindness to repeat the old accusations and the old justifications, without acknowledging or showing any sign of recognition of the truth that his assumed facts are essentially wrong.

The central question in the controversy is one of figures. It was stated by the Comte de Paris in the volume of his history published in 1874. The French Prince had been a member of McClellan's staff, and never swerved from sincere personal friendship for him. Yet he declares that McClellan attributed to Johnston in the middle of October, 1861, "an effective force of 150,000 men, whereas, in reality, at the close of the month, it counted but 66,243 men in all, of whom but 44,131 were in active service (*sous les drapeaux*)." Making similar deductions from the national army, the same author gives McClellan's force as 133,201 on the 15th of October. The official reports show that on the 27th the number "present for duty" was 147,695. The French historian, as an eye-witness, further declares that up to this period, when the Confederates established batteries at the mouth of the Occoquan and at Matthias' Point, and thus interrupted navigation of the Potomac, no fault had been laid at McClellan's door, and he is himself forced to declare that at this time the General "lost the best opportunity he ever had to open a successful and decisive campaign" ('Histoire,' tome 2, pp. 163, 179).

The issue thus stated a dozen years before McClellan's death, by a writer of so friendly feeling and of so high a character, could not safely be passed unnoticed. Here was neither political nor personal enmity. The most distinguished member of his military family, one whose station and nativity were guarantees for the impartial kindliness of his judgment, had spoken. It would be impossible to summon him more authoritatively to account for his inaction in that unhappy autumn. If McClellan had in fact nearly a hundred and fifty thousand men against less than fifty thousand of his opponents, with what right can he say that urgency to take advantage of such an opportunity to open the campaign was an effort aimed at his ruin by forcing him into premature movements? Yet he has put the odious charge against the leading men of the nation in more offensive form than he had ever before publicly stated it, without making even the semblance of an effort to show that the inferiority of the enemy's force had been erroneously declared! The only estimates of Johnston's army are those contained in his original Report, and he does not even betray knowledge of the fact that they have since been universally rejected.

If fifty thousand men were holding a hundred and fifty thousand in a state of siege, were actually taking the aggressive and sparing troops to inflict a bloody repulse upon a detachment crossing the Potomac at Ball's Bluff on the upper river, and others to establish batteries and stop navigation on the lower river; if at this time the Baltimore and Ohio Railway was in the enemy's hands at Martinsburg and Harper's Ferry, and Maryland was seething with secession plots to revolt against the national Government and stop even the single remaining line of railway connection with the North, was it "premature" to

use some urgency that the hundred and fifty thousand should move, or should at least strike out with vigor enough right and left to open the railway communication of the capital with the West and the water communication with the East? If, in addition to this, the Secretary of the Treasury was pressing upon the General the fact that the enormous expenditures of the war threatened quick bankruptcy, and every day added to the almost insoluble difficulties of the national finance, was this also to be regarded as the mere machination of personal hostility? If, still further, the besieged army grew from week to week till the hundred and fifty thousand in October became a hundred and eighty-five thousand in February, while the enemy in front remained substantially the same, while their batteries still closed the Potomac and the Western railway was still in their hands, was it "treasonable" that respectful questioning should grow into discontent, and that Congress should appoint a committee to inquire into the "conduct of the war"? Lastly, is it conceivable that, twenty years afterwards, the General of that great army should write his 'Own Story,' the criticisms of his friend the French Prince having been ten years in print, and yet not show even consciousness that such questions had been asked, though he aggravates the form in which he charges every one with dishonorable and unpatriotic motives who condemned his delays? Could he be ignorant that officers of that army, like Gen. Webb, who had tossed their caps for him with as great enthusiasm as ever greeted him when he rode through the camps, had been forced, when sitting down to write history, to declare the truth to be that the hypotheses in our long list of questions were facts, and that the "ifs" might be discarded?

If Gen. McClellan had been deceived by the elaborate and costly "secret service" of spies and other means of information which was part of his army organization, he, of all men, should have probed that matter to the bottom. It was worth time and labor to show whether he was misled by ignorance or treachery. As a mere question of army administration and belonging to the problems of which he was fond, it was an inquiry of first-rate importance to discover how an intelligent professional soldier in command of a great army could, through his whole military career, be so egregiously wrong in his knowledge of his enemy, and for a full year of that time believe the opposing force to be three or four times as great as it actually was. If special means of information are so much worse than useless, he was the very man to improve military science by showing why this is so, while at the same time he vindicated his own character by exposing the plausible deceptions by which he was misled. But of this, as of the other questions we have stated, his book makes no sign that he was aware.

The second part of his accusation against the Administration of Mr. Lincoln turns upon the same fatal question of relative numbers as the first. It is, that after he was engaged in his campaigns, they withheld the means necessary to achieve success. His editor insists that McClellan sent to Stanton his famous despatch from the James River after the "seven days' battles" with the closing sentences, which do not appear in the copy then given to the public by the War Department: "If I save this army now, I tell you plainly that I owe no thanks to you or to any other persons in Washington. You have done your best to sacrifice this army." If, however, his army was decidedly superior in numbers, in equipment, and in supplies of every kind, to that of the Confederates at every moment from the day he landed at Fortress Monroe till he returned to Washington, his charge reflects most damagingly upon himself. If, in front of Richmond, Lee divided his inferior army, sending Jackson to assault McClellan's flank at Gaines's Mill, and the latter, with superior forces in a central position, took no advantage of the situation, but began his retreat as soon as his single exposed corps was worsted, this surely was neither Lincoln's nor Stanton's sacrifice of the army. If, again, after Malvern Hill, Lee sent away Jackson against Pope with twenty-five thousand men, and himself remained with less than fifty thousand facing McClellan, whom reinforcements had made over a hundred thousand strong, it would seem that McClellan was not left wholly without the means necessary to achieve success. If, finally, when Halleck went to him in person, he declared that he could not safely resume the offensive without a still further addition of thirty thousand to his army, and estimated the enemy at two hundred thousand (as is shown by Halleck's uncontradicted letter in McClellan's original Report, though omitted in his 'Own Story'), it cannot be denied that it would be dangerous to rely upon his defending Washington on the line of the James.

McClellan knew that those who had investigated the subject since the close of the war were nearly unanimous in taking the views of the facts thus indicated. Yet in regard to the Peninsular campaign, as in reference to the preceding delay in the lines at Washington, he wholly ignores the vital question of the Confederate strength, except as he republishes with little change the strange estimates he made when the campaign was in progress. By what mental process he could conclude that a more injurious form of charging criminal intentions upon the Government would supply the place of intelligent discussion of these central facts, we try in vain to discover.

The personal controversies in which McClellan was involved are shown to turn upon this same central fact of his overestimate of his adversary. Here the chapters of extracts from his private correspondence throw strong light upon his character and upon the events. He was assigned to command the Division of the Potomac on July 27, and just ten days thereafter he writes of a "row with Gen. Scott," his commanding officer, growing out of a "pronunciamento" of his own "against Gen. Scott's policy." He adds: "If Beauregard does not attack to-night, I shall regard it as a dispensation of Providence. . . . I am leaving nothing undone to increase our force, but the old General always comes in the way. He understands nothing, appreciates nothing." The publication of the archives of the war makes this incident easily understood. McClellan had had several interviews with Scott, and had already urged upon the veteran his fixed idea of the enormous magnitude of the Confederate army and of the imminent danger of its attacking Washington. Scott did not accept the exaggerated estimate nor believe the enemy would attack. But McClellan was so possessed with the conviction of the peril that, to shift responsibility in case of disaster, he formally addressed the Lieutenant-General in writing, putting his warning "on record." This was his "pronunciamento." Scott immediately felt it to be one of the common devices by which an ambitious subordinate seeks to entrench himself at the expense of his superior, and sent it to the Secretary of War with some caustic comments. He said that he had been glad to confer personally with McClellan in regard to every phase of the situation and to give full weight to his opinions, but that since he insisted upon making a "record" in the matter, for the manifest purpose of putting his superior in the wrong, he distinctly stated his own belief that McClellan exaggerated the enemy's force, and that the Confederates were not likely to attack Washington. He sarcastically welcomed McClellan to the history he was making. The Secretary of War tried to persuade both parties to withdraw their letters, but Scott refused, expressing his own willingness to be retired at once.

If, then, the question of numbers be decided against McClellan, where does he stand in this quarrel with his commander? Beauregard and Johnston have published their memoirs, and show that they knew the superiority of McClellan's force and had no thought of attacking Washington. In this controversy, then, we are driven to conclude that Scott was right and McClellan was wrong. Yet the latter adhered to his illusion, and grew contemptuous in his treatment of the old General, whose judgment was the better one. On the 9th of August he reiterates that "Gen. Scott is the great obstacle. He will not comprehend the danger." On the 15th he writes: "I am almost tired out, . . . sleep with one eye open at night, looking out sharply for Beauregard, who, I think, has some notion of making a dash in this direction. Gen. Scott is the most dangerous antagonist I have." On the 16th he says: "I am here in a terrible place. The enemy have from three to four times my force; the President, the old General, cannot or will not see the true state of affairs. . . . I have no ambition in the present affairs; only wish to save my country, and find the incapables around me will not permit it." On the 20th: "If Beauregard does not attack this week, he is foolish. . . . I am gaining rapidly in every way. I can now defend Washington with almost perfect certainty." September 27: "The President sent a carriage for me to meet him and the Cabinet at Gen. Scott's office. Before we got through, the General 'raised a row with me.'"

On the 8th of September McClellan had submitted a paper to Secretary Cameron, in which, after stating that his own effective force was then "nearly 85,000 men," and that "by calling in the commands of Gens Banks and Stone it will probably be sufficient to defend the city," he gives the opinion that the enemy will take the initiative and cross the Potomac near Point-of-Rocks and move on Baltimore. "I see no reason to doubt the possibility of his attempting this with a column of at least 100,000 effective troops. If he has only 130,000 under arms, he can make all the diversions I have mentioned with his raw and badly organized troops, leaving 100,000 effective men for his real movement. As I am now situated I can by no possibility bring to bear against this column more than 70,000, and probably not over 60,000, effective troops." His proposal was "that all the available troops in Ohio, Indiana, Michigan, Wisconsin, and at least 10,000 Illinois troops, . . . and all those of the Eastern and Northern States be at once directed to report to me for duty." Besides asking for other enlarged powers, and that the Army of the Potomac be made "not less than 300,000 men," he closes with demanding "that no one, whatever his rank may be, shall give any orders respecting my command without my being first consulted." This last demand, of course, meant the deposition of Gen. Scott from the command in chief. If, now, the enemy's force was in fact less than 40,000, and, after waiting three weeks for the initiative the enemy would not take, the President, Cabinet, and Gen. Scott began to insist upon something being done on our side, and McClellan would not hear of anything but the defensive, is it strange Scott should 'raise a row with me'? And yet McClellan writes his 'Own Story' without referring to the question of the actual force of the Confederate army at that time, according to present evidence.

On October 16 (the time mentioned by the Comte de Paris in the quotations we have given)

McClellan writes: "Washington may now be looked upon as quite safe. They cannot attack it in front. My flanks are also safe, or soon will be. Then I shall take my own time to make an army that will be sure of success. Gen. Scott did try to send some of my troops to Kentucky, but he did not succeed." On the 20th or 21st he says: "The weather is delightful. The enemy has fallen back to Centreville and Manassas, expecting us to attack there." On the 26th, Scott's defeat, at least, approaches apace. "For the last three hours I have been at Montgomery Blair's, talking with Senators Wade, Trumbull, and Chandler about war matters. They will make a desperate effort to-morrow to have Gen. Scott retired at once: until that is accomplished I can effect but little good. He is ever in my way, and I am sure does not desire effective action. I want to get through with the war as rapidly as possible. . . . I go out soon after breakfast to review Porter's division about five miles from here." The last quotation, asterisks and all, is as it stands in the text. It is noticeable, too, that the redoubtable radicals of the Senate are not at this time trying to destroy him, but are making "desperate effort" to give him unlimited power. It succeeds, and on November 3 he is able to write: "At last I am the 'Major-General commanding the army.'"

Before the close of the month, however, he is "concealed at Stanton's to dodge all enemies in shape of 'browsing' Presidents, etc." He is "pretty thoroughly tired out," preparing a paper "to place on record that I have left nothing undone to make this army what it ought to be, and that the necessity for delay has not been my fault. I have a set of men to deal with unscrupulous and false: if possible, they will throw whatever blame there is on my shoulders, and I do not intend to be sacrificed by such people. . . . I cannot move without more means, and I do not possess the power to control those means. The people think me all-powerful. Never was there a greater mistake. I am thwarted and deceived by these incapables at every turn." On November 30, his official report showed his force "present for duty" 162,727, with 248 pieces of field artillery and 133 heavy. If, when he wrote his 'Own Story,' he had any evidence to show that the enemy at this time exceeded 50,000, it has not been given to the world. The analogy of the situation when he was preparing the "paper" mentioned, with that when he was similarly "making up a record" against Gen. Scott three months earlier, will strike the most casual reader.

ENGLAND'S CASE AGAINST HOME RULE.

England's Case against Home Rule. By A. V. Dicey, B.C.L., author of 'The Law of the Constitution.' London: John Murray. 1886.

MR. DICEY'S book is better than its title. It is not solely a statement of the arguments against the grant of what is called home rule to Ireland, but a careful, thoughtful review of the Irish question from the point of a constitutional lawyer; not a mere piece of one-sided advocacy, but a temperate examination, as well of the grounds for Ireland's demand, as of the reasons why the demand should be refused by England. Yet the absence of passion is due to no lack of vivacity. The book is bright, animated, vigorous, from beginning to end. It is more like a speech than a book—a speech which, though it would occupy some three or four hours in delivery, might be listened to without weariness throughout, so well do the point and briskness of the style sustain the attention of the auditor.

The plan of the treatise involves a good deal of repetition, but the author has rightly thought that repetition is no evil in handling a subject so intricate and so much confused by the representations and misrepresentations of political advocates. Shortly stated, the order of topics is as follows: First, the meaning of the term home rule, as going beyond mere local self-government, is determined. Then the causes which have given strength to the home-rule movement in England are investigated, and the current arguments for it criticised. Two alternative solutions of the present difficulty are stated—the maintenance of the existing union, and complete separation of the two islands; and each of these is passed in review. Then the home-rule solution is subjected to a minute analysis. It is considered under four forms—as Federalism, as Colonial Independence, as the revival of the system which existed from 1782 to 1800, called for shortness Grattan's Constitution, and as the scheme of Mr. Gladstone's Government of Ireland Bill of 1886, called for shortness the Gladstonian Constitution. A few concluding remarks sum up the result to which the examination of all these forms is deemed to have conducted the reader, viz., that home rule in any one of the forms proposed for it is inadmissible, as threatening England with greater evils than those which Ireland now inflicts upon her, as necessarily leading to separation, and as being, because it so necessarily leads, in reality worse than immediate and total separation.

There is much in every chapter—we had almost said in every page—with which a fair-minded reader, whatever be his prepossessions on the Irish question, will agree. The facts are always honestly stated, the arguments are always well considered and logically sound. They are, however, the arguments rather of a logician and a jurist than of a politician. The reasoning tends to become abstract, or, as a physicist would say, to move *in vacuo*, rather than to present and handle the problem in its practical and concrete shape. Mr. Dicey does not ignore facts—no one admits more honestly those that are against him. But he does not see them in their perspective. They seem to lie all equally near his eye. Small legal difficulties affright him which his opponents would confess to be difficulties, but would not recoil from, because they could be evaded or neglected. He does not deny the force which sentimental considerations exert, but as he personally dislikes them, he does not feel how immensely powerful they are. He admits, for instance, that the temper of the English democracy is an obstacle to the application of a firmly repressive government by England in Ireland. He argues, most justly and wisely, that such application of repression ought to be accompanied by a policy of broad, sweeping, and generous reforms in Ireland, getting rid of landlordism, and entirely reconstructing the present indefensible administrative system.

But his antagonists would reply—and, so far as we can judge, with truth—that in neither case does he make due allowance for the strength of the sentiment opposed to the course he recommends. The dislike to what is called "coercion" among the English masses may not be strong enough to prevent an English Ministry from passing acts which restrict in Ireland the ordinary liberties of the citizen. But the experience of the last few years seems to show that it is so strong as to prevent those acts from being stringent enough and being maintained long enough in force to effect their purpose. Whipping may be good for a child or indulgence may be good for a child. But a whipping which irritates without subduing the culprit, or a whipping after which the parent apologizes and burns the rod, is worse than either severity or indulgence, for it continues the mischiefs of both.

On the other hand, the view Mr. Dicey proclaims, that repression can only be justified and the Union preserved by carrying out large measures of ameliorative social and administrative reform in Ireland, will be heartily accepted by every observer who stands outside the English conflict. "To maintain the Treaty of Union with any good effect, we must sedulously do justice to every fair demand from Ireland, must strenuously and without either fear or favor assert the equal rights of landlords and tenants, of Catholics and Protestants, and must at the same time put down every outrage and reform every abuse" (p. 280). But the outside observer will ask whether there is any hope that an English Ministry and Parliament which is governing by repression, will pass such measures or work them out in a liberal spirit. Such a Ministry will be sailing on the other tack. It will draw its support from, it will be swayed by, those whose personal interests and feelings are opposed to large reforms. An enlightened despot could and would do exactly what Mr. Dicey suggests. But neither American nor English history suggests that democracies can be expected to act like enlightened despots. This is what we mean by saying that Mr. Dicey writes more as a jurist than as a politician. He admits the fact himself, as when he says (p. 277), "To a jurist it may appear conceivable, though hardly probable, that by the vigorous aid of the British Parliament the Gladstonian Constitution for the United Kingdom might have lasted two years." With all respect for jurists, and especially for a jurist of such eminent acuteness as the author of 'The Law of the Constitution,' the reconcilement of two nations, for reconciled they will have to be if the security of England and the smooth working of her Constitution are to be insured, is an undertaking requiring much more than a mastery of constitutional law, even with the addition of an upright and earnest heart. Nations have to put up with faulty constitutions, if those constitutions are the best which the circumstances admit of; a lesson which the history of Southern Reconstruction is perhaps better fitted to impress upon Europe than any circumstances within its own experience.

The same deficient perception of existing political forces appears in Mr. Dicey's treatment of what he calls "the argument from the inconvenience to the English Parliament of the presence of Irish members bent on obstruction." He seems to think that this argument is grounded merely on the unwillingness of English members to alter the procedure of their own assembly, and assumes that it can be got rid of by amending that procedure, possibly with the addition of a change in the relations of the Executive to the Legislature, so as to render the former more independent of the latter. Such a change might mean a total dislocation of the delicate machinery of English government. But, passing that question by, any practical politician can see that the presence in a deliberative assembly of a section, numbering one-seventh of the whole, which desires to lower the character of the assembly, to derange its mechanism—in fact, to stop its working altogether—and which has no interest in the business it conducts beyond that of proving that it is incompetent to conduct a large part of its business, is a mischief that goes far too deep to be cured by any changes in the rules of debate. He may well be justified in holding that such a mischief is not alone sufficient to require the dissolution of the Union; but his own speculative attitude has prevented him from appreciating its real nature, as a much inferior member of any legislative body might do.

Subject to these limitations of the author's view, and partly in consequence of them, the book is an admirable piece of destructive criticism. It is destructive in more directions than one, for it contains an arraignment of the con-

duct of England to Ireland far more telling, from its calm incisiveness, than the heated harangues of Nationalist orators. The Unionist party in England have found in Mr. Dicey an ally who must surely have alarmed them by his admissions. Such admissions have a worth and use for both parties. Not only ought they to lead those who share his attitude of resistance to the Irish demand, to reconsider their position and the arguments by which they support it—to feel how absolute is the need for a "new departure" in the methods by which England has governed Ireland; but they can hardly fail to dispose his antagonists to give a fair hearing to the objections which he urges to the scheme of home rule propounded by the Gladstonian party last spring. He shows how many differences there are between that scheme and the instances cited on its behalf from other countries. He explains the relations between the British Government and the governments of the great English colonies, accentuating the points in which those relations must differ from any such as could be established between Great Britain and Ireland. He points out the inherent weaknesses of federalism, and insists on a point which, obvious as it seems to Americans, Englishmen evidently cannot have realized, that to establish a federal relation between Great Britain and Ireland means nothing less than to reconstruct the British Constitution from its foundation.

That a discussion at once so fair and so vigorous of a subject clouded by so many prejudices, passions, and misconceptions, will do good in England it is impossible to doubt. It is calculated to cool men's tempers while it clears their minds. Whether it will change opinions is another question. Those who already agree with Mr. Dicey's conclusion will find an arsenal of arguments made ready for their use which few could have forged for themselves. Those who differ from him will be apt to think that the force of his reasoning is more formal than substantial. They may be unable to break the chain of his logic, but they will feel that it has omitted to meet many of the considerations which govern their own judgment. They will say, also, that a destructive treatment of such a subject is only a half treatment. When an army is cooped up in a dangerous defile, a member of the council of war who demonstrates the risks of attempting a particular movement to the right exposes himself to the question, "What then do you advise? Some effort to escape must be made, for we cannot stay where we are." So the answer that one anticipates to this book is, "What do you propose? England and Ireland cannot go on as heretofore: that you practically admit. If home rule is so dangerous, propound your own alternative." Mr. Dicey, whose only alternative seems to be that England should utterly change her feelings towards Ireland and her manner of governing Ireland, would doubtless reply that his duty is discharged if he has shown that of all possible solutions home rule is the worst. This proposition, however, is a proposition so wide that to prove it is practically impossible, because all prediction in politics is from the nature of the matter uncertain. The controversy seems in England to have reached that phase in which the party who have got a definite plan, and a new plan, will win, not necessarily because their plan is right, but because it promises to avoid the old failures. To revert again to the experience of this country, the enfranchisement of the Southern negroes was open to a hundred objections—objections so weighty that a critic might well have deemed himself to have proved it the worst of all possible courses. Many of those objections were incontestable. Many of them have been verified by the result. Nevertheless, the negroes were enfranchised.

THE CRIMEAN JOURNEY OF CATHARINE II.

Lettres du prince de Ligne à la marquise de Coigny, pendant l'année 1787. Publiées avec une preface par M. de Lescure. Paris: Librairie des Bibliophiles. 1886. Pp. xxi, 69.

THIS charming little volume is one of a collection "des petits chefs-d'œuvre," and the nine letters it contains are certainly among the best of their kind. But "chefs-d'œuvre"? Well, perhaps the longest, an autobiographical sketch of twenty pages, may be so called. As for the rest, one does not ask what they are, since such as they are they are most entertaining. They are unique: letters written by a man of fifty, who had enjoyed more than almost any other man the advantages of intimacy with the most important historical personages of his time, to a woman of twenty-seven, so famous for her beauty, her wit, her charm, her pride, that Marie Antoinette said, with a smiling sigh, "I am only the queen of Versailles; it is Mme. de Coigny who is the queen of Paris." Moreover, the subject of these letters, or rather (for the subjects touched upon are most various) the framework of them, is the extraordinary Crimean journey of Catharine II. The Prince de Ligne was one of that remarkable company of travellers. It is from this point of view, we confess, that these letters seem to us of most permanent and general interest. Time has somewhat dimmed the grace of the Prince's compliments and dulled the point of his witticisms, but the brilliancy of his lively sentences reflecting the scenes about him is still possessed of magic power, and we see scarcely less vividly than he the wonderful things he saw.

Catharine, after annexing the Crimea to her own dominions, visited it under the guidance of Prince Potemkin and accompanied by the Emperor Joseph, and she carried in her suite on this six-months' journey the English and Austrian ambassadors, the Prince de Ligne (to whom she presented an estate in Taurida, as a reward, as it were, for his attendance), and the French ambassador (his intimate friend), the Comte de Ségur—the same Comte de Ségur who, five years before, as bearer of despatches to Rochambeau, had marched, if not fought, in our cause, following in the steps of his friend and connection Lafayette. He, too, gave a narrative—a much longer and more detailed, a serious and dull narrative—in his 'Mémoires,' of this magnificent "progress"; and the two friends supplement each other admirably.

In the pages of formal historians the incidents of the journey are usually summed up in sentences which take shape in the memory somewhat after the fashion of head-lines: Astonishing deceptions practised by Prince Potemkin on Catharine! He wishes to stimulate her to continued conquests! He deludes her with regard to the resources of the country! Populations migrate secretly along her path!! Temporary villages!! Fictitious highways!! Stage artifices on an incredibly stupendous scale!!! These rumors prevailed even at the time, and at the time the Prince de Ligne contradicts them. One surmises that even this shrewd and practised observer saw the things now before him a little too much *en beau* (and very naturally, looking at them from the Empress's carriage window); and it does more to justify the judicial blindness of Catharine herself than anything else could. The Prince says, in one of his last letters:

"I know it is not the fashion to believe . . . anything good of Russia. Even those among the Russians themselves who are vexed at not having been with us, will assert that we have been deceived and that we deceive. The ridiculous story has already been spread that pasteboard villages have been transported along our way for a circuit of a hundred leagues, that the vessels and the cannons were painted, the cavalry without horses, etc."

There may have been no pasteboard villages, but the high-born travellers give proof that men of pasteboard would have been the same to them as the villagers and peasants and serfs among whom they passed, and the Prince's pages describe only a superb "spectacle."

In January, 1787, they set off. The travelling procession was composed of 14 carriages and 184 sledges, with 40 others to be used if needed. Five hundred and sixty horses were ready at each post. When night fell, great bonfires each side of the road along the whole way made it brighter than day. Wherever they stopped to eat or sleep they "found encampments marvellous from their Asiatic magnificence in the midst of deserts"; while, on their return in the summer, "the carriages were full of peaches and oranges, and the valets drunk with champagne." February, March, and April were spent at Kieff awaiting the breaking up of ice on the river. Catharine established some of the conditions of court-life while there, and received homage from all the wild nations that surrounded her. There congregated to see her the famous Cossacks of the Don; a Prince of Georgia bringing tributes; Chinese deputies "who waggled their heads like the figures that are on the mantelpiece of your chimney"; envoys from the wandering Kirghiz; troops of "independent" Tartars, and savage Kalmucks and crowds of Poles.

On the 1st of May, the Empress, embarking in her barge, set sail on the Dnieper, followed by a stately fleet of more than eighty vessels with three thousand men. The splendid apartments constructed on the decks of the eight "court" ships glittered with gold and silk, and were furnished with elegant comfort, while twelve musicians on each barge increased the sense of luxury. Numberless boats and canoes and fast-sailing skiffs fluttered continually about the squadron, and into these the voyagers often entered, to gain opportunities of walking on the banks of the river, or through the fertile islands among which the river flows. A concourse of spectators constantly crowded the river sides, and the beautiful, sunny, verdant landscape beyond was so ornamented and disguised with triumphal arches and other architectural decorations as to produce completely illusive effects. The picture drawn of the whole scene by the trustworthy Ségur is very extraordinary.

After five days they reached Kaneff, where they were awaited by the King of Poland and his court. "Foolish Poniatowsky!" (so Carlyle depicts him) "an empty, windy creature, redolent of macassar and the finer sensibilities of the heart, . . . an elegant inane creature with vaporous sentimentalisms and sublime sorrows and disappointments." The Prince de Ligne saw only his charming side. "I went," he says, "in a little Zaporogian canoe to announce to him our arrival. An hour after, the great lords of the empire came to escort him in a brilliant sloop; and on entering it he said to them, with the inexpressible charm of his fine appearance and of his delightful tone of voice: 'Gentlemen, the King of Poland has commissioned me to commend to you the Count Poniatowsky.'" "Ornamental wholly; the body of him and the mind of him got up for representation," says Carlyle again. Stanislas and Catharine had not met since they had been lovers thirty years before. Six or seven years after that she had, as it were, given him his crown, which only a year later than this she was to take from him. The Comte de Ségur and the Prince de Ligne and others of the party, her more personal friends, anticipated with some excitement this dramatic meeting. As the King ascended the imperial barge, they pressed about him; "but," says the Count, "our ex-

pectations were almost entirely disappointed; for after a mutual salutation, grave, cold, and dignified, Catharine giving her hand to Stanislas, they entered alone an apartment where they remained tête à tête for half an hour." When they reappeared, the Count (he was *tant soit peu* a sentimentalist) asserts that "over the Empress hung a cloud of embarrassment and unusual restraint, and in the eyes of the King was a certain sadness." At the entertainment which followed, "little was eaten and little was said," the Count notes; but the Prince declares: "The dinner was very gay." On rising from table the King handed to the Empress her gloves and fan, and looked for his hat; the Empress seeing it sooner than he, handed it to him. "Deux fois couvrir ma tête," said the King, gallantly, alluding to his crown; "ah! Madame! c'est trop me combler de bienfaits et de reconnoissance." The poor Count finds this interview only too well fitted for history; "for it was certainly not embellished and animated by any excess of tender sentiments." But he might have been consoled by the Prince de Ligne's view, who says, "The King of Poland had been waiting for us at Kaneff, and expended three months and three millions to see the Empress for three hours."

The Emperor Joseph and Catharine were to have met at Kherson, but he, arriving there before her, hastened still forward. She learned this change of plan, and, desirous of showing equal cordiality, she suddenly disembarked, leaving almost all her suite behind her, and, getting into a carriage, came across the Emperor on the road near the solitary house of a Cossack. Here they remained for some hours, and partook of a repast prepared, in the absence of all attendants, by the hands of Prince Potemkin himself and his friends the Prince of Nassau and General Branicki, and which "was as detestable," Count Ségur declares, "as might have been expected from such noble cooks." The Emperor, while in Russia, travelled as the Count of Falkenstein, and was accompanied only by a general officer and two servants. It was "a singular journey," as the Emperor himself said, adding: "Who would have dreamt of seeing me with Catharine the Second and the Ministers of France and England, wandering in the desert of the Tartars! It is altogether a new page in history." It was sometimes like a page from the 'Arabian Nights'; and the novel sights, native to the country, which they saw with the unpractised eyes of statesmen and diplomats (very unlike the trained observation of the born traveller), combined with the gorgeous spectacles arranged by Prince Potemkin, had on them an almost bewildering effect. "I know no longer," cries the Prince, "where I am, nor what age of the world it is." He might well believe himself to be dreaming when, dropping asleep in the royal carriage from heat and fatigue, he "heard, on awaking, one of my travelling companions saying, 'I have thirty millions of subjects, as I am told, reckoning only the male population'; and the other answering, 'And I two and twenty millions, counting all.' 'I must have an army of at least six hundred thousand men from Kamtchatka to Riga,' adds the former, and the latter replies, 'Half that number is exactly what I need.'"

He continues:

"In our travelling carriage we review every State and every great personage, and heaven knows how we treat them! 'Rather than sign the secession of thirteen provinces, as my brother George has done, I would have shot myself,' says Catharine gently. 'And rather than resign, as my brothers and my brother-in-law have done by assembling the nation to talk of abuses, I know not what I would not have done,' says Joseph II. . . . They were also of one opinion respecting the King of Sweden, who is no favorite with either, and against whom the Emperor, as he said, conceived a dislike in Italy on account of a blue and silver dressing-gown, with a diamond star. Both agreed that he has energy, talents, and wit."

Their imperial majesties sometimes "felt each other's pulse about those poor devils the Turks. Hints were dropped and then they looked at each other." And it was not only the majesties who looked at each other. A few words from the Empress respecting the relations of France to the Mussulmans caused "Ségur to turn pale and Nassau to flush, while Fitz-Herbert gaped openmouthed and Cobenzl was perturbed and I laughed," says the Prince. Catharine talked a great deal of her "petit ménage," her little establishment, as she designated her vast empire. But the conversation was not always of States and great personages. One day she desired to be taught to write verses. Like the famous Malebranche she could not learn the art. His greatest success was in these lines:

"Il fait le plus beau temps du monde
Pour aller à cheval, sur la terre et sur l'onde,"

Catharine got as far as

"Sur le sopha du Kan, sur des coussins bourrés,
Dans un Kiosque d'or, de grilles entourés."

They made great fun of her Majesty for being unable to get off her sofa after four hours of effort; and the scene was evidently one of very free and jesting familiarity. Indeed, the whole tone both of the Prince de Ligne and the Comte de Ségur about Catharine shows a complete bonhomie on her part, made possible by the immense admiration and respect as for a man with which she inspired these men, who called her—to her face and also behind her back—Catharine *le Grand*. One day she commanded them all to use the *tu* to her. Down came a mighty deluge of *tutoi-ing—à bras raccourcis*—the last always more comical than the preceding one. "I interlarded mine with the title *Majesty*, and I thought *ta majesté* did very well. Others knew not what to say, but her *thou-ing* and *thou-ed* Majesty looked none the less the autocratess of all the Russias, and almost of all the world."

In another conversation referred to here, but reported more fully by the Prince to his friend Grimm, Catharine asked them what they thought she would have become had she been born a man and a private person. The English Ambassador replied that she would have been a great legislator; the Austrian, a distinguished minister; the Prince de Ligne said she would have been a famous general. "No," she said to him, "*you* are mistaken; had I been a soldier I should have risked everything in the pursuit of glory, and I should have been killed before I was a captain." "I do not believe it, madam," answered the Prince, "for I am still alive." The Empress did not catch his meaning at once, but when she did she took in perfectly good part the rebuke it contained for assuming that she would have shown greater daring than he and many others.

It is impossible in these limits to give any indication of the extraordinary condition of the country through which they passed, or of the political complications and anticipations of war that chiefly occupied the thoughts of the whole party; but here is a picture from which many conclusions may be drawn respecting Catharine's modes of government:

"For two months now I have been throwing money out of the window: I have done so before, but not in the same manner. This is the fashion of it: by my side in the carriage is a great green bag, like that in which you will put your prayer-books when you become pious. This bag is full of imperials, pieces of four ducats. The inhabitants of the neighboring villages, and even from ten, fifteen, twenty leagues' distance, come to meet us, to see the Empress. This is what they do: a long quarter of an hour before her coming they lie down on their faces, and do not rise for a quarter of an hour after we have passed; on these backs and these heads kissing the earth I pelt down gold at full gallop; and this takes place ten times a day."

So, with jestings and heart-beatings, tossing millions to the prostrate peasantry, and forgetting to take them into account among the problems to be solved, talking of peace and rushing towards war, with fireworks costing 40,000 rubles and illuminations representing Vesuvius, these representatives of civilization went and came through the lands of barbarism. Civilization—barbarism? Is there a deeper meaning than he gave to it in the Prince de Ligne's own saying—"Il n'y a de civil que les gens qui ne sont pas civilisés"?

RECENT RELIGIOUS AND ETHICAL LITERATURE.

History of Interpretation. By F. W. Farrar. Eight lectures preached before the University of Oxford, in the year 1885, on the Bampton Foundation. E. P. Dutton & Co. Pp. 553.

The Philosophy of Religion, or the Basis of its History. By Prof. O. Pfleiderer. Translated from the second German edition by Alexander Stewart, M.A., and Allan Menzies, B.D. Vol. I. London: Williams & Norgate. Pp 740.

Die Nothwendigkeit der Religion: eine letzte Consequenz der Darwinische Lehre. Von Dr. F. Dahl. Heidelberg: Weise. 1886. Pp. 112.

Moderne Versuche eines Religionsersatzes. Von Dr. H. Druskowitz. Heidelberg: Weise. 1886. Pp. 90.

In Sachen der Spiritismus und einer Naturwissenschaftlichen Psychologie. Von A. Bastian. Berlin: Stricker. 1886. Pp. 216.

Jenseits von Gut und Böse: Vorspiel einer Philosophie der Zukunft. Von Fr Nietzsche. Leipzig: C. G. Naumann. 1886. Pp. 266.

Outlines of the History of Ethics for English Readers. By Henry Sidgwick. Macmillan & Co.

L'Évolution de la Morale. Par Ch. Letourneau. Paris: Delahaye. 1887. Pp. 978.

Ethik: eine Untersuchung der Thatsachen und Gesetze des sittlichen Lebens. Von Wm. Wundt. Stuttgart: F. Enke. 1886. Pp. 577.

Principles of Morals. (Introductory chapters.) By J. M. Wilson and T. Fowler. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1886. Pp. 133.

THE Bampton lectureship is a great honor even for an Archdeacon of Westminster. Although the lectures must be printed within two months after they are delivered, the appointment is made long beforehand, and the lecturer has both opportunity and incentive to do his best work. Canon Farrar describes, perhaps as well as his limits permit, the fashions in Bible exegesis from ancient Jewish down to modern times—legalistic, Alexandrian, allegorical, traditional, ecclesiastical, Aristotelian, and dogmatic—in historical succession, with hundreds of references and footnotes that suggest, not so much the special scholar as a diligent general reader. He has no patience with any theory of verbal inspiration, and intimates that he is doing his best to kill off bad theories of inspiration and revelation. The very fact that method after method of interpretation has been rejected by widening knowledge, and that the Bible has survived such absurd pedagogy for so many centuries, is in fact the best of all arguments for its supreme intrinsic merit. The Renaissance seems to have started well towards a sensible and truly historical conception of the real character and treatment of Scripture, but these hopeful tendencies were strangled by the scores and hundreds of systematic theologies which followed the Reformation. The author says, in substance, that it is more blasphemous to reject the lessons of history and science than human theories about Scripture, and that to invest our conclusions about the Bible with any of

its authority—the besetting sin of commentators—is an exegetical fraud. In his view the Bible itself is as unchanged as nature, but we should no more accept old views about it than we should accept the opinions of Pythagoras and Ptolemy about nature. He almost seems to agree with Bishop Herbert Marsh, who is quoted as saying squarely that the Bible must be examined by the same laws of criticism which are applied to other writings of antiquity. We hope the trustees of the John Bampton fund are less exacting in interpreting the words of his will than the critics of the Andover theology.

A really thorough and scholarly historian of the philosophy of religion, such as Prof. Pfleiderer is, finds his task by no means an easy one, for the question of utter scientific sincerity—not only his own, but that of those of whom he writes—enters as a complication, consciously or unconsciously, into every part of his work. The second volume of his history includes writers from Schleiermacher down to the present time, and is to be followed by two more volumes treating the philosophy of religion genetically and speculatively. Though these later volumes contain important additions to the first edition, on the development of the religious consciousness in its beginnings among the Indo-Germans, the Semitic race, and in Christianity, it is the first two volumes of this edition only that are here so enlarged as to constitute almost a new work. The digest of the views of Schleiermacher and especially of Kant, whose significance for religious thought is now so rapidly growing in appreciation, constitutes the best chapters in the book, because written, as is very evident in the case of Kant, with admiration and even ardor. The defect in the author's exposition throughout is his failure to reduce the abstract metaphysical phraseology, in which much of the philosophy of religion has been written, from the idealistic standpoint to the clear and concise language which all subject-matter in the metaphysical realm is now so happily seeking.

Dr. Dahl is a young zoölogist, and his thought is concise enough. He finds that, from the standpoint of natural history, religion is in the highest degree advantageous and even necessary for men. Its objective validity is a matter of no interest, and is, in fact, unknowable. We want no proofs or knowledge, but only faith. Christianity is the highest of all religions, and not merely fills gaps in scientific knowledge, but has always had, and will continue to have, the same domain. Miracles are possible, immortality sure, the Bible all true, etc.—all in a large, high, and sometimes almost esoteric sense. In fact, as Kant thought the undevout astronomer mad, Dr. Dahl is not very far from the conviction that the unchristian Darwin is defective in moral, if not in mental, insight. To know that the best survive and rise to ever higher stages of development is a new source of consolation, which tips the scale for those who die in the struggle for existence to the side of pleasure, in the insight that their death clears the way for the higher development of better organizations.

Dr. Druskowitz thinks Christianity is fast passing away—has already, in fact, lost its hold on most of the best men. Miracles, immortality, and theologies must go with it. Worst of all, neither Feuerbach, Dühring, Dubal, nor Comte has given us an adequate substitute. Social relations must be considerably changed before a worthy substitute could find a foothold, were it entirely manifest what and where it was to be found. Indeed, were these ideal social conditions realized, we should then see that man must rise above the realm of religion to higher insights. Man's duty is to strive to attain the highest development of all that is within him, but also to keep alive a sentiment of supreme loyalty to the sources of all existence.

A. Bastian's is certainly the most chaotic mind among the psychological anthropologists. He does not believe in indexes, chapters, or sections of any sort; quotes incessantly, often in half-a-dozen languages on a page, and from all sorts of known and unknown authors. Slade and the olfactorial Dr. Jäger furnish the author a text, and he shows overwhelmingly that such spiritualistic theories and performances have always been in the world and been cherished. He concludes with his well-known thesis, that the thoughts of the races of mankind must be gathered and tabulated, as the bases of a psychology that shall rest on the only solid foundation of natural science.

Nietzsche writes on the prejudices of philosophers, the essence of religion, the natural history of morals, and so forth, as introductory to his forthcoming philosophy. There is a levity, almost flippancy, in his style, which is hardly less clear and brilliant than that of Schopenhauer, his great master in a sense, and it does not impress one favorably with his seriousness. Christianity is Platonism for the people. It was rooted, perhaps, ultimately in primitive animism, but chiefly in the horror of the naïve, instinctive faith, that led Socrates to evolve the concept which Plato hypostatized as idea, etc., though the Church, in later accepting faith as an authority, partially atoned for this one-sidedness. The savant's love of wisdom is really love of his own wisdom, and philosophy is itself most introspective. Consciousness is a form of sacrificing intellect to the unconscious. This Platonic, Christian, philosophic ideolatry, or fiction of a transcendental world, which broke out as an acute religious neurosis some two thousand years ago, has tamed and domesticated man till he is insipid and degenerate, like a too much handled cat. It has, however, happily developed a tension in the mental and moral world, and given promise that we shall see things as they really are; and the new psychology, which seeks the truth to do the right and is the future queen of all the sciences, will do the rest.

M. Letourneau holds that philosophy has been separated so long from science that its abstract ideas have become mere naïve and subtle attenuations of animism. Even moral ideas and habits, from the standpoint of the anthropologist, which the author represents, are products of comparatively recent growth, the stages of which, for the benefit of pedagogues and moralists, he endeavors to formulate (after preliminary sections on heredity and the instincts and moral character and conflicts of animals) as follows: (1.) *Bestial morality*, including anthropophagy, war, human sacrifices, infanticide, abortion, marriage, property. (2.) Savage morality. (3.) Barbaric morality, illustrated by the ancient Mexicans, Peruvians, Egyptians, Persians, and Chinese. (4.) Industrial or mercantile morality. Metaphysical morality—or, which is the same, the morality of attenuated religion—is disparaged, and the civilized man of to-day stands without any sense of restraint from the morality of the past. He can only be saved by a new, severely scientific, and utilitarian morality, signs of the coming of which are said to abound, but which can only be inaugurated by the formation of small groups of ethical innovators, who by their words and conduct shall incite to the formation of other groups, and thus gradually metamorphose the innately perverse nerve centres whence all ethical conduct springs.

Wundt's industry is amazing. He has already written on nearly all the special departments which are covered by philosophy, and is yet but little over fifty. There is a breadth about his treatment of logic, ethics, and psychology which one seeks in vain in any other contemporary writer. Sidgwick and Lotze were more widely read and more deeply ethical in nature than is Wundt; Venn and our own Charles Peirce are far better grounded in logic than he; and Horwicz and Steinthal, Lotze and Herbart, all surpass him, except in the purely experimental chapters of psychology. But his very freedom from the traditions of the university philosophy and from much useless lumber of scholastic learning has enabled him to turn the light of fresh, modern common sense, tempered by a more or less scientific training, on to every philosophic subject he touches, vastly to its advantage. He will eventually prove, if we mistake not, chiefly an inciter and suggester of more detailed work that will supersede his own at most points by going further along the same lines. In the present imposing volume the topics are chosen and grouped in the index in an almost inspiring way. Every reader will feel that this is the basis and this the method for something like adequate treatment of ethical problems. When we turn to the special sections, however, our expectations are only imperfectly realized—not so much, after all, from any deficiency of learning or of thought, as from the vastness of the field covered, which requires general treatment, and makes methods of sufficient detail impossible for a single volume or more. Ethics has long struggled with the problem how to unite the highest well being of the individual with that of others—a proolem to which much ethical literature is now devoted. However this may be solved, two things are now clear: that for successful treatment of the latter part of the problem, one must have had long training in practical ethics, philanthropic administration, and charitable work, and must have had an internal experience of struggling to live without waste of vital energy and on the plane of the highest personal morality, or, we might say, of the highest psychological hygiene. These only can rescue the vast and ultimate problems of ethics from their present aridity. A merely literary treatment of them may be of great value, as is unquestionably this latest work of the well-known Leipsic psychologist; but it lacks, to our thinking, the one American thing needful, viz, reality.

The last book on our list is but a fragment of three introductory chapters struck off as early as 1875, before the death of Prof. Wilson, and now published by his colleagues. The second chapter, comprising more than half the book, is historical, including the period from Hobbes to Bentham, and contains a very clear presentation of the chief systems of the period.

About Money and Other Things. A Gift-Book. By the Author of 'John Halifax, Gentleman.' Harper & Bros. 1887.

Miss Mulock is one of those authors whom time kindly allows to communicate to their books only the charm of age. Her pages receive the customary welcome due to long acquaintance, but not as a mere matter of custom; they are still solidly useful, and pervaded now by that various and sweet wisdom of age which is best summed up in the word humaneness. In this volume, which is a small collection of practical essays and short tales, we have a piece of literature characteristic of the English home, in which reading for youth is thought better if it have a moral; and for this reason, perhaps, it is called "a gift book" by the author, because it is a book of good counsel, though not of pretty covers. There are in it the title-essay about the duties of the housewife in respect to the use of money for the family, full of domestic sense and honest feeling about those relations of life which grow out of the necessity for material support; the essay upon "Genius," with its rigid insisting that duty lies only the more strictly upon the youth with gifts; the essay upon what makes life worth liv-

ing—the making it a Christian life. Besides this express advice, there are the "true stories" of the boyish Australian wanderer remembering in the midst of shipwreck a little incident of his English nursery, and the Scotch youth hunting for employment; and there are two pleasant pictures of vacation ramble—one of the author's house-boat on the Thames with her "six girls" for fellow-voyagers, the other of the Killarney lakes, in which glimpses of Irish character and scenery are skilfully made a plea for reconcilement and mutual kindness between races so long united in everything but in heart. In the days of 'Theophrastus Such,' with his intellectuality, and of such fiction as Daudet dedicates to his son, all this is commonplace and may even seem childish to our forward youth; but the spirit which breathes through these old-fashioned themes is the tradition of practical virtue for a boy's ideal, of kind serviceableness for a girl's, and of broad humanity for a nation's, which lies at the base of historic English character. Unambitious and slight as these pages are, their simple, direct moral teaching, their sound reflections on the common things of life, and the gracious womanliness which is felt pervading them, combine to make this volume excellent home-reading.

Romances of Chivalry. Told, and illustrated in facsimile, by John Ashton. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1887.

THE occupation of a professional book-maker has certainly about it something of the fascination which attends a life of adventure. To be surprised one's self by what one discovers, and then to share that surprise with others, involve two feelings that are productive of special pleasure. There is the individual charm of unexpectedness in learning something which had never before been dreamed of as existing. Then, again, there is the sense of general superiority which arises from communicating to mankind what has previously been confined almost wholly to the generous giver. No wonder that the profession has a fascination which makes it the recreation of many. "In those days," writes Mr. Ashton in this work, "an idle man in search of a job in the adventure line was never long without meeting with one." So it is now. Times change, but human nature does not. Our modern knight-errants of the book-making work sally forth, not to succor distressed damsels or hapless prisoners, but to relieve the wants of suffering communities which hunger and thirst for cheap knowledge and omniscience that can be gained without toil.

These men look upon their employment as a beneficent one, and they are not entirely out of the way in so believing. They are occasionally of great use. They are constantly devising schemes for producing new works on novel subjects, and they sometimes hit upon valuable ones. Mr. Ashton himself struck out a method of portraying the social life of the past by consulting its neglected and almost forgotten ephemeral literature. The work he did might probably have been better done: it was a good deal to have originated the idea of doing it at all. He deserved, therefore, all the success with which he met. Other ventures of his, however, have not been so prosperous, and the volume before us is a failure from almost any point of view from which it can be examined. He has, in it, entered into a region of which he clearly knows little, and which, for any satisfactory account of its peculiarities, requires something more than the capacity to seize upon and chronicle the social small beer of life. It is not, in spite of what he says, an easy region to explore satisfactorily, nor an altogether delightful one to explore at all. He who ventures far into it may come back laden with sheaves; but if he does so, he will surely have to set forth with tears.

The present volume professes to be an attempt to popularize the romances of chivalry. These, Mr. Ashton assures us, are not known at all to the general reader, because no effort has been put forth to make their attractions accessible. Many of them, indeed, have been published by learned societies, but they have rarely got beyond the subscribers' shelves. They are reproduced in their original dress, and in consequence cannot be easily made out save by the special student. To remedy this state of things Mr. Ashton now comes forward with his first list of romances, told and illustrated so as to be readable and entertaining. The list includes a dozen stories such as Sir Bevis of Hampton, Guy of Warwick, The Squire of Low Degree, Valentine and Orson, and others the names of which will be familiar to many who do not know their details. It is evident from the preface that two other collections are to follow, one based upon the Carlovingian cycle of romances, the other upon the Arthurian.

If the public is not delighted, it will not be due to any half-heartedness on the part of the compiler in recommending his wares. Mr. Ashton has set about his task with all that enthusiasm which is apt to attend late acquaintance with a subject or limited knowledge of it. There is, indeed, a sort of naïveté in the almost child-like interest he manifests in the supposed treasures he fancies he has dug up. He is in a perpetual state of astonishment that some particular story has not been more popular. He assures us that these romances were not only highly sensational and full of incident, but also surprises us with the information that they were never prolix, never full of long-winded speeches, until they began to wane at the end of the sixteenth century. As belonging to the body of subscribers to some of the learned societies he mentions, it has been our privilege, or rather our duty, to wade through many of the stories of the kind which have been published. It may be that we attach a peculiar meaning to prolixity and long-windedness, but these words, we should say, denoted two most conspicuous characteristics of these romances. It is to their possession of these qualities that we are disposed to attribute largely the fact of their now being little read or of being little likely to be read. They were suited to the taste of the age in which they came into being. Out of deference to Mr. Ashton's new-born zeal in their behalf, we shall not maintain that the taste of our own age is any better; but it is certainly very different. A story about demons and enchantments and fairies in days when men believed in them could be carried along by its incidents and details; but in days when men no longer believe in demons and enchantments and fairies, there must be an unusual charm in the telling to offset the incredulity with which such incidents and details are received. To that must be added, in the superabundance of our existing literature, a decent regard for the brevity of human life. Neither one of these conditions is found in these romances; and on both grounds there is a curious lack of the literary sense in placing them, as is done in this volume, in comparison with the stories from the Norse or with the 'Arabian Nights.'

Still, there is a certain interest attaching to these romances, and, if sufficiently condensed, their substance might be worth retelling. In this form they might then become popular to a limited extent. In spite of his assurances that they are never prolix, Mr. Ashton does set out to perform the task of condensation, but he has hardly done it in a way to make the tales read by the class for which he has designed them. Let us take, for illustration, the first romance entitled "Melusine." Every now and then Mr. Ashton abandons his own method of recounting the details of the adventures recorded, and says that the story would suffer if it were not told in the very words of the original. These he then proceeds to reproduce, like any editor belonging to the learned societies he mentions. But if there was any desirability of retaining the ancient words, there was certainly no necessity for preserving the ancient spelling in works which are primarily designed to popularize what has been forgotten. Even he who may have been hungering for the knowledge of these romances, can hardly be expected to have his enjoyment heightened by finding "their" spelled "theyr," "each" spelled "eche," "build" spelled "bylde," and by deciphering a hundred similar variations of orthography. Slight modernizations of the inflections also would not affect the literary quality or the interest of the tale to the unlearned reader, for whom the work has been specially prepared. "Madam, I have been somewhat ill at ease, and have had an ague," is a statement that, in its modern English form, may perhaps lose in quaintness, but certainly gains in clearness, as contrasted with the following form in this book, "Madame, I have be [en] somewhat evyl at ease & have had an ager." The adding of the *en* in brackets shows, moreover, a wobbling in the mind of the editor, and would be pretty sure to puzzle the average reader. Mr. Ashton's ambition, also, to tell things he knows as soon as he knows them, is attended with the not uncommon result of his sometimes telling things before he knows them. The vocabulary of the fifteenth century presents no special difficulties, but it is evident that the editor has not invariably mastered the few that exist. There are some passages likewise in the selections reproduced in their original form, in which the early scribe or the modern transcriber must have been at fault. The grammar of no period of the English language can cope successfully with their construction, and if they are of a sort to puzzle the students of our early speech, the outlook for the masses waiting for this work is certainly gloomy. Altogether, we are unable to believe that the early English romances are destined to become absorbingly popular through the well-intentioned efforts of Mr. Ashton.

Ancient Cities, from the Dawn to the Daylight. By William Burnet Wright. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1886.

THE "ancient cities" which form the subject of Mr. Wright's little volume are selected for their relation to the Bible or to early Christianity, and all belong to the Orient except Rome and Athens. The work consists of fifteen sketches, apparently lectures, but some of them are very short for lectures; and, as the subject of the last two is the "New Jerusalem," there are thirteen cities treated. These are all designated by some characteristic epithet—"Ur, the City of Saints," "Nineveh, the City of Soldiers," "Babylon, the City of Sensualists," etc. The scholarship is adequate, although the preface disclaims all pretence to erudition, the style is animated, and the point of view (that of the minister of religion) is serious and orthodox, without being narrow. A better comment could hardly be made upon the atrocious conduct of the crusaders upon entering Jerusalem than this—"that no other sentiment has ever made men so devilish as religious zeal without the spirit of Christ." The book may be heartily commended for what it has aimed to do and for what it has accomplished. We will only make one criticism, that more unity and clearness of view would perhaps have been obtained by selecting a fewer number of cities and treating each with greater fulness.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK

A Child of the Revolution: A Novel. Harper's Handy Series. 25 cents.

Adams, B. The Emancipation of Massachusetts. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.

A Question of Identity. (No Name Series.) Boston: Roberts Brothers.

Avery, Dr. E. M. Words Correctly Spoken. Cleveland: The Burrows Brothers Co. 15 cents.

Barrows, Isabel C. Proceedings of the National Conference of Charities and Correction. Thirteenth Annual session, 1886. Boston: Press of George H. Ellis.

Baker, W. S. Character Portraits of Washington, as Delineated by Historians, Orators, and Divines, with Biographical Notes and References. Philadelphia: Robert M. Lindsay. $5.

Besant, W. Dorothy Forster: A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.

Bishop, W. H. The Golden Justice. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.

Browne, Francis F. Life of Abraham Lincoln. N. D. Thompson Publishing Co.

Caswell—Ryan. The Harcarolle. Time and Tune. Book II. 70 Songs. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.

Clark, Prof. J. S. A Practical Rhetoric, for Instruction in English Composition and Revision in Colleges and Intermediate Schools. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.

Coleridge, A. D. Goethe's Letters to Zelter. Scribner & Welford.

Curtis, G. T. Creation or Evolution? A Philosophical Inquiry. D. Appleton & Co. $2.

Irelan, Dr. J. R. The Republic: or a History of the United States of America, in the Administrations, from the Monarchic Colonial Days to the Present Times. In 18 volumes. Vols. I. and II. Chicago: Fairbanks and Palmer Publishing Co. $2.50 per vol.

Keigwin, H. W. Principles of Elementary Algebra. Boston: Ginn & Co.

Lawyer's Code of Ethics: A Satire. St. Louis: F. H. Thomas Law Book Co.

Martin, G. Marguerite; or the Isle of Demons. Montreal: Dawson Brothers.

Martineau, Harriet. The Peasant and the Prince: A Story of the French Revolution. Boston: Ginn & Co. 40 cents.

Martin—Wetzler. The Electric Motor and its Applications. Illustrated. W. J. Johnston.

Melmoth, W. G. The Dogaressa. Scribner & Welford. $2.

Nichols, S. H. Monte Rosa: The Epic of an Alp. Second edition. Belford, Clarke & Co.

O'Shea, J. A. Romantic Spain: A Record of Personal Experiences. 2 vols. Scribner & Welford.

Peabody, Elizabeth P. Last Evening with Washington Alston, and Other Papers. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. $1.50.

Pfeiffer, Emily. Sonnets. Revised and enlarged edition. Scribner & Welford.

Philbrick, Prof. P. H. Beams and Girders: Practical Formulas for their Resistance. D. Van Nostrand. 50c.

Plimpton, F. B. Poems. Illustrated. Cincinnati: Mrs. F. B. Plimpton.

Popular Synonyms. Twenty-five Thousand Words in Ordinary Use. Cleveland: The Burrows Brothers Co. 12 cents.

Preston, H. W. A Year in Eden. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $1.50.

Price, B. Modern Architectural Practice. No. 1. A Large Country House. W. T. Comstock. $5.

Saltus, E. The Anatomy of Negation. Scribner & Welford.

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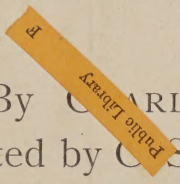

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 65

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS 68

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:
Pinkerton's Men 70
The Reorganization of the Weather Bureau 70
Mr. Edmunds's Report on the Fishery Question 71

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:
Laborers' Allotment Grounds 72
A Rising French Critic 73

CORRESPONDENCE:
The Sharples Portraits 74
Perversion of History 74
Legislation for the Working Classes 75
Domestic Service 75
Comparative Politics 75
Religious Statistics Once More 76
Protection against Western Wheat 76
The Derivation of Saunter 76

NOTES 77

REVIEWS:
McClellan's Own Story.—II 79
Ghibert 81
Some Recent Works on Etymology 82
The Latest Year Book 82
Thayer's Greek-English Lexicon of the New Testament 83
Modern Idols 84
Raleigh 85
Introduction to a History of the Factory System 85
Essays 85
Home Life of Great Authors 85
The Electric Motor and its Applications 86

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 86

FINE ARTS:
The Salmagundi Club Exhibition 86

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 27, 1887.

The Week.

BOTH houses of Congress have passed the Electoral Count Bill, and it only needs the President's signature to become a law. Happily there is thought to be no doubt of the President's approval. The bill passed so quietly at last, through both houses, that it is difficult to realize why it should not have become a law years ago. It removes all doubt and confusion about the counting of the Presidential vote in Congress, and thus eliminates from our quadrennial contests one of the most disturbing elements which have ever been connected with them. This and the Presidential succession law of the last session are most important achievements. If they could be supplemented now with a constitutional amendment increasing the Presidential term to six years, we should advance still further on the way to stability and freedom (for at least part of the time) from political excitement and partisan plotting.

The addition of an article to the Hawaiian treaty, by virtue of which Pearl River Harbor, the finest roadstead in the Pacific Ocean, is ceded to us, may be a wise provision for us if the Hawaiian Government are willing to agree to it. But we cannot think this at all likely. We rather incline to the opinion of the California Senators that the adoption of this article, if insisted upon by us, will cause the rejection of the whole treaty, since the cession of Pearl River Harbor is virtually the annexation of the country to the United States without any corresponding responsibility on our part for governing and defending it.

It would puzzle a professor of political science a good deal to explain to his class the moral of the late Senatorial struggle at Albany. Mr. Morton was heavily weighted, in the eyes even of those who thought most highly of his claims to the place, by the character of his chief workers. The mere activity of Platt and Erwin in his behalf gave strength to the reports that his money was being freely used in support of his candidacy, and helped to conceal or minimize the weight of his personal character and the efficiency with which he has filled other positions in the public service. Mr. Miller was his own chief worker, and consequently his ways were less known to the general public, but the sudden adhesion to his cause of the Hon. James W. Husted at the eleventh hour sent a pang through the ranks of those who had been persuading themselves that virtue was on the Miller side. It was evident, too, long before the contest closed, that the Miller machinery was far the more complicated of the two, and that it was connected by a great deal of belting with national politics. It is almost certain, the professor might say, that some good cause has gained through the failure of the Miller-Husted combination, but what cause it is, he would add, heaven only knows.

The contest has not, we regret to say, strengthened the influence of journalism. The powerful and pertinacious support given to Mr. Conkling by the *World* did not secure for that gentleman a single vote, or, indeed, the mention of his name. The *Times* began well with pushing Hiscock, but in a moment of weariness abandoned him for Miller, whom it supported with its usual enthusiasm, with occasional exposures of Morton's villany, until Miller was defeated with Morton's aid. But Mr. Hiscock's success, on the whole, pleases everybody except Mr. Miller. It pleases Mr. Morton, because it was due to his following, and contents the public generally, because there is no question that Mr. Hiscock is a Senatorial man, fit to represent the State. The queer, roundabout way in which he has reached the place, is a curious illustration of the confusion which pervades our State politics. He will now have to be as ungrateful as possible to Platt and Erwin if he wishes to keep his good name.

When the question of reëlecting Senator Dawes of Massachusetts was first raised, outsiders sympathized with the opposition to giving him another term. In his prime Mr. Dawes was never a man of the traditional standard for Senator in Massachusetts, and age has not made him wiser or broader. If the issue had been between his reëlection and the choice in his place of a man like ex-Gov. Robinson, the movement for a change would have commanded the approbation of the country. But, as the contest developed, it became evident that the defeat of Mr. Dawes would mean the establishment of a political machine of the worst type, managed by a little clique of intriguers, with Henry Cabot Lodge at its head, and that the election of Congressman Long, a "genial," weak-kneed politician, whom this ring had taken up as the anti-Dawes candidate, would only signify the submission of the party to an odious sort of bossism. For some time past, therefore, friends of honest politics have desired the defeat of the stalking-horse for this machine, and, on Mr. Robinson's refusal to become a candidate, the reëlection of Mr. Dawes becomes a cause for congratulation. Various motives are assigned for the turning over of the Democratic votes to the Senator, which decided the contest. While some of the minority may have adopted this course in the hope of promoting factional strife among the Republicans, it is probable that the controlling reason with most of them was the belief that the reëlection of Mr. Dawes would be the best thing for the State.

The Mexican war is now nearly forty years in the past, and it would be natural to suppose that a proposition to pension every man who served sixty days in that war, or the surviving widow of such a man, could not long affect the pension rolls. Yet, if precedents are of any value, it is not unreasonable to suppose that beneficiaries of the law which Congress passes in 1887 will be enjoying their allowances as far in the future as the middle of the twentieth century. The last report of the Commissioner of Pensions shows that there are yet on the rolls 1,539 survivors of the war of 1812 and 13,397 widows of such soldiers. Nor is the war of 1812 the earliest in our history which has a place in the current pension business. The Revolution ended in 1783, but there is still living in the town of Northwood, N. H., in her ninety-sixth year, a woman who in her early life married Capt. Benjamin Stevens, a Revolutionary soldier, who participated in the battle of Bennington, and as his widow she draws a pension of $16 a month. The fancy of young women for marrying the aged veterans of a bygone war, with an eye oftentimes to the pension which awaits a soon inevitable widowhood, appears to be as strong nowadays as in the early part of the century, and consequently it is quite within the range of possibility that 1950 may find the nation still paying pensions on account of the war of 1847.

The First Comptroller of the Treasury has just overruled the decision of his immediate predecessor, that the compensation of Congressmen could not be withheld to meet their liabilities to the United States. The law of 1828 (section 1766 of the Revised Statutes) in very strong and sweeping terms declares that "no money shall be paid to any person for his compensation who is in arrears to the United States, until he has accounted for and paid into the Treasury all sums for which he may be liable." But, notwithstanding this plain provision, when the celebrated "Colonel" Tom Ochiltree, who, as Marshal of the Eastern District of Texas, owed the United States about $7,000, appeared, as a Representative in Congress, before the late Comptroller, with "an able and elaborate argument," and protested against the setting aside of his Congressional salary for the extinguishment of this debt, it was held that the statute did not apply to such a case The reason given for this decision was that section 6 of the first article of the Constitution in imperative language declared that "The Senators and Representatives *shall receive* a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the Treasury of the United States." It would appear from the published decision of the late Comptroller (iv. Lawrence, 102) that this language was so mandatory that a member of Congress himself could not, without violating the law of the land, refuse to accept the compensation provided for him. Mr. Durham seems to take the more sensible view that it simply required the legislative branch to provide salaries for "the Senators and Representatives," but that it by no means put it out of the power of the Government to withhold their compensation to balance their indebtedness on the books of the Treasury.

All good citizens will rejoice that a mandamus has been granted by the United States District Court, directing the French line of steamers to receive freight from the Old Dominion Steamship Company. We believe several of these foreign steamship companies have

deliberately concluded that they would make more, or rather lose less, money by disregarding their legal and moral obligations as common carriers than by opposing the boycott set on foot by the strikers against the Old Dominion Steamship Company, as long as they had nothing to fear beyond an action for damages. A mandamus, however, carries with it the penalty of imprisonment for contempt in case of disobedience, and the prospect of a jail often has a wonderfully clarifying effect on the brain on the subject of rights and duties. In case Judge Shipman has to award this penalty, we trust he will be liberal in fixing the amount, so as to remind these great carriers of what they owe to the community. The companies which are helping to boycott the Old Dominion Company by refusing to perform their own duty, have no excuse except that they are afraid that, if they did their duty, they might suffer some loss. This reminds one of the preparations the Manhattan Railroad Company made last year to stop running trains on the Ninth and Second Avenue lines, through fear that the engineers on the other lines were going to strike. It would be useless to preach duty and moderation to the poor strikers if great corporations were to be allowed to behave in this way. So we trust the courts will show these foreign companies that if they start in business as common carriers at this port, a common carrier's business they must do, for better or worse, as long as their sign is up, or else allow their managers to be locked up for meditation in the sweet retirement of Ludlow Street Jail.

The end of the strike at the Lorillard tobacco factory would be amusing if it did not cover so much misery and humbug The strikers—or at least those of them whose places have not been filled—are going back to work, and we are told that no statement of the grievances which caused them to strike has ever been submitted to the firm. The probabilities are that, as in the case of the 'longshoremen, the great bulk of them did not know why they struck. This often happens nowadays. The strikes are ordered by Walking Delegates, nominally in the interest of an abstraction called "Labor," but really in order to show something for their salaries. This is one of the great defects of all the existing labor organizations except the locomotive engineers. In nearly all the other trades the Oral Laborers, who manage them, think their value to the organizations depends, or will be thought to depend, on the amount of disturbance between employer and employed which they are able to create in the course of the year. Until this is rectified, either by the growth of intelligence among the rank and file, or the selection of a better grade of men for the leadership, Labor will, we fear, make little progress towards a happier life.

The statement which Archbishop Corrigan has made of the McGlynn case leaves nothing more to be said on either side. No man can read it and not be convinced that Dr. McGlynn has been treated with great forbearance and kindness, and that he fully deserves the discipline to which he has been subjected. His letters are more than justification for the suspension which the Church authorities have ordered. Take, for example, these passages from the one which he wrote to the Archbishop on December 20 last:

"My doctrine about land has been made clear in speeches, in reported interviews, and in published articles, and I repeat it here I have taught, and I shall continue to teach, in speeches and writings, *as long as I live*, that land is rightfully the property of the people in common, and that private ownership of land is *against natural justice, no matter by what civil or ecclesiastical* laws it may be sanctioned; and I would bring about instantly, if I could, such change of laws all the world over as would confiscate private property in land, *without one penny of compensation to the miscalled owners.*"

That doctrine is not only sufficient to exclude any man professing it from the Catholic Church, but from all churches, or even from preaching morals or ethics. It is the rankest socialism, and any church which permitted its clergy to preach it would be giving its sanction to anarchy. That the Archbishop, after receiving this letter, should have continued to treat Dr. McGlynn leniently, is the strongest possible evidence of his forbearance.

We are glad to say that Mr. Reilly's bill making September 1 a legal holiday, to be called "Labor Day," has passed the Senate of New York. As this is one of the steps towards the solution of the labor problem recommended by Gov. Hill, we trust the bill will be promptly passed by the House. When it becomes a law, all we shall have to do is to wait with hopefulness for the arrival of the day, and see what happens. We must repeat, however, that we think the name given to the day is a mistake. To call it a "Labor Day," when it is to be devoted to idleness, is surely an abuse of language. There ought to be inserted in the bill some recommendation as to the manner in which we should pass the day, like that which the President and Governor put in their proclamations about Thanksgiving and Fast Days. The most fruitful way of passing it would seem to be in meditating on Labor. If meditation on Labor in general should seem too vague or monotonous, we might devote a certain fixed portion of the day to meditation on a different class of Labor; for instance, from eight A. M. to ten A. M., on plumbers; from ten to twelve, on coal-heavers; from twelve to two on 'longshoremen; and from two to four on Walking Delegates, and so on.

Pinkerton's Men have begun to attract the attention of the labor demagogues in the State Legislatures. The Senate in this State has passed a resolution requesting the District Attorney to find out "by what authority persons other than police officers and the National and State militia carry or are permitted to carry arms in the city and county of New York, with a reference to the law, statute or otherwise, bearing on the subject, and what, if any, legislation is necessary to prevent or prohibit the carrying of arms by such persons." We presume the carrying of arms, provided they are not concealed, on a man's own premises, or on the premises of his employer, at the employer's request when in reasonable apprehension of danger to life or property, is a common-law right. It is in fact the right of self-defence, of which no citizen can be deprived. The New Jersey Assembly has introduced a bill prohibiting mayors and sheriffs from employing as special policemen persons who have not lived in the State continuously for three years at least, or in the county where called on for one year. Pinkerton, by the way, has no prejudices. He would as soon hire Jerseymen as any others. Another bill prohibits the employment of Pinkerton's Men as deputy sheriffs, policemen, or constables. This is all very well, but it ought also to provide some stringent penalty for the failure or refusal of local authorities to furnish police protection to persons calling for the same when menaced by mob violence and their business interfered with. In the meantime no power can prevent Pinkerton's doing a good business in furnishing a private force for the defence of houses, stores, factories, yards, wharves, and other private premises against Labor until the public get tired of the prevailing lawlessness.

The Louisville *Courier-Journal* falls foul of a statement of fact made by the *Nation* recently, that the United States Treasury, in making its payments, allows the holder of the warrants drawn upon it to take whatever kind of money he pleases, gold, silver, or greenbacks. It says:

"These sweeping assertions are misrepresentations of the practice of the Treasury, except as to bondholders, Government officials at Washington, and members of Congress. It is and has been the rule to pay *these classes* of creditors in gold and greenbacks, or bank checks; but, as to *all other claimants*, the Treasury exercises the option of all other payers, and uses either form of legal-tender currency, gold, silver, or greenbacks, which may best suit its convenience."

Turning to the list of public payments other than those to "bondholders, Government officials at Washington, and members of Congress," which, according to the *Courier-Journal*, belong to the privileged class of creditors, the largest item we find is that of pensions, $68,000,000. The pensioners, we are to understand, are treated differently from the bondholders, being put off with anything that comes handy, while the gold in the Treasury is carefully reserved for the privileged few. Then come the foreign ministers and consuls. One would expect to find them among the pampered classes, rioting in gold; but no—according to our learned contemporary, they are treated no better than the pensioners, having silver or greenbacks or anything else shovelled out to them haphazard. Next come the judges of the courts, the marshals and district attorneys, Governors of Territories, land officers, Indian agents, etc., all humiliated and discriminated against in the treatment they receive at the Treasury. The army and navy fare no better. We should expect the Government contractors to be in the best position of all, or no way behind the bondholders in getting the choicest places at the pay table. Far from it. They have to take anything that is left after the bondholders and the Washington aristocrats are served. We wonder that Senator Beck has not denounced this unseemly practice of discrimination. Perhaps it is because he is himself one of the beneficiaries of it, drawing his salary in gold, while the poor postmasters and gaugers of distilled spirits in Bourbon

County are compelled to take the very leavings and offscourings of the public till.

They were having a good time in northern Alabama last week putting up the price of iron, organizing new companies, erecting new furnaces, issuing stock, and "booming" generally, when suddenly, as the Philadelphia *Press* correspondent tells us, "a shadow was thrown across the jubilation by the announcement that the Roone Iron Company of Chattanooga had just closed a contract for the purchase of 40,000 tons of English pig-iron for the manufacture of steel rails." This unaccountable mishap has, according to the same authority, led to a great revival of protectionist sentiment in that region, looking to an increase of the duty on pig-iron, which stands at the beggarly sum of six dollars per ton, or not much above 50 per cent. ad valorem. What view the Roone Iron Company, the real culprits, take of the agitation, we are not informed. They might say that they wanted the iron to make rails with American labor, and could not get it anywhere else. They might plead that their own customers could not wait for the pig to be made in this country. They might say to the "boomers" in iron mines and stocks that the ore and coal of northern Alabama would keep, and would come into use fast enough for the advantage of the American people under a duty of $6 per ton. They might put in a variety of special pleas, but everybody would be able to see that they were only clever devices for cheating American labor. The only sure way to avoid such scandals is to bring the iron-makers together in a room, and make them take a solemn oath not to charge more than the foreign price for iron, plus duty, freight, etc., and put up a pecuniary forfeit for any violation of the agreement. On such conditions, and on the further condition that they can make all the pig metal wanted, they might confidently appeal to the Roone Iron Company not to bring reproach upon the country by buying English pig.

The Rev. Dr. Hall of this city, speaking last week to the Brooklyn Young Men's Christian Association on "Moral Risks and the Insurance against Them," made one assertion which we think he would himself admit requires a great deal of qualification. He said:

"People cry out against the degraded moral tone of the newspapers, but I tell you that we, the readers of the papers, are responsible for that degradation. The readers demand a certain style of literature, and it is furnished in an honest endeavor to satisfy the paper's constituency."

Now this very excuse might be made for all vendors of obscene literature. Such literature would not be produced if there were not a certain demand for it; but when Anthony Comstock catches one of these vendors, and brings him into court, he is not allowed to plead in extenuation of his offence that he found a good market for his wares. It might, too, with one or two trifling alterations, be made to cover the case of keepers of brothels and gambling hells and liquor-saloons. If the law allowed these establishments to be multiplied in proportion to the demand for them, they would swarm in this city beyond endurance. One of the great, if not the greatest, objections to indecent and immoral literature is that it has a constant tendency to enlarge its own market—that is, to foster and spread with great rapidity the tastes to which it appeals for support. When a scoundrel gets hold of a school catalogue, and sends his filthy books and pictures to the pupils, it is not because there exists there already what the economists call an effective demand for them. It is because he expects that the sight of them will create an appetite for them which will procure him further orders.

The application of all this to newspapers is very simple. That there is a public which likes to have sensational, trivial, and indecent gossip supplied to it as "news of the day" there is no doubt. But newspaper editors have it in their power to foster this taste or to foster better ones, just as they please. In fact, every newspaper conducted with ability in greater or less degree makes its own market. All the newspapers acknowledge this in their annual prospectuses. Not one of them admits that it appeals for support to the silly, or vicious, or trifling, or ignorant portion of the community. No publisher would deliberately take refuge under Dr. Hall's plea, and claim that he was under compulsion of any kind to make an indecent or puerile or sensational newspaper. Every one of them pretends, with more or less assurance, that his influence on society is on the whole an elevating and purifying one, and makes for morality and social order, and that his journal is just the thing for "family reading." Under these circumstances it is rather hard for that portion of the public which is protesting against the recent tendency to care more for the vicious and prurient or trivial than for the serious things of life, and which has apparently produced some effect, to find a man in Dr. Hall's position helping to relieve the newspapers of their responsibility, and put it on the shoulders of the general public, which has already all it can bear. There is no arrangement which all kinds of dealers in bad literature would like better, because half the dirt is in appearance taken out of a dirty calling by finding that you can both make money in it and escape censure.

There is said to be a movement on foot in Chicago for the restoration of knee-breeches, and a number of men are exchanging pledges to wear them. Whether such a movement can succeed is doubtful, but there is no question that the opinion is spreading through the civilized world that the introduction of trousers at the beginning of the present century was a mistake, and that the advantages they were at first supposed to possess over knee-breeches have proved illusory. These advantages were the saving of trouble in the matter of buttoning at the knee, and the deliverance from criticism of persons with ill-made legs, or, in other words, the diffusion of equality in the matter of legs. The trousers have, however, revealed another sort of inequality still more odious—inequality in wealth. No article of clothing more distinctly reveals the condition of a man's purse than the trousers. The fraying at the lower edge of the leg, which is sure to come with much wear, is generally taken as a sign of very narrow means, and the bagging at the knee, which is also inevitable, besides producing a foundered appearance, like that of a horse which is "gone" in the forelegs, is a sign that a man has only one or two pairs. It is assumed by the world generally that nobody would wear trousers bagged at the knee, with all the term implies, if he could afford the number of changes necessary to prevent this phenomenon. In fact, almost the only marked difference remaining in our day between the clothes of a man of fortune and leisure and those of a toiler of moderate means, lies in the straightness and smoothness which marks the trousers-legs of the former. His wardrobe always contains a great many pairs. At any theatre, too, the make-up of a poor teacher or literary man, or poor devil of any kind, includes invariably a pair of baggy trousers. And though last not least, the condition of the trousers in muddy weather is something which it is painful to dwell on. The conversion of an inch or two of the bottom into a wet and filthy band is only preventable by turning them up, and we all know how this looks. An effort has recently been made to meet the struggles of men of few trousers to escape the bagging at the knee, by an invention of a machine called "the trousers stretcher," which is literally a metal rack on which offending trousers are stretched over night, and the deformity effaced by a powerful tension in the direction of their length. But neither nickel-plating nor any other ornamentation will ever render this device a grateful one to refined and self-respecting men.

It may therefore be said that on the whole the knee-breeches were the more democratic of the two. They undergo no degeneration in wear, except what comes from the actual destruction of the cloth. They reveal nothing as to the condition of a man's wardrobe until they reach their last stage. They always look neat and tidy, and do not come in contact with the mud, leaving that to be encountered by a boot or stocking which can be readily changed. But they are in summer a hot garment, owing to their fitting so closely round the knee—a defect, however, which is perhaps compensated by the possibility, without damage to appearance, of making them very loose. They are, too, now making a gallant effort to regain their old supremacy and oust the trousers. They have made conquests of most of the sporting men and athletes, and have made considerable gains in the Continental armies. The Turks, who abandoned them under Mahmoud the reformer, for the (on them) hideous Frankish trousers, have gone back to the breeches. Some faint attempts have been made to introduce them again into evening dress, but these have failed, owing in part to the light and frivolous character of those who have made them. If undertaken in a serious spirit by any of the crowned heads, or by great warriors and statesmen, or in this country by great railroad men or stock operators, the enterprise would probably succeed.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, January 19, to TUESDAY, January 25, 1887, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE Senate on Thursday finally passed the Electoral Count Bill, which will become a law on receiving the President's signature.

The Senate on Thursday ratified the new treaty with the Hawaiian Government with hardly a dissenting vote. Twelve only of the Senators were opposed to the treaty, and they did not demand a division on the final vote. The treaty extends for seven years the commercial relations of the United States with the islands as they now exist, and continues them indefinitely until either one of the contracting parties gives one year's notice of a desire to abrogate the instrument. A very important amendment has been made to the treaty by the Senate, and, until it is approved by the President and the Hawaiian Government, ratifications cannot be exchanged. The amendment cedes to the United States Pearl River Harbor as a coaling and naval station. Should the President and the Hawaiian Government consent to this amendment, the United States will have secured a firm lodgment in the Pacific Ocean.

Mr. Edmunds, from the Committee on Foreign Relations, reported to the Senate on Wednesday a bill to authorize the President of the United States to protect and defend the rights of American fishing vessels, American fishermen, American trading and other vessels, in certain cases, and for other purposes. The Senate on Monday afternoon took up the bill. Mr. Frye (Rep., Me.) supported it. He said that the difficulties between the United States and Canada upon the fisheries subject would be immediately settled if the President, under the second section of this bill, should forbid the importation of Canadian fish into the United States. Referring to the passage of the new Seizure Law by the Dominion of Canada and its approval by the Queen, after the British Foreign Office knew the details of the outrages upon fishermen as communicated to it by the State Department, he said: "That is the law passed by the Dominion of Canada, and approved by the Queen, and, if allowed to go into effect, how can it help bringing on war?" The Senate, with only the vote of Mr. Riddleberger in the negative, passed the bill on Monday.

The House on Wednesday finally shelved the Blair Educational Bill, by laying on the table a motion to reconsider the vote by which it refused to table the resolution to set apart a day for consideration.

The House on Friday passed the Inter-State Commerce Bill finally by 219 to 41. It was passed by the Senate 43 to 15. It now goes to the President. The House also adopted the conference report on the bill for the allotment of lands in severalty to Indians.

The protection Democrats of the House completed consideration on Monday night of their bill to reduce the surplus revenue. The bill repeals the tax on tobacco and weiss beer, and the license tax on dealers in whiskey. The question whether the tax on alcohol used in the arts should be removed, or the tax on whiskey should be reduced, is left to be decided by the House. The provisions of the Randall bill which increased the duties in certain cases, are stricken out. The free list of the Randall bill has also been increased. Lumber, goat's hair, fur used in making hats, jute, and jute butts are among the articles placed on the free list. The duty on steel rails is reduced to $13. The principal features of the Hewitt Customs Administrative Bill are incorporated in the new bill, together with some additions suggested by the Treasury Department. What is known as the "warehouse" section of the Hewitt bill, however, is eliminated. It is expected that the customs sections of the bill will effect a reduction of $10,000,000, and that the total reduction of revenue made by the bill will be from $55,000,000 to $60,000,000.

The Massachusetts Legislature in joint session on Wednesday reëlected Mr. Dawes to the United States Senate, about 80 of the Democrats joining with the Dawes Republicans, giving him 181 votes to 57 for Robinson, and 26 for Long.

The Wisconsin Republican legislative caucus on Thursday night unanimously renominated Philetus Sawyer for United States Senator. The Democrats nominated ex-Congressman John Winans. Senator Sawyer will be elected, the Republican majority being thirty-seven. After an all-night session the Nebraska Republicans in a full legislative caucus nominated A. S. Paddock for United States Senator to succeed C. H. Van Wyck. This ended the contest, and Mr. Paddock was elected at the joint session. He was previously a United States Senator from Nebraska from 1875 to 1881.

The long-term Senatorship question in Tennessee was settled on Monday night in the Democratic caucus by the nomination of ex-Gov. W. B. Bate. He was elected on Tuesday.

In the Republican caucus at Albany on Wednesday night the first ballot showed no change. After the twelfth ballot Mr. Erwin withdrew the name of Mr. Morton, and on the next ballot the Morton vote went over to Hiscock. Then Frost and Horton of Chautauqua and Taylor of Chenango went from Miller to Hiscock, and the latter was nominated by a vote of fifty to forty-three. The joint convention of the Legislature on Thursday formally elected Mr. Hiscock Senator. Mr. Hiscock has been a representative in Congress for the Syracuse district for ten years, and has a good record.

The New York Senate passed on Monday night a resolution calling on the District Attorney of this city to report by what authority persons other than police officers and the national and State military carry, or are permitted to carry, arms in the city, with a reference to the law, statute or otherwise, bearing on the subject, and what, if any, legislation is necessary to prevent or prohibit the carrying of arms by such persons. This refers to Pinkerton's men.

The North Carolina House of Representatives passed on Wednesday, by a vote of 54 to 52, a resolution declaring that "the efforts of President Cleveland to elevate and purify the public service of the United States meet with the hearty approbation of this General Assembly."

The Rev. Dr. McGlynn makes the public announcement, through his physician, Dr. George F. Shrady, that he has been prevented by his physical condition from obeying the summons to go to Rome.

The annual report of President Eliot of Harvard predicts great good from the system of voluntary religious services. The new system of requirements of admission which has been in use for the past two years, President Eliot argues, will have a most beneficial effect upon the preparatory schools, enabling them to widen the scope of their teaching. The new requirements are also expected to assist in bringing down the average age of admission to eighteen or thereabout. At present about two-fifths of the Freshmen are over nineteen at entrance. The attitude of the College towards foot-ball is left an open question. The Treasurer's report shows that the invested funds of the University amount to $5,190,772.35, an increase over the previous year of about $270,000. This amount produced last year a revenue of $260,303.01. The total income of the year was $688,218.56, and the total expenses $626,899.80.

Gen. Charles P. Stone, known from his military services in Egypt as Stone Pasha, died on Monday afternoon in this city. He was born in Massachusetts on September 30, 1824, and was graduated from West Point in 1845. After serving with credit in the Mexican war he resigned from the army and settled in California. At the outbreak of the rebellion he was in Washington, and was, it is said, the first volunteer officer sworn into the Union service. He held the rank of colonel and brigadier-general. After the fight at Ball's Bluff he was court-martialled, and was imprisoned for nearly a year in Fort Lafayette. He asserted that he was treated very unfairly. Being released in August, 1862, he rejoined the army, serving in the Department of the Gulf, and then commanding a brigade in the Army of the Potomac. In 1870 Gen. Stone accepted a flattering offer from the Khedive of Egypt to enter his military service, and his work in reorganizing the Egyptian Army was everywhere commended by military critics in the highest terms. He remained in the Khedive's service until 1883. As engineer and director of the pedestal for the Bartholdi Statue of Liberty on Bedloe's Island, Gen. Stone's name again became familiar.

FOREIGN.

The principal German parties have issued election addresses. The Progressists call upon their partisans to support only candidates opposed to absolute government and a sham Constitution, warning them that otherwise tobacco and spirit monopolies and other evils will be introduced in Parliament. "We must make a stand," they say, "to maintain the foundation of the Imperial Constitution, especially universal secret suffrage." The Conservative manifesto says the watchword of the struggle must be "No parliamentary army, but an imperial army." The National Liberal leaders severely censure the action of the majority of the Reichstag, and call upon National Liberals to elect only men determined to make sacrifices for the security of the empire against foes at home and abroad.

The new German Liberals of the Second Berlin District met on Saturday for the purpose of deciding on their action in the coming election for member of the Reichstag. Three thousand electors attended. It was resolved to support Prof. Virchow against Gen. von Moltke as their candidate. Herr Richter, in a speech advocating this policy, said he admitted that the personal merits of Gen. von Moltke were supereminent, but contended that it was not the duty of the electors to provide that the military interests of the empire should be strongly represented in the Reichstag, but rather to elect to that body those who could and would defend the civil interests of the people, to the end that there might be a proper equalization of the civil and military claims put forth. The views of eminent civilians should be recognized in opposition to the one-sided military view.

The Prussian budget was on Friday presented to the Lower House of the Diet. It shows that the trade of Prussia has improved, decreasing the deficiency in the revenues. The railway receipts for the fiscal year ending in 1887 will exceed expenses by the sum of 20,000,000 marks. The receipts from the income tax will be larger than they have heretofore been, proving that the prosperity of the urban population has much increased. The statistics show that the population in the rural districts has lessened.

Prince Bismarck made a long speech on Monday in the Lower House of the Prussian Diet, in the course of which he referred to the recent rejection of the Army Bill by the Reichstag. He said: "The main duty attached to the rights of the Emperor is the protection of the empire. This duty is also placed in the hands of the Emperor by the Constitution, and is not placed in the hands either of any Parliamentary majority or of party leaders. A portion of the press, commenting on the rejection of the Army Bill, represent it as absolutely immaterial whether the measure were accepted for three or for seven years. But

the reasons alleged for acceptance for three years were unacceptable in themselves; and besides it was impossible to permit the Reichstag arbitrarily to interfere with the ordering of the military affairs of the empire. In view of Article 60 of the Constitution, which provides that an effective army shall be given the empire by law, the ordinary mode of granting it must be regarded as abolished, otherwise it would have been stated that the grant of an effective army should be renewed periodically or provided for in each budget. The Government, therefore, would be fully entitled to demand the fixing of an effective army in perpetuity; but the Government, wishing for progressive development in these matters, had agreed to accept a compromise for seven years, which, having been twice renewed, the right of custom had been established with regard to the septennate period. . . . I regard the final objects of the Progressist party as anti-monarchical and crypto-republican. I need not defend myself against the reproach of wishing to introduce absolutism in Prussia and Germany. I am far from deprecating the Guelphs' loyalty to their King. I have only attacked their system of professing such sentiments to mask other objects."

The German Army possesses a new explosive, called roburite. It is reported to be stronger than mélinite. The method of manufacture is a secret. It is exploded by intense heat.

The war rumors thickened on Monday, and there was a semi-panic on the London Stock Exchange. On the Paris Bourse there was also a sharp decline. It was asserted in Paris that Gen. Boulanger had ordered the commanders of all French fortresses to be at their posts before February 20. The British Foreign Office, late on Monday, denied officially that it had warlike advices. Boulanger also denied that he had moved any troops towards the frontier.

The French papers of all parties join in accusing the English press of inventing and circulating bellicose canards. The French journalists assert that English newspaper men engage in this alleged work from pecuniary motives, being interested in influencing the stock markets.

The Budget Committee of the Chamber of Deputies on Friday, by a vote of 18 to 6, rejected the amended budget presented by M. Dauphin, Minister of Finance, providing for an issue of bonds to the amount of 375,000,000 francs, redeemable in sixty-six years, to meet the temporary needs of the Government. M. Dauphin, consequently, was expected to resign. Contrary to expectation, the Cabinet on Saturday decided to withdraw the supplemental budget and accepted the Committee's proposals, including that for an issue of sexennial treasury bonds to cover the present deficit. This, it is believed, has averted the Cabinet crisis.

The French agent in Madagascar telegraphs that his relations with the Hovas are excellent, and that a settlement of the disputes between France and Madagascar will soon be effected.

Claude Ferdinand Gaillard, the distinguished French painter and engraver, is dead in his fifty-third year. M. Gaillard carried off the Prix de Rome for engraving in 1856, and is the author of many important plates, including portraits and reproductions of the works of old and modern masters. His paintings embrace portraits, Biblical subjects, and copies of old masters.

M. Zankoff recently submitted to the Grand Vizier at Constantinople the following proposals for the settlement of the Bulgarian difficulty: "That the Regency be dismissed and a new Ministry be formed, the foreign and interior portfolios to be given to Zankoffists, and the war portfolio to Gen. Kaulbars; that a new Sobranye be elected; that the Constitution be modified, and that the Prince of Mingrelia be elected to the vacant throne." The Grand Vizier replied that the Porte could not accept these proposals.

Although the Bulgarian situation has improved, the military preparations of the Austro-Hungarian Government continue unabated. In the event of mobilization three great armies will be formed, each corps having no less than 250,000 men. Commanders for these corps have already been designated. It is believed that these gigantic preparations have been undertaken, less from fear of war with Russia concerning Bulgaria than with a view to the contingency of war between France and Germany, which would cause additional Eastern complications. Rules governing the Landsturm which have just been published show that nothing except blindness, deafness, dumbness, and lameness will exempt men from service, and that drafts from the Landsturm will be used to fill up the gaps in the regular army and navy reserves. It is estimated that the Landsturm would supply a million additional men to the army.

Frederick Amerling, the Austrian painter, who died recently, bequeathed to the city of Vienna his collection of art antiques, valued at $125,000, on condition that it be kept intact for public inspection.

At a protracted British Cabinet council on Wednesday it was determined to press on the new Coercion Bill as soon as possible. Fear was generally expressed that it could not be carried without previous changes in the rules of procedure; therefore the Government will probably introduce a procedure bill first and a coercion bill afterwards. The impression is spreading throughout the country that the coercion proposals will have the effect immediately of expelling the Government from office.

At a meeting in Liverpool on Friday evening, Mr. Goschen denied that the separatists had the verdict of America and the whole civilized world at their backs, because many intelligent Americans had told him that they perfectly understood the cause the Unionists were defending. He set more value upon the American example in the quarrel between the North and the South than upon any resolutions cabled from Chicago.

In the course of a letter to an American friend Mr. Joseph Chamberlain says: "I cannot quite remember how the American comparison originated in our conversation, but I think I was pointing out to you that the cardinal distinctions between Mr. Gladstone's Irish policy and mine were very great; that in fact he sought to give national home rule, while I was not prepared to go further than what I may call provincial home rule, similar in character, though not in all its details, to the home rule of the United States or the provinces of the Canadian Dominion. In the course of the controversy Irishmen have frequently appealed to those precedents as justifying their demands, but of course the real fact is that a State of the American Union or a province of Canada has not, and never has had, any pretensions to the right of a separate nation; and the moment this view of national right seriously entered the minds of the citizens of the Southern States, secession and civil war were the natural results. I think that if our American friends understood this and worked it out, they would cease to be so seriously sympathetic with our Irish secessionists."

Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, Chief Secretary for Ireland, has been invited by a number of Irish members of Parliament to visit Glenbeigh and see what cruelty the Government permits in evictions. Even the Tories in England are becoming disgusted with the evictions.

The amount of reduction of rents accepted by the tenants on the estates of Lord Londonderry, the Lord Lieutenant, was 10 per cent. The tenants had demanded a 30 per cent. reduction

The report of the British Commission appointed to investigate the Belfast riots of last summer has been made public. The Commissioners say that the royal Irish constabulary should be maintained as a police force in Belfast, the commander being free from all police authority except that of the Inspector-General, and responsible for the preservation of the peace without the control of the magistracy or of other authority than the Executive. The Chief of Police, the report says, should be empowered to forbid parades with bands of music and other public demonstrations. He should also be empowered to increase the force sufficiently to enable him to deal with riots without calling upon the police of other districts, a large enough military force also being maintained to prevent such a necessity.

Lord Randolph Churchill, replying to an inquiry regarding his letter upon national finances, says he thinks that between the years 1868 and 1874 the management of the finances was fairly good; that from 1874 to 1880 it was not quite so satisfactory, while from 1880 to 1885 it was simply infamous. He adds that if this summary be found not incorrect, the cause may reasonably be assigned to Parliamentary demoralization springing from the Irish difficulty, unwise legislation, and an injudicious foreign policy.

Sir Michael Morris, at present Lord Chief Justice of the Court of Common Pleas of Ireland, has been appointed Lord Chief Justice of Ireland, vice George Augustus May, resigned.

Sir Joseph Whitworth, the eminent engineer, died at Monte Carlo on Saturday. The baronetcy expired with him. He was eighty-four years of age. In 1854 he began the manufacture of the breech-loading rifles, cannon projectiles, and other firearms with which his name is associated, being for many years a competitor with Sir W. G. Armstrong. He was made a baronet in October, 1869, and in the same year founded the "Whitworth scholarships" of £100 a year each, tenable for two or three years, for the encouragement of mechanical science.

The Belgian Government has introduced in Parliament a bill to suppress drunkenness. It provides that drunkards in public places and publicans serving drunkards or children shall be fined and imprisoned, and that debts incurred in purchasing intoxicants shall not be recoverable.

Cardinal Jacobini has resigned the office of Pontifical Secretary of State. His successor will be the Nuncio at Madrid. The Pope has accepted the resignation, and as a mark of esteem has invited the Cardinal to continue to live in the papal residence.

The Spanish Government is willing to grant amnesty to Zorilla and other political exiles provided their friends can induce them to return to Spain. It is believed that Zorilla will decline. There are rumors that he is preparing for another revolution.

Commenting on the passage of the Fisheries Retaliation Bill by the United States Senate, the Montreal *Gazette*, official organ of the Dominion Government, says: "It is true that there has been denied to American fishing vessels the commercial privileges extended to other vessels in Canadian ports—that is to say, the privilege to land cargo, purchase supplies, etc.; but that exclusion is no more a straining of the treaty governing the rights of Canada than is the prohibition of fishing within three miles of the shore. The attitude of the Dominion Government is not a novel one. It has been consistently maintained for nearly seventy years past, except during the operation of the Reciprocity Treaty of 1854 and the Washington Treaty of 1871. There are two aspects to this question, which the Congress of the United States is apparently determined not to consider, namely, the limitation of the exclusion policy of Canada to fishing vessels, and the desire of Canada to reach a settlement of the difficulty by means of arbitration."

PINKERTON'S MEN.

The unfortunate killing of a boy in Jersey City, by a chance shot from one of Pinkerton's men employed in guarding the coal company's wharves in Jersey City against the strikers, is exciting a great deal of indignation against this organization among the strikers and their friends. That disgraceful demagogue, Mayor Cleveland of Jersey City, is particularly loud in his denunciation of them, and a great many good people are asking why an armed body of this sort, which is not under the control of or responsible to any public authority, should be permitted to figure as prominently as it does in these labor troubles. We are very glad that people are beginning to ask what it means, and why it exists, because the answer is most instructive.

It cannot be too soon or too well understood that, as an armed organization offering itself for hire for purposes of defence in various parts of the Union, Pinkerton's Men are, we must all admit, the greatest disgrace that has befallen the United States. No such evidence of our internal weakness and lawlessness as the existence and activity of this organization constitutes has been offered to the world since the present Government was founded. Its appearance in any other civilized country would fill to-day every man in it with shame and astonishment. For it is—let nobody shrink from this plain truth—an unmistakable sign of retrogression towards mediæval barbarism. Pinkerton is neither more nor less than the head of a band of mercenaries, such as each great landholder in the eleventh and twelfth centuries kept in his pay for the defence of his property and that of his vassals against the armed attacks of his neighbors. They are called into existence by exactly the same causes now as then — the absence of a public force capable of enforcing the law of the land, and affording security for life and property to the peaceable and well-disposed. Now as then, now as at every time since the dawn of civilization, no men of the Aryan race who have accumulated property of any kind will submit to be despoiled of it, or interfered with in the management of it, or allow any person or body of persons to "go upon them or send upon them," as the Barons said in Magna Charta, without trying to defend themselves. If there are courts, they will appeal to the courts; if there are police, they will call in the police; if there are troops, they will ask for the troops to defend their rights under the law; but if neither courts, nor police, nor troops will do anything for them, they will hire an army of their own. Of course, this is anarchy in its first stage. The word is not a pleasant one, but it must be used when the occasion calls for it.

The demand for Pinkerton's Men began nearly twenty years ago in the coal regions in Pennsylvania, when the Molly Maguires took possession of them, and superseded the law by a foul and murderous conspiracy. This conspiracy was then called, as some such things are now called, "Labor." Labor overawed the sheriffs, defied the courts, intimidated the juries, and marked out its enemies for assassination literally by the dozen. It reduced a large and populous district to a condition of terror and disorder which it would have been hard to match outside of Central Africa. The corporations owning the property, finding there was no help to be expected from the public force, hired a force of their own, with Pinkerton at its head; and through his exertions Labor was at last brought to justice, and twenty cut-throats righteously hanged.

Since then the need for a small private army of this sort for the defence of property has not diminished, but on the contrary has increased. Pinkerton has enlarged and improved his force. It is better armed and drilled every year, and it travels to and fro, all over the United States, a sort of moving shame and disgrace for us all. No American ought to be able to look on it without blushing to the roots of his hair. Its presence always means that American mayors and sheriffs and governors have refused, at the demand of Labor, or through the fear of Labor, to give American citizens protection for either life or property; that they stand idly by while Labor pursues poor men with brickbats, bludgeons, and pistols to prevent their accepting employment which is offered them; and that they deny to employers the means of protecting their premises from wreck and pillage at the hands of men who insist on working for them against their will. In all the great strikes which have occurred during the past year Labor has asserted the doctrine of compulsory hiring—that is, the right of certain men to be hired by certain employers on their own terms, whether the employers want them or not, and the right to assert this right by force of arms—that is, to besiege the premises with weapons of offence, and prevent, by attacks on life and property, the transaction of all business until their demands are complied with. This is not an overcharged statement. We challenge any one to mention a single strike on a large scale during the past year in which the strikers did not either actually resort to violence, or take pains to produce the belief throughout the neighborhood that they would do so if necessary.

What adds to the disgrace is, that the power against which Pinkerton's army is called on to protect property is a ludicrously small minority of the population. Labor, which has brought this shame on us, and in fear of which Governors of American States and Mayors of American cities are ready to play the mountebank in their public utterances, and violate their oaths of office, and dishonor the national flag, probably does not number 1,000,000 all told, and a large proportion of it is composed of poor and ignorant foreigners, who know not what they do, and to whom every intelligent American's first duty is to make plain that in this land of liberty the law is omnipotent.

The poor demagogue who is playing the rôle of Mayor over in Jersey City ought, however, to be the last to complain of Pinkerton's Men. If the state of things to which he and the like of him are trying to bring about in the United States should ever be realized, the Pinkerton army will be a much more formidable body than it is now. At present it is simply a guard which any man is entitled to keep on his own premises to protect him from violence, if he thinks it necessary and is willing to go to the expense. But if the country should be carried much further on the road to mediæval anarchy, and the law of the land and its ministers be brought into still greater contempt, these private armies would not remain shut up in the yards or warehouses or mansions of their employers, while demagogues stimulated attacks on them. They would sally out, mediæval fashion, and twist the necks of the Clevelands, and Hills, and Greens, and Oglesbys in very summary fashion. The fun Labor has now in battering and threatening people with impunity is due entirely to the fact that law-abiding habits are still strong among us. But they would not survive for a great while the strain which Labor is putting on them; and whenever the community gets thoroughly tired of Labor and the demagogues, it will give those who like anarchy and private war a dose of them which many generations will remember.

THE REORGANIZATION OF THE WEATHER BUREAU.

The death of General Hazen will call forth very general discussion as to the selection of his successor, and will necessarily bring the question of the civil reorganization of the Weather Bureau again prominently before the public. There ought to be no division of opinion on two points: first, that the director of the Weather Bureau should be qualified for his position by a scientific knowledge of meteorology as well as by executive ability; second, that the work of observing and predicting the weather is eminently a peaceful and in no sense a military art. We do not look for any popular support of the military opinion which proclaims, officially, that "the whole theory of the organization is, that the entire force of the Signal Corps shall be available for immediate service in case of war." What the people at large wish is simply the announcement of the "approach and force of storms throughout the United States, for the benefit of commerce and agriculture" in time of peace. Soldiers are not needed for this work, and the attempt to give the weather observers of the Signal Corps a military character has been chiefly of use in keeping the service under the control of army officers.

It is not a little curious to remark that the more notable changes introduced in the administration of the Bureau by Gen. Hazen have been distinctly civil in their nature, and this in spite of his frequently repeated statement that the Signal Corps was maintained for military service. Nothing shows this better than the assistance he has extended to the formation of State weather services, which are entirely voluntary and non military in their nature. These are now organized in many of the States, and their number is at present increasing almost every month. They excite much popular interest, especially in the South and West (where newspapers are slow to reach the out-of town population), on account of the greater publicity they give to the weather predictions by means of flag displays at railway or telegraph stations. The plan of fostering intimate relations between the general and local ser-

vices is really admirable, but it is eminently a civil relation, not in the least aided by military manners. Indeed, when we review the history of the Signal Service, nothing is more distinct than the steady increase of its civil and scientific sides, so that now the share that army work has in it is left merely as an incongruous, unpleasant feature in the background. It might well be omitted altogether. A review of this change in its attitude is pertinent here.

The Signal Service, as a separate organization, may be traced back to 1860, when there was added to the staff of the army "one signal officer, with the rank, pay, and allowances of a major of cavalry." In 1866 the Chief Signal Officer was given the rank of colonel of cavalry, and his corps consisted of six officers and not more than one hundred non-commissioned officers and privates, detailed from the battalion of engineers for the performance of military duty. In 1870 the Chief Signal Officer was directed to secure meteorological observations in order "to give notice on the northern lakes and on the sea-coast, by magnetic telegraph and marine signals, of the approach and force of storms." The Signal Corps came into public notice with this order, and Gen. Myer earned the lasting remembrance of the people by his energy in instituting our weather service. In 1871 the limitation of the work to the lakes and sea-coast was omitted in the appropriation bill, and in 1872 announcement was required of the "probable approach and force of storms throughout the United States for the benefit of commerce and agriculture." In 1880 the Chief Signal Officer was given the rank and pay of a brigadier-general. During the decade 1870-1880 the number of men in the corps was largely increased. The appropriations for the support of the service run as follows:

Year.	Observations and Reports.	Telegraph Lines.	Deficiency.
1870	$15,000		
1871	102,451		
1872	250,000		
1873	296,825		
1874	355,325		$45,000
1875	415,000	$88,000	55,000
1876	300,000	45,000	
1877	300,000	22,000	
1878	350,000	95,000	
1879	375,000	90,000	
1880	375,000	75,000	
1881	375,000	75,000	
1882	280,000	40,000	

Up to this date the pay of the men had not been included in the estimates, but came from the Army bill; hereafter it is included, and the appropriations for 1883 were $963,674,57; for 1884, $926,132.08; for 1885, $904,080.

It cannot be supposed for a moment that this enormous growth of the service was in any way an expression of the interest of the people or of Congress in the organization of a corps "available for immediate service in case of war." The recommendations of boards of trade, of chambers of commerce, and of agricultural societies have never been based on the desirableness of instruction in military signalling. Yet in the reports of the Chief Signal Officer, military signalling has been continually given the first place and the chief emphasis under the head of "Instruction," and meteorological studies have been secondary and subordinate, although the meteorological work of the corps now so vastly exceeds the military work. The importance of an experienced signal corps in every well-organized army is not disputed. This question is not in discussion in the public mind: it is taken for granted that it will be properly attended to in the regular army, along with infantry drill, cavalry manœuvres, and artillery practice, each in its proper place. It is a mere accident, partly historical, partly verbal, that there is any present connection of matters so dissimilar as weather prediction and military drill. There is now a good opportunity of dissolving this connection altogether. During the life of the late Chief Signal Officer it would have been an ungracious task to remove him after he had given his whole energies, with good result, to the improvement of the service.

There is competent opinion in favor of a civil organization of the Weather Bureau. In 1884, a committee of the National Academy of Sciences recommended, in response to Congressional inquiry, that the meteorological work of the Signal Service should be put under the general control of a non-military meteorological bureau, to which should be transferred so much of the present *personnel* and functions of the Signal Office as is not necessary to the military duties of that office. The joint Congressional Commission on the Signal Service and other scientific bureaus of the Government reported last summer, after an extended investigation, that the work of the Weather Bureau is civil work in its nature and character, and that military restraint is not necessary to its success. Three members of the Commission were in favor of gradual and three in favor of immediate transfer to a civil bureau. In 1884 the Secretary of War, Mr. Lincoln, stated that he entirely agreed with the Committee of the National Academy in their recommendation. He had, two years earlier, advised "that a civil establishment to conduct the Weather Bureau service be organized." It is to be hoped that the present Secretary of War will exert the weight of his opinion to the same end.

MR. EDMUNDS'S REPORT ON THE FISHERY QUESTION.

THE report submitted by Senator Edmunds on the fishery question, together with the bill which has since passed the Senate, appears to us in the main to be fair and reasonable, and not at all likely to stir up bad feeling with Great Britain. The substance of it is, that we make no complaint of the denial to us of any right not secured to us either by the Treaty of 1818 or by the recognized law of nations, but that when any rights arising under the treaty or the law of nations are denied to us in the waters of British North America, then the President of the United States may in his discretion, and by issuing his proclamation to that effect, exclude the vessels of British North America from our ports, except in stress of weather or for the procurement of necessary supplies, and may also prohibit trade between British North America and the United States.

The latter clause of the bill is of questionable utility and more than questionable justice, since its effect is to punish citizens of the United States for the misdeeds of the Canadian authorities. The clause authorizes the President, if he thinks proper, "to deny entry into any port or place of the United States of fresh fish or salt fish or any other product of said dominions, or other goods coming from said dominions to the United States. The President may in his discretion apply such proclamation to any part or all of the foregoing named subjects, and may qualify, limit, and renew such proclamation to any part or to all of the foregoing named subjects, and may qualify, limit, and renew such proclamation from time to time as he may deem necessary to the full and just execution of the purposes of this act." Under the terms of the bill the President could prevent the collection of debts due from Canadians to Americans by prohibiting the receipt of the goods with which such debts are commonly paid, and without which in many cases they could not be paid. The phrase, "any other goods coming from said dominions to the United States," includes, for instance, barley, lumber, furs, live stock—in fact, every conceivable thing that constitutes trade, whether the same be transported by ship, by railway, or by wagon. It applies to the traffic between Winnipeg and St. Paul, as well as between St. John and Boston. This is a very sweeping measure, when we consider that it punishes the American citizen equally with the Canadian, and that it inoculates all the healthy departments of trade with the fishery sore. It may be said that as it is all left to the discretion of the President, no harm is likely to come from it. But is it wise to give the President the discretion to admit horses from Canada and exclude barley, to admit salt and exclude timber, and to transpose the lists of admitted and excluded products—that is, to make and unmake private fortunes, at his own discretion, and as often as he thinks best?

This part of the bill strikes us as being incongruous and unnecessary. The fish catch and the fish trade are a mere wart upon the commerce of Canada and the United States, and there is no reason why the whole system should suffer on account of the wart. Aside from this clause, the bill affords appropriate remedies for any injustice that may be committed against us. There will be necessarily some dispute as to what privileges belong to us under the law of nations. Those belonging to us under the Treaty of 1818 are more easily susceptible of definition. Mr. Edmunds's report implies that the right to buy bait is not secured to us either by treaty or by public law. As regards the headland question, the contention is that where a bay or opening in the coast is more than six miles wide the right to fish at any point three miles distant from the nearest land cannot be controverted. This would seem to be the proper definition of the "marine league," but it is contrary to our own interpretation of it. The adoption of it now implies the reversal of our own decisions, and it is perhaps as well that they should be reversed; for when we attempt to claim exclusive jurisdiction from headland to headland along so extensive a coast as ours, it becomes a matter wholly of private judgment whether the claim includes all the space inside a line drawn from Cape Cod to Cape Hatteras, or only the space between Newport and Montauk Point, or something even less comprehensive. The spirit of the report is peaceable and non-aggressive, and this is of more importance than the specific measure recommended.

LABORERS' ALLOTMENT GROUNDS.

WARWICKSHIRE, January 5, 1887.

DURING the last two or three years every newspaper, every platform has been ringing with the 'land question" and a number of misleading statements have been made in the course of the discussion, especially on the question of laborers' allotments. These seem to come chiefly from persons who either predicate the condition of the English laborer from their study chairs, without actual, every-day acquaintance with him, or who have come down among us on a mission to extract facts about themselves from the most suspicious and reticent class in the country. We think, therefore, that it may not be unprofitable to describe the working of the allotment system in an ordinary case which lies within our own experience. The facts can be verified by any one who cares to do so.

The village of which we speak lies about three miles from Leamington and as many from Warwick. All the land in the parish (3,468 acres) belongs to Lord ——, with the exception of about fourteen acres. It is divided into sixteen farms of varying size, and about thirty-seven acres are devoted to cottage gardens and allotments. There are 107 cottages belonging to Lord ——, each with a piece of garden ground attached to it. Twelve of these cottages have one-eighth of an acre each; ten have very small patches; eighty-five have gardens of somewhat less than one-eighth of an acre. The average rent for cottage and garden is £3 10s. per annum. None are over £4, many as low as £2. The soil is excellent—a rich loam on gravel in most of the gardens. Some parts of the farms are stiff clay. The gardens about the cottages are planted with apples, pears, plums, and small fruits, besides vegetables of all kinds. Into every available corner standard rose trees, clumps of dahlias, holyhocks, sunflowers, or tall white lilies are thrust; while the narrow paths between the fruit bushes are bordered with pinks, carnations, wallflowers, and all sorts of uncommon, old-fashioned perennials. Every inch of ground is utilized. The result of fruit and flower against the 250-year-old half-timbered, red-and-black, or black-and-white houses is charmingly picturesque to the passer-by, and highly profitable to the owners.

Just beyond the last houses at the top of the gentle rise on which the village clusters round its ancient sandstone church, lie the allotments. They are of two kinds. First there are the old garden allotments, which have been in existence for forty years. This fact, by the way, disposes of the claims of certain agitators who would have people believe that until their voices were heard in behalf of the laborer, allotments were unknown. This lot contains 11 acres, 1 rod, 11 perches, and is divided into seventy-seven allotments. Their average size is 23½ perches, at an average rent of 9s. 11d. each: gross rental £38 3s. 6d., about £3 16s. an acre. In addition to these, a field of 14 acres, 1 rod, 25 perches was let out a year and a half ago in larger allotments. Four of these are each one acre, and the remaining twenty-one about one-half an acre each; the rent being £2 an acre.

This field had been for some years in rough clover grass ("seeds," as we call it in Warwickshire). The landlord broke it up and prepared it thoroughly for the tenants. On this land, last year, the main crop was wheat, which gave a very fine yield, at the rate of from thirteen to seventeen bags to the acre. Wheat in Warwickshire is reckoned by the bag of three bushels; seventeen bags, therefore, equal a yield of fifty-one bushels to the acre. Besides wheat, the tenants grew on the ground they had been able to trench potatoes, cabbages, and a few turnips, carrots, etc.

The wheat was harvested well, and threshed on the ground. The man on whose piece the threshing machine stood was paid sixpence apiece by his neighbors for the traffic on his land. The wheat was ground, and used at home. The straw was either kept as fodder for the pigs, or sold. These new allotments are now being trenched by hand from end to end. Some have already been planted with winter wheat, which promises well. The ground—a stiffish clay—is being thoroughly cleaned; and one tenant, the rat-catcher of the neighborhood, who takes special pride in the look of his land, told us that he had harnessed himself to the harrow and harrowed his whole patch, to avoid the holes a horse's hoofs would have made on the newly broken soil.

The garden allotments are splendidly cultivated. Rows of small fruits, celery, cabbages, cauliflower, potatoes, peas, beans, sweet herbs, with standard roses, pinks, and carnations in among them, and here and there a plum, damson, or apple tree, fill the patches on each side of a broad grass road that runs the whole length of the gardens. On Friday evening, in the summer, the village is worth a visit. Men and women, with huge market-baskets or wheelbarrows filled to overflowing with fruit and vegetables, come trooping in from the gardens, while great trays of cut flowers lie at every cottage door, ready to be tied up into tasteful nosegays. On Saturday morning the road to Leamington swarms with women carrying heavy baskets, or pushing little wicker perambulators full of fruit and flowers, and the village donkey-carts are loaded to a perilous extent. There is no market in Leamington, but all the garden produce, down to the smallest bunch of parsley, finds a ready sale among the residents in the town, who are only too glad to get country fruit, flowers, and vegetables fresh from the gardens, without the medium of the greengrocer's shop.

A great deal of the actual work of the gardens is done by the women, and they make a very good thing of it. We could mention many instances in which a woman has paid the whole year's rent for her cottage by the fruit she has sold in a single week; and when the husband is out of work, the garden produce becomes of course the only means of subsistence for the family.

There is, however, another side to the picture. About thirty years ago an immense impetus was given to the cultivation of gardens and allotments in this village by the starting here of the first of those cottage-garden flower shows which have since become so popular an institution in England. From that time it has been observed that the homes have suffered. The mothers, always in the gardens or on the road to Leamington, have but little time to clean and mend and make at home. The children's dirty faces and dirtier pinafores are a constant eyesore to those who have been accustomed to the cleanliness and tidiness of other parts of England. The cottages, too, are often untidy. The needlework of the horticultural mothers cannot compare with that of the older generation, and the result is that ready-made clothes, "cheap and nasty," are taking the place more and more every year of the serviceable home-made smocks and shirts of the grandmother's day.

Being on excellent terms of friendship with the laborers and tenants under the same landlord, we have had ample opportunity of finding out their opinions on the land question, and we cannot do better than repeat the substance of a conversation we had some eighteen months ago with a particularly clever, witty young day-laborer—a strong Radical to boot, as are a large proportion of our villagers. He had been out of work for some time, and was glad to take a job of road-mending, though he looked on it as a terrible descent in the social scale.

We were discussing public affairs, and I said, laughing, "How about your three acres and your cow?"

"If you gave me three acres to-morrow," was the answer, "I should be a ruined man. I have got a quarter of an acre in the allotments. And perhaps some day I may have another if I get on. But a quarter of an acre is as much as a man like me, with a wife and two children, can manage. I must depend on my daily wages, and who is to look after the land while I am at work? My mother and brother have an acre between them. [She keeps a carrier's cart which the son drives.] And with her pigs and the horse she does very well with it. But a man like me can't live off one or off three acres. If you give them to me you ruin me."

This man's opinion is that of all the more intelligent and thoughtful laborers in the village. When farmers were better off than they are now, the men used to be paid—as they are still in some parts of England—by the week, wet or fine. Now they are only paid on the days when work can be done. On the off-days, and when the men are out of work—a very common occurrence now, owing to a variety of causes—they turn to their allotments. "They are the saving of us," a laborer said to us the other day.

But, as our friend said, it is out of the question that they should make a livelihood off their allotments without regular work; and with a fair amount of weekly work, a quarter of an acre is quite as much as one man can cultivate single-handed. The holders of the acre lots are not day laborers, but men who have a little money. One owns two or three cottages, and devotes his whole time to his gardens, with a son to help him. Another is a jobbing carpenter, who has a son to help in his trade and on the allotment. Another is a jobbing gardener, who keeps a small beershop licensed for beer, "not to be drunk on the premises," and employs a man or boy most of the year. The carrier and her son share another acre.

It may be argued that the village we are describing is hardly a fair sample, on account of the ready market for all kinds of garden produce in Leamington. But we can point to numbers of villages in Warwickshire, far removed from any town, where the allotment system has worked well for the last twenty-five or thirty years, under all sorts of landlords, rich and poor, Liberal and Conservative. There is not the sale for flowers that we have here, but wheat, barley, oats, potatoes, some kinds of vegetables, and all fruits are always salable or usable, and have proved to be profitable on such allotments as those we mention. As far as our personal experience goes, we have never known a case in which, if men really wanted a bit of allotment ground, they could not get it; and this was the case long before Mr. Joseph Arch's name had ever been heard beyond his native village, which happens to lie next to ours. The landlords would be foolish, indeed, if they were not willing to let their land at such high rents to such excellent tenants.

If the allotment system should ever be extended into some scheme of numbers of small holdings, the laborers themselves predict the result. In 1885 many men in this village positively believed that if the Liberal party came into office, they would each be given, out of hand, those mythical three acres, with or without the yet more mythical cow. "What would you do with them?" they were asked. "Sell 'em," was the prompt reply. And the elder and wiser men in the village shook their heads, and told us exactly where those three acres, whether freehold or leasehold, would go—into the hands of two or perhaps three enterprising men in the place,

whom he could name: men who have ambition, industry, intelligence, and a little money, and who would at any cost buy up the lots of their less thrifty and intelligent neighbors. So that the turn of the wheel that was to bring about peasant proprietors, would only bring about a fresh crop of land-owners or large tenants.

R. G. K.

A RISING FRENCH CRITIC.

PARIS, January 14, 1887.

NOT far from the Pantheon is a deserted and silent street, the Rue d'Ulm, which reminds one of the streets painted with an almost painful accuracy by Balzac. In this street is the École Normale, the great school which furnishes the French University with its best professors. The examinations for entrance are difficult, and the successful competitors remain four years in the school, where they receive instruction from the first men of the Faculty of Letters and of the Faculty of Sciences. With very few exceptions, the pupils of the school are very poor; they have to make their way by their own efforts; they live almost in seclusion; and when they come out, they are admirably trained—they are admirably versed in the dead languages and in the French language. Many of them, instead of accepting a modest professorship in the provinces, try the career of letters, and generally they begin with journalism. They are more or less envious of their predecessors—of Prévost-Paradol, of Caro, of Rigault, of Taine, of About, of Francisque Sarcey. All these said in the days of their youth, as young Rastignac did when he looked down on the great Parisian ocean from the height of Montmartre: "À nous deux maintenant." Many "Normalians" have become famous; some have become ministers, like Beulé, who wrote the history of the Roman Cæsars. The Institute, the Chamber of Deputies, the Senate, are not so far from the lonely Rue d'Ulm.

Journalism is always tempting to a young man. Some of our best papers are readily open to young Normalians, since the editors are aware that they really know how to write. The younger they are the more they are still under the influence of a strong literary discipline, ready for everything, full of information, sharp, clever, ardent, curious of life. They have been fed with the lion's marrow. They are generally brilliant writers, but sometimes they are nothing more than artists of style; they have no experience of the world, no acquaintance with the daily life of the province and the city. They are like the *rhéteurs* of antiquity; they are like brilliant stars shooting through the night and often expiring in the night. Few now remember Assollant, also a Normalian, who inspired great hopes at first, and who died the other day, after having consumed his life in writing newspaper articles and novels. The best men even who come out of the École Normale, find it difficult to acquire the experience which is the lot of the man of the world, of the landlord, of the lawyer. Prévost-Paradol acquired his political education in the salon of M. Thiers, to whom he was a sort of Benjamin, and wrote every morning in the *Débats* what he had heard the night before at the Place St. Georges, with that peculiar charm and wit which was his own; but Prévost-Paradol made a terrible mistake when he accepted office from Napoleon III. —a mistake which cost him his life.

About went to Rome on leaving the École Normale, and afterwards to Greece (a certain number of pupils are sent every year to the French schools maintained by the Government in the Italian capital and at Athens). We owe to this circumstance 'Tolla' and the 'Roi des Montagnes,' the two best novels of About's, written at a time when his talent was still in its freshness. About also was seized with political ambition; he became a journalist after the war, and M. Thiers found in him one of his ardent supporters, but did not recompense his efforts. About said once, speaking of Thiers: "He offered me everything, I accepted everything; he gave me nothing." The last years of About were spent in the work of journalism, and, to the astonishment of all, in speculations of all sorts. His ambition was to become a great financier, but he might have said as Talleyrand said: "I have always lost money at the Bourse, because I always knew everything before anybody."

Among the younger and more successful Normalians we can cite now M. Jules Lemaitre. His reputation was made almost in a day. He published a series of critical articles in the *Revue Bleue*, which attracted so much attention that the *Journal des Débats* offered him at once the succession to J. J. Weiss (also a Normalian), who wrote its theatrical feuilleton during the past few years, and is now prevented from doing so by illness. More than that, the *Figaro*, the great *Figaro*, opened its columns to him—those columns which to many young aspirants appear as the ne plus ultra of literary glory. The name of M. Jules Lemaitre, unknown a short time ago, will very soon become a popular name. It may be that M. Lemaitre will sink under his new reputation, that he will rapidly disappear in the Parisian vortex; it may also be that he will wear well. His two first volumes are certainly youthful, but they have nevertheless a certain solidity. He has, of course, chosen for his studies contemporary writers. He might have left some behind, in the cold, in the dubious light of a purely ephemeral notoriety; he ought to have turned away from some others, who have only won notoriety by the abandonment of all the rules of common decency. He has admitted to his gallery names which are entirely unknown outside of the smallest horizon; but we have read with interest and with pleasure his essays on Théodore de Banville, Sully-Prudhomme, Coppée, Leconte de Lisle, the poets; on Daudet, Renan, Zola; on Francisque Sarcey; on J. J. Weiss. M. Lemaitre is terribly modern. Speaking of Bossuet, he says:

"Frankly, I always have to make an effort to read Bossuet. It is true, that when I have read a few pages, I feel that he is, as we say nowadays, *très fort*, but he gives me no pleasure, while often when I open a book of to-day or of yesterday, it befalls me that I shudder easily, or am penetrated with pleasure to the marrow of my bones—so much do I like this literature of the second half of the nineteenth century, so intelligent, so uneasy, so mad, so sorrowful, so odd, so subtle. I love it even in its affectations, its ridiculousness, its exaggerations, of which I feel the germ in me and which I can make mine. And if we speak seriously, let us make our accounts. If perhaps Corneille, Racine, Bossuet have to-day no equivalents, has the 'grand siècle' the equivalent of Lamartine, of Victor Hugo, of Musset, of Michelet, of George Sand, of Sainte-Beuve, of Flaubert, of Renan? Is it my fault if I prefer reading a chapter of Renan's to a sermon of Bossuet's, the 'Nabab' to the 'Princesse de Clèves,' and a comedy of Meilhac and Halévy's to a comedy of Molière's?"

Comparisons are odious, and M. Lemaitre has a right to his preference. His enthusiasm, however, is perhaps a little too accommodating, and among the names which he cites in this passage there are certainly a few which ought not to have been cited. But this sincere love of modern literature gives a certain charm and color to his criticism. We often describe well what we like well.

The article on Renan made much noise at the time it appeared. Lemaitre belongs to the school of realists who wish to see before they describe anything. He was not content with reading Renan's books, he went to his lectures; he describes the public of the famous professor:

"Many old gentlemen, who resemble all old gentlemen; students, ladies, sometimes Englishwomen, who have come because M. Renan is a part of the curiosities of Paris. . . . He enters and is applauded. He thanks with a nod of his head, with a good-natured look. He is fat, short, red, with long features, long gray hair; a big nose, a fine mouth; moving all about as in one piece his large head between his shoulders. He seems happy to live, and he explains with gayety the formation of the historical *Corpus* which contains the Pentateuch."

The familiarity of Renan's exposition and explanations amuses M. Lemaitre—the slang which he sometimes uses, the simplicity of his manner. He calls him a "Labiche exégète" (Labiche is the author of some comical plays at the Palais Royal). He is somewhat disappointed also, and wonders how a man who has gone through such a terrible moral crisis can be so unconcerned, so little transcendental. He compares his face to some of those which Gustave Doré drew in his 'Rabelais' or in the 'Contes Drolatiques.' What is the secret of this gayety? In a speech which he made at Quimper, on the 17th of August, 1883, Renan said: "A critic reproached me some time ago [it was M. Scherer of the *Temps*] with my good humor as if it were hypocrisy, and seeing its true causes. Well, I will tell you its causes. I am very gay because, having amused myself very little when I was young, I have kept all the freshness of my illusions; but, what is more serious, I am gay because I am sure that I have made a good use of my life. I am sure of it."

It must be very comfortable to feel so much security. Lamennais, who went through the same ordeal as Renan, did not feel it.

"Pascal," says M. Lemaitre, "became mad, M. Renan is gay! If he had ever completely altered his faith, he might have the serenity which often goes with strong convictions. But this philosopher has preserved the imagination of a Catholic. He still loves what he has left. He has remained a priest; he gives even to negation the tone of Christian mysticism. His brain is a disendowed (*désaffectée*) cathedral (the word is Alphonse Daudet's). You can fill it with hay; you can deliver lectures in it; it remains a church."

The essay on Zola is one of the best. Lemaitre dares to say that Zola is not a true realist, and that he magnifies and transforms reality. Zola pretends to be a "naturalist," but "he is also an epic poet and a pessimist poet," if you call a poet a writer who, in view of a certain idea, transforms reality. His pessimism is frightful. In his first writings he at times glorified nature and her works. In the latest he seems to hate and to be afraid of her. He tries to insult human pride in every possible manner. He takes pleasure in showing original sin not in the spirit of a moralist, of a priest, of a philosopher, but in the spirit of a physiologist, of a vivisector. He surrounds vice and crime with the most horrible, disgusting, repulsive, and ridiculous circumstances. He degrades love; he sees in man and woman miserable brutes. He lives in a *clinique*. Bestiality and imbecility are in his eyes the two great characteristics of mankind. "But," says M. Lemaitre, "it would be great injustice to accuse M. Zola of immorality, and to believe that he speculates in the bad instincts of the reader." Zola remains grave; if he enters into certain details it is because he thinks it necessary.

"As he pretends to paint reality, and as he is persuaded that reality is ignoble, he shows it as such, with the scruples of a soul which is delicate in its own fashion, which has no desire to deceive us, and which wishes to give the full measure of truth. Sometimes he forgets himself—he makes a great picture from which the ignominy of the flesh is absent; and suddenly he is seized with remorse, he remembers that the beast is everywhere, and, so as not to fail in his duty, when you least expect it, he introduces some indecent detail as a memento of the universal corruption."

Many refuse to Zola what, after all, preserves the work of art, style. Lemaitre believes them to

be unjust, and he defends the style of Zola—"a magnifying style, without shades, often without precision, but eminently calculated, by its monotonous exaggerations and its multiplied insistence, to give greatness to the great *ensembles* of things concrete."

Correspondence.

THE SHARPLES PORTRAITS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Now that there is some discussion as to the genuineness of the Sharples portraits, the following statement may possess some interest:

These portraits were exhibited once before in this country—I cannot remember the precise date, but it must have been near the time of, or before, the Centennial. Among other places, they were shown in Cincinnati. While they were on exhibition there, two of the portraits were partially cut from their frames, and it was considered evident that an attempt to steal them had been made. I saw the portraits shortly after (I think, the next day), and the manner of the cutting convinced me that it had not been done by a thief, but by some one who had an interest in advertising the pictures. Two of the pictures were cut, and both were cut in the same way. In each canvas there were four long slits, one on each side, *not quite meeting at the corners*, so that there was the largest possible amount of cutting that should still leave the canvas firmly attached to its stretcher. Any man who has ever cut a canvas from its stretcher (as what artist has not?) knows how it is done. One begins at one corner and *cuts around* until he gets back to the corner he started from, and the work is done. Now, if the cutting of these so-called Sharples portraits was done by a thief, he must have made four cuts in one canvas, still leaving it firmly attached at all four corners, and then have gone to the other portrait and done the same thing, and then have been interrupted, having done the utmost amount of cutting, with no result. Or, if there were two thieves, each of them must have gone to work in the same awkward way, and have got to the same point when the interruption came.

The improbability of either of these suppositions, together with the fact that no one ever explained how, when, or by whom the attempt could have been made, served to convince me that the supposed theft was a mere advertising "dodge"; and I have never had much faith since then in the authenticity or value of the portraits.

Kenyon Cox.

New York, January 20, 1887.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The report of the Massachusetts Historical Society upon the Sharples portraits has attracted widespread attention. In it the authenticity of the pictures is impeached upon the strength of the written testimony alone. It does not weigh any evidence which may be derived from an examination of the pictures themselves. Such an examination would at once convince any competent observer that the collection of portraits now exhibiting in the country under the name of Sharples cannot possibly be all from the same hand. It is true that the explanatory volume acknowledges that several of the ladies' portraits were worked upon by distinguished artists with a view to beautifying and making more acceptable, yet all are claimed to be at bottom the work of the one painter. In truth they bear every mark of being the work of several men.

The portrait of the wife of Alex. Hamilton is so like Maclise that that distinguished artist must have painted it outright, instead of merely touching it up, as Macready's letter says. Of the others it is not difficult to assign them to three or four different hands. The three men's portraits—those of Priestly, Fulton, and Marshall—resemble one another, and may all have been painted by Sharples, though they are very different in style from the Sharples pastels which hang in Independence Hall. But if Sharples painted them, or any of those in the general collection, then assuredly he did not paint the Washington portraits. In these the handling of the brush, the quality of the color, and, indeed, all technical details, are unlike anything in the other pictures. Not only so; the painters' conception of what a portrait should be is different. While all the others are more or less flimsy and flat, painted with little pigment and much oil, and with a constant striving after the doll-like prettiness much in vogue thirty or forty years ago, the Washington portraits are massive and round, painted with a large body of color and considerable skill. One of the heads of Washington is in profile, as is that of his wife. These profiles are erect and rigid, relieved against a dark, opaque background. It seems scarcely possible that a man who could paint so good a head, if working directly from nature, would have contented himself with this upright rigidity. It, however, corresponds exactly with what we find in the unquestioned portraits in pastel by Sharples, of which many exist.

The full face of Washington is undoubtedly from the hand of the same painter. It, however, represents a much younger man, and is in military uniform. It is well and strongly modelled, with a full brush and a good deal of skill. It at once suggests the bust made by Houdon about ten years before Sharples came to America, and a close examination of the two shows a striking resemblance.

A careful consideration of the evidence afforded by the pictures, aided by our knowledge of facts which are unquestioned, brings us to the conclusion that the profile portraits of Washington and his wife are copies by an unknown but skilful hand, from originals, either in pastel or oil, made by Sharples from life; and that the full face is the work of the same painter, who probably took for foundation a sketch by Sharples, but in finishing used the bust by Houdon. This would account for the alleged mistake in the color of the eyes, and for the strange lack of vitality, very observable in a head otherwise so well executed.

Pictor.

PERVERSION OF HISTORY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you allow me to call attention to the extraordinary way in which Messrs. Hay and Nicolay, the authors of the Life of Lincoln now appearing in the *Century*, have, in the January number, glossed over the acquisition of Texas? However great may be the value of Texas to the United States, and however worthy may be the Texans of to-day, the fact remains that the annexation of Texas was the consummation of a gigantic land robbery, planned and carried out in the interest of slavery, and practised upon a friendly but weaker neighbor. This national crime, of which even at this day all patriotic Americans should feel heartily ashamed, is thus described by Messrs. Hay and Nicolay:

"It was impossible to defeat or greatly delay the annexation of Texas, and it showed a certain lack of sagacity on the part of the Whigs not to recognize this fact. Here was a great empire offering itself to us, a State which had gained its independence, and built itself into a certain order and thrift through American valor and enterprise. She offered us a magnificent estate of 376,000 square miles of territory, all of it valuable and much of it of unsurpassed richness and fertility. Even those portions of it once condemned as desert now contribute to the markets of the world vast stores of wool and cotton, herds of cattle and flocks of sheep. Not only were these material advantages of great attractiveness to the public mind, but many powerful sentimental considerations reinforced the claim of Texas. The Texans were not an alien people. The few inhabitants of that vast realm were mostly Americans, who had occupied and subdued a vacant wilderness. The heroic defence of the Alamo had been made by Travis and David Crockett, whose exploits and death form one of the most brilliant pages of our border history. Fannin and his men, 400 strong, when they laid down their lives at Goliad, had carried mourning into every southwestern State: and when, a few days later, Houston and his 800 raw levies defeated and destroyed the Mexican army at San Jacinto, captured Santa Anna, the Mexican President, and, with American thrift, instead of giving him the death he merited for his cruel murder of unarmed prisoners, saved him to make a treaty with, the whole people recognized something of kinship in the unaffected valor with which these borderers died, and the humorous shrewdness with which they bargained, and felt as if the victory over the Mexicans was their own. Under these conditions the annexation, sooner or later, was inevitable. . . . Whenever a region contiguous to the United States becomes filled with Americans, it is absolutely certain to come under the American flag."

Strip off the glowing words that cover them, and you find but two arguments in the above quotation, greed and revenge—the one worthy of an Ahab, the other of a burglar whose pal has been shot in the act of housebreaking. Compare with this the views of an impartial foreigner, expressed in 1862, when the slaveholders' triumph of nearly twenty years before was bearing bloody fruit. Prof. Cairnes says in his 'Slave Power':

"The annexation of Texas . . . has long passed into a by-word for unprovoked and unscrupulous plunder of a weak by a strong Power. The designs of its authors have always been notorious. . . . Texas, as all the world knows, was before its annexation to the Union a province of Mexico—a country at peace with the Union, and anxious to cultivate with it friendly relations. Mexico, however, was a weak State, still fresh from the throes of revolution. The district in question was one of great fertility, possessing in this respect, as well as in its climate and river communications, remarkable advantages for slave settlement; it was, moreover, but thinly peopled, and was separated by an immense distance from the seat of government. So early as 1821, while Spanish authority was still maintained in Mexico, 300 families from Louisiana were permitted to settle in this tempting region under the express condition that they should submit to the laws of the country. . . . As the colony increased in numbers and wealth, it became evident to the slave-owners of the neighboring States that they had a natural right to the territory. It offered an admirable field for slave cultivation; it was in their immediate proximity; of all claimants they were the strongest and 'smartest'; in short, they wanted the country, and felt themselves able to take it, and they resolved it should be theirs. 'Manifest destiny' beckoned them forward, and they prepared, with reverent submission to the decrees of Providence, to fulfil their fate."

Going on to speak of the wild-cat land speculation, and manufacture of fictitious titles, which was used to stir up interests hostile to Mexican rule in Texas, and the attempts of the Texan settlers to evade the Mexican laws against slavery, Prof. Cairnes says:

"The project of dismembering a neighboring republic that slaveholders and slaves might overspread a region which had been consecrated to a free population, was discussed in the newspapers as coolly as if it were a matter of obvious right and unquestioned humanity. The plot having been carried to this point, the consummation of the plunder was easy. A conspiracy was hatched; a rebellion organized; filibusters were introduced from the border States; and a population which, at the commencement of the outbreak, did not number 20,000 persons, asserted its independence, was recognized by the Federal Government, and with little delay annexed to the Union."

Now, in regard to this matter, it is not too much to say that Prof. Cairnes's statements are history, and Messrs. Hay and Nicolay's are not. This might be unimportant were it not that many thousands of the *Century's* readers have grown up since the annexation of Texas, and are likely to take the truth of Messrs. Hay and Nicolay's statements for granted. Then, too, when the Whig party is criticised for a lack of political wisdom in thinking with Lowell,

"Slavery, the earth-born cyclops, fellest of the giant brood,
Sons of brutish Force and Darkness, who have drenched the earth with blood,
Famished in his self-made desert, blinded by our purer day,
Gropes in *yet unblasted regions* for his miserable prey;
Shall we guide his gory fingers where our helpless children play?"

—such a calling of evil, good, and good, evil, should not pass unnoticed. B.

PHILADELPHIA, January 22, 1887.

LEGISLATION FOR THE WORKING CLASSES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: You are, I know, strongly opposed to anything that savors of the paternal in government; it did not need the humorous remarks appended to my previous letter to inform me as to that. Nevertheless, I have always believed that one man's rights end where another's begin, and that it is the business of Government to enforce this principle thoroughly. You would yourself be indignant, I think, if a hotel-keeper allowed you ignorantly to sleep in a room previously occupied by one having a contagious disease. But suppose you knew little about the danger of contagion, and that the choice lay between taking that room or sleeping in the street; you might, perhaps, occupy that room even if not wholly ignorant of its danger. But would that excuse the landlord for not having had the room disinfected?

Now, these two cases are exactly parallel to those of poor workpeople who undertake work that is either dangerous in itself or by its surroundings: either they do it in ignorance, or, not being wholly ignorant, they have virtually no choice—it is that or hunger and exposure. What I say is simply that the State should interfere and require employers not to expose work-people to avoidable dangers—dangers to which they would not willingly expose themselves. I shall make my case plainer and stronger by a few examples.

At a factory in my neighborhood there is much filing of iron. The filers get their lungs filled with angular bits of iron: consumption follows, sickness, and death. The evil might be averted by the use of magnets, as is done in some factories; it is even found that the iron collected almost pays the interest on the extra plant. The owner of the factory in question has had his attention called to the matter, but refuses to make the change on account of the cost; his workpeople continue to suffer.

A house in my neighborhood is liable to have its cellar overflowed several times a year. This could be prevented by the expenditure of a hundred dollars, which the owner will not make. The house is occupied by a large family of very industrious and worthy workpeople. Last autumn *every member* of the family was down with typhoid. The house continues to be overflowed.

A factory makes red prussiate of potash, largely used in the arts for making one of the varieties of Prussian blue. The work is so dangerous that it has to be carried on in the open air. None of the people employed being willing to work the stirrer, a raw hand (of course ignorant of the danger) was engaged. When I had occasion to visit the factory, this man, at the end of a month's work, had his lungs fatally injured. Two other men, within a few days, had been overcome and rescued at the risk of life, by others.

You will say perhaps that these are exceptional cases. If they were, they should not exist even as exceptions. Unfortunately they are not. Many forms of manufacture are surrounded with danger. Thousands of hands are employed in making phosphorus matches. The vapors of phosphorus produce necrosis of the jaw-bone, which crumbles to pieces. This may be prevented, either by the use of a certain (more expensive) variety of phosphorus, or by very perfect ventilation. Should not one or the other be made obligatory? The manufacture of bichromate of potash, now used in immense quantities in the arts, tends to the production of terrible ulcers, and to the destruction of the septum between the nostrils. In the production of some of the aniline colors, arsenic acid, a very dangerous form of arsenic, is used by the ton.

In all these cases the amount of danger to the workman depends upon the amount of precaution used. Precaution means expense: the man who incurs least can the better compete with other manufacturers. Shall his workpeople be left to his mercy? Are you quite sure that inspectors are as superfluous as you seem to say?

M. C. L.

PHILADELPHIA, January 15, 1887.

DOMESTIC SERVICE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION.

SIR: The trouble with domestic service in this country arises from the fact that the rules governing the intercourse of mistress and house-servant are an importation from Europe, where society is organized on a totally different basis. Europe is a country of classes, differing essentially from each other. Lord and peasant are as distinct breeds as Jersey and Durham cattle; or, if not so in fact, yet society is organized on the supposition that they are, and men fill the positions to which they find themselves born. But among white Americans there are no classes at all. There are individual differences, but nothing more. In the next generation the children of the servants may be the gentlefolk, and the children of the gentlefolk the servants, and such changes are often seen. And yet the average American woman no sooner gets money enough to be able to hire a housemaid than she assumes a manner towards her which implies that she considers the distance between them something immense. And if the mistress be very rich, she acts as though her servants belonged to an inferior order of beings.

If you live in the country, you will find no difficulty in hiring an American man-of-all-work, coachman, or gardener, provided you do not want him to wear livery. If you get the right sort of a man, you will find that he is neither servile nor over-familiar, but he will show by his actions that he does not think that the receiving of your money for his work constitutes you in any respect a superior being to himself. His daughter is willing to work, and would like to earn money, but nothing will induce her to enter your wife's service as cook or housemaid, because it is an implied condition of such service that the servant shall take a distinctly lower social position, be treated as if belonging to a different class, and sacrifice something of self-respect. And so your wife is compelled to put up with the service of ignorant foreigners, who, being in fact of a different class, can be treated as such.

It seems to me that the fact that American girls will not go out to service under present conditions, but prefer much harder and less remunerative labor as seamstresses or teachers, or in factories or shops, is not only not a bad symptom, but is a distinctly good one. It shows that they prefer self-respect to money. The blame for this state of things rests, not upon the servants, but upon the mistresses, and we shall never have a better state of things until ladies learn how to treat their servants.

This does not by any means imply that employers and servants are to live in the same rooms or eat at the same table. Any intelligent hired girl will understand that the employer's family prefer to be by themselves, especially at meal time. But it implies a general change of manner, and, more than that, of feeling. Take the case mentioned by your Philadelphia correspondent, "A. S.," of the lady who went out to service as housemaid, but left the situation because her employers "seemed unconscious of her existence." Such insulting behavior is as much out of place towards your housemaid as towards your lawyer or your doctor, both of whom are, in a sense, your hirelings. Even the kindness and the favor usually shown by mistress to maid generally come in the form of condescension, *de haut en bas*, and are more irritating than downright insults.

The reform will have begun when mistresses learn to say from their hearts of their servants as Job said of his, "Did not he that made me in the womb make him, and did not one fashion us in the womb?" But, of course, it will take two or three generations of changed conduct to convince American girls that domestic service is respectable.

These views are not mere theory. An experience of about forty years in one household conducted on these principles has—I cannot say, avoided all trouble, for then would the millennium have come—but has made life much easier for this household than it has been for the most of our neighbors. R.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The duties of a cook, and still more of a maid-of-all-work, demand more general intelligence and technical skill than are often found among uneducated women, and more muscular strength than is often found among educated women. The requisite intelligence is developed in great numbers of poor girls by the public schools, and if the same schools afforded a thorough muscular training by means of calisthenic exercises and a well-appointed gymnasium, the supply of competent domestics would, no doubt, be greatly increased.

SUE HARRY CLAGETT.

PORTLAND, OREGON, January 16.

COMPARATIVE POLITICS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The history of representative government, as I have frequently remarked, is the history of a struggle for power between executive and legislature; and the future of that government depends in great measure upon the solution of the problem of their relations. The observation of political students is, therefore, directed largely, and more or less consciously, to that point, and I ask permission to call in two or three witnesses.

(1.) Dr. Th. Barth is a member of the German Reichstag, and those who were so fortunate as to meet him in this country cannot have failed to be impressed with his broad views and clear intellect. Speaking in his own paper, the Berlin *Nation*, of our politics, he says:

"There is, perhaps, in no country where a parliament exists, a sovereign who, in cases of conflict, stands armed with such power against the parliament as the President of the United States has against the House of Representatives. He is the elected trustee of the people just as much as the Representatives, and, moreover, the trustee

of the *whole* people. Equipped with this authority he can successfully withstand the will of a parliamentary majority, and is never compelled to sacrifice his ministers to such a majority. How different in constitutional monarchies. The monarch is something permanent and withdrawn from public opinion. The parliament is the only form of constitutionally organized public opinion. In cases of conflict it is only through a dissolution of parliament that the monarch can obtain proof that his advisers represent public opinion better than parliament."

This statement is no doubt true as regards the *negative* power of the President, but unfortunately it is not true of *positive* power, of which, except by illegitimate methods, he has none at all. With all his position as the chosen agent of the whole people, he can only veto, he cannot initiate a policy. He can resist Congress, he cannot compel it. It is just in order to remedy this defect that the admission of the Cabinet to seats in Congress is advocated.

(2.) A correspondent of the London *Times*, speaking of the resignation of Lord Randolph Churchill, says that "it forces on our notice another dangerously weak place in the arrangements of the British Constitution. We have been brought full in view of a further crumbling away of parties. We have been full in view of a serious diminution of our defensive and aggressive forces. We have been in view of a resignation of the Government, and a change in the British Government may have consequences extending from Canadian fishermen to Burmese dacoits. It is one of the most widely extending catastrophes which can occur in the world." Then, after treating of the financial methods of Parliament and our Congress, the writer proceeds:

"Under the French Constitution, which is a muddle of the American Federal and of the British Constitutions, such a Committee as has been sketched proposed the other day a financial policy wholly different from that adopted by the Ministry, and, the Chamber of Deputies having adopted the recommendation of the Committee, the Ministers resigned. Of course, so long as the British Constitution exists, no Government can be prevented from taking the sense of the House of Commons on financial proposals which it considers to be fatal or dangerous to its efficiency and from resigning upon defeat. But it is clear that if the House is ever to resume its financial powers, there ought to be an understanding that differences from the Executive Government not going to the root of policy are not to involve the retirement of Ministries. The sensitiveness as to the confidence of the House of Commons which British statesmen affect, may seem at first sight a tribute to its authority, but in reality it is the means of depriving the House of the greatest part of its power, by attaching to its most important and perhaps most necessary resolutions the penalty of dismissing the whole Executive Government and perhaps convulsing the whole of the empire."

So far from the fixed term of President and Cabinet being an objection to the latter appearing in Congress, it may well prove to be an advantage in that they can fight out their battles with Congress, leaving to the country at the elections to decide between the two. The following extract from the London *Spectator* will speak for itself, if for the words "Lord Salisbury" and "Premier" is read "Cabinet." It turns upon the fact that Lord Salisbury, as a Peer, has no seat in the House of Commons:

"During the whole of the recent crisis, the first and greatest difficulty was obviously this—that while our Government is deliberative and not personal, and while all real power centres in the House of Commons, the head and soul and mouthpiece of that Government could not open his lips within that assembly. Suppose next month Mr. Smith has to talk about an Austrian alliance. The Premier can take no part in debate, can announce no personal resolution, can give no direct aid whatever towards the carrying of the vote on which the fortunes of the empire may depend. A more utterly stupid waste of a man than is committed when Lord Salisbury is locked up in the House of Lords, with a great debate going on in the Commons and all England thirsting to hear what he has to say, cannot be conceived; yet both parties bear it, as if his mouth were closed by some law of nature. Where is there any solid reason why the Premier, if already a member of one House, should not walk into the other and say what he wants to utter and the House wants to hear? That he should not vote is intelligible, for votes represent electors; but that condition does not impair his right to speak in the House, which is not given him as a personal boon, but for the general benefit of the nation. Every wretched little member may talk till the House is sick of him, and long after; but the Premier may not open his mouth, even when war and peace may be hanging on information which he alone fully possesses. It will be observed we are not asking for a great constitutional change. All over the Continent the Ministers of the Crown or the Republic sit *ex officio* in either house from the day they are appointed. The present Minister of France, for example, has never been elected to either Chamber; but we are not asking for such a change as that, though we deem it advisable. We have too deep a respect for British nerves. A mere relaxation of etiquette would, in fact, enable both houses to admit any head of Government to explain anything they wish to have explained; yet we suppose that in this country of sensible men we might as well propose that a jury should consist of thirteen. We felicitate ourselves that we are not as Chinese, but for some ceremonials we would all die." G. B.

BOSTON, January 22, 1887.

RELIGIOUS STATISTICS ONCE MORE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: "Limited knowledge" may be accurate as far as it goes, but it may lead one into very great inaccuracies. You have committed yourself so explicitly on the matter of religious statistics that I am afraid you are in the toils. It is not necessary to resort to the methods you describe to make up the "deficiency" of $112,522 in the receipts of the Board of Foreign Missions of the (Northern) Presbyterian Church, as compared with the amount reported in the General Assembly's Minutes, when the Woman's Board acknowledges $224,025, leaving the "deficiency" the other way to about the same amount, and showing (what I have always observed in my own experience) that it was impossible to get *adequate* reports from the churches of what is actually done, as so much does not pass through the church treasurer's hands.

With regard to home missions, I have not the figures, but can readily account for the difference without reckoning $191 as sent to each man commissioned by the Board. In the Southern Presbyterian Church we are instructed to fill up the blanks with the amount sent to the Central Committees and *kindred objects*. A vast amount of home-mission work is done with which the Committee (or Board) has nothing to do. The church of which I am pastor, for instance, has this year built a mission school-house, and a thousand dollars will be reported as given to home missions that the general agency never saw. If we give several hundred dollars towards the endowment of a chair in a theological seminary, we report it as given to the cause of education, but it will not appear in the report of the Committee on Education. So a good deal of money goes direct to the foreign field for building churches and for other enterprises, where the Committee feels unable to undertake them. It is, of course, reported as given to foreign missions.

Then where is the objection to reporting money that is given to an undenominational object? A church of another denomination was destroyed by the great fire in this city last year. To my mind the money given by my church to rebuild it is a higher illustration of loving one's neighbor as one's self than if it had been given to a Presbyterian church.

With regard to statistics of membership, the case is different. As one who makes an effort to have the church rolls purged annually, I know it is a difficult matter. We have to carry every year a certain number that cannot be shelved, and yet that are practically not with us.—Very respectfully, PEYTON H. HOGE.

WILMINGTON, N. C., January 12, 1887.

[If Dr. Hoge will look again, he will see that he is completely in error in his reference to the Woman's Board. The $224,025 referred to was all turned over to the central treasury and acknowledged by it among "donations from the churches"; this being fully taken into the account in our reckoning. We do not see how Dr. Hoge, after his last two sentences, can escape being made a victim of the *Independent's* deadly argument (which it seems to regard as a complete *reductio ad absurdum*), "We never heard of this before."—ED. NATION.]

PROTECTION AGAINST WESTERN WHEAT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The following clipping from an Ohio newspaper may serve to illustrate the growth in logical consistency of some advocates of protection. The oft-repeated suggestion of the *Nation* that if protection is beneficial as applied to our foreign trade relations, it should be equally beneficial as a regulator of inter-State traffic, seems here to be adopted in good faith and seriousness. It should be stated that the clipping is not from an editorial, but from an interview with a man prominent in local railway matters; but the opinions expressed do not seem to the editor to call for reprehension or even comment:

"I think the Inter-State Commerce Bill will be a good thing. It will cause the railroads to pay more attention to the local traffic, and the people will get the benefit. By killing off some of the through shipments from the West, these Eastern farmers will get more protection. You see, there are large tracts of land out there in the West, and the men here with capital buy up a few thousand acres and send out a company of immigrants to till it. The grain that these people in the West raise comes here in competition with that of Eastern farmers, who have taxes to pay and large expenses for cultivation and labor. By shutting off these through shipments, the people here will be benefited. The local trade will be stimulated by lowering local rates, which the Inter-State Commerce Bill will do if passed."

The protection of the local grain producer is not ordinarily dwelt upon by the advocates of the claims of the American laborer to protection. C.

OHIO, January 16, 1887.

THE DERIVATION OF SAUNTER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I thank you for your very kindly notice of my 'Short Stories from the Dictionary' and for pointing out one of the "pitfalls" in the way of the student of the history of words, even though you indicate it by means of a slip in my little book. My pages show that I based my work on Webster's Dictionary, the accomplished editors of which have fallen more completely into this particular pitfall than I have in my incidental reference to the word "saunter" on page 46. The fact that *saunter* is also written "santer," seems to afford some support to the theory of its connection with *Sainte Terre*, which has been asserted from 1755 (when it was given in the revised edition of Bailey and by Dr. Johnson) to the days of Webster's latest revision, though it seems more probable that it bears some relation to the Italian *santa terra* or the French *sans terre* (homeless one). No one has yet remarked that the French expression is not *Sainte Terre*, but *Terre Sainte*, which would, of course, upset the theory of the

derivation of *saunter* from it. In justice to myself perhaps I may be allowed to say that Skeat's Dictionary was published in parts, and that the portion treating saunter had not come into my hands at the time that 'Short Stories from the Dictionary' was written, though I was aware that the derivation was questioned, and I ought to have referred to the fact.—Yours truly,

ARTHUR GILMAN.

CAMBRIDGE, January 21, 1887.

Notes.

C. N. CASPAR, Milwaukee, sends us a Supplement to his 'Directory of Antiquarian and Second-hand Booksellers of the United States,' which will, he states, be shortly out of print. He now issues the prospectus of a more ambitious work, viz., a 'General Directory of the American Book, News, and Stationery Trade, and Kindred Branches, Wholesale and Retail, of the United States and Canada.' The second division of this directory will contain a digest of the lists of the American publishers—"a systematical and analytical key to the nature and kind of all books published" in the two countries. This, of course, will be based on the 'Trade-List Annual,' and its value is obvious. The third division will be a digest of price-lists. Subscriptions should be made through the *Publishers' Weekly*, 31 Park Row, New York.

J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia, are about to publish, in connection with Adam and Charles Black, Edinburgh, a new library edition of the Waverley Novels in twenty-five volumes. The typography is very bold and distinct.

A new and thoroughly revised edition of 'Nuttall's Standard Dictionary,' edited by the Rev. James Wood of Edinburgh, in which etymologies as well as pronunciation will be given, and which will be freely illustrated, is in the press of F. Warne & Co.

Mr. Charles R. Hildeburn has just issued the second and last volume of his full and accurate work, 'A Century of Printing: The Issues of the Press in Pennsylvania, 1764-1784' (Philadelphia). The first volume, which was noticed in these columns in November, 1885, brought the list down to 1763, and contained 1,935 titles; the present records 2,707 titles for the years 1764 to 1785. An index of authors and titles, with a few subject entries, ends the volume. It is a question of conscience with an index-maker how far he shall permit himself the use of the block system, and annex to indexed words simple lists of all the pages on which they occur, thus ornamenting the page with symmetrical and economical blocks of figures, while effectually blocking the progress of the hunter after references. Mr. Hildeburn has restricted himself to names of individuals, and to the subjects "Proclamations" and "Votes." No advantage seems to be gained by printing the catchword in capitals.

We had intended to mention, in connection with the conclusion of Mr. Lodge's edition of Hamilton's Works, Mr. Paul Leicester Ford's 'Bibliotheca Hamiltoniana,' privately printed, in an edition of 500 copies, by the Knickerbocker Press, in typographical conformity to Mr. Lodge's volumes. It includes works written by or relating to Hamilton, and indicates the libraries in which they may be found. It is an excellent performance.

Apropos of this statesman, it is significant that he is not cited in the eulogistic compilation of 'Character Portraits of Washington,' selected and arranged by W. S. Baker (Philadelphia: Robert M. Lindsay). This was perhaps hardly ingenuous, since a quotation is made from Robert C. Winthrop in which the following passage occurs: "From his illustrious friend, Alexander Hamilton, I need not cite a word. His whole life bore testimony, more impressive than words, to an admiration and affection for his great chief which could not be exceeded, and which no momentary misunderstandings could shake." Twenty quarto volumes like this would fail to show the true character of the Father of his Country.

The 'Beecher Book of Days' (Cassell & Co.) has been edited by two ladies with unusual aptness, for often they place beneath the name of the eminent man born on the given date some remark of Mr. Beecher's about him, or some sentiment appropriate to his character.

In 1883 Carlton McCarthy, Richmond, Va., began publishing a series of pamphlet "Contributions to a History of the Richmond Howitzer Battalion." The fourth appeared before the close of last year, and the end is not yet. They well deserve to find a place in every public library and in any private collection on the war. To a large extent they consist of diaries; in the case of the battle of Big Bethel, both the Confederate and the Federal official reports are appended to the narrative. The value of these unpretentious reminiscences and records is very great, as assisting both to a knowledge of military events and to a conception of the soldier's life. Many shrewd observations find expression, as this: "It is my opinion that it takes a better, braver, and cooler man to stand by his 'piece' during an engagement than it does to charge any line of battle ever formed, and for this reason"—the artillerist's comparative freedom from excitement, and want of protection and of that moral support which animates a charge in line. One finds here, of course, the lost cause still judged the better one, but it is something to "come to the solemn, reverential conclusion that God fought that battle [of Gettysburg], and that neither party of the combatants was responsible for its issues."

The *Brooklyn Magazine* will, on April 15, change its name to that of the *American Magazine*, and provide illustrations of a high class.

The *Art Review* (New York) for December announces that Mr. Muybridge, the original photographer of the 'Horse in Motion,' has for three years, under the auspices of the University of Pennsylvania, been collecting material for a work on 'Animal Locomotion,' human beings included. The Photogravure Company of New York is now making the 781 plates, the letterpress to which is to be furnished by professors of the University. A hundred plates make a "volume," and the subscriber may select them from the total number, at the price of $100 or so. More than half the edition is said to be subscribed for.

L'Art (Macmillan), in the two numbers for December ending the past year, continues its articles on American art museums, coming to the Metropolitan Museum of this city, of whose director M. A. de Latour speaks in terms that would be libellous here. A series of papers on the collections at Chantilly is begun, and is illustrated by a portrait of the princely donor, and by many views of the Château and its art treasures. As attractive as any of the full-page illustrations is an etching of "Un Mousse" after Ulysse Butin. In the first January number, there is a superb etching by Daniel Mordant after Nicholas Maes, "The Dreamer."

French art is honored in the *Portfolio* for January (Macmillan) in the person of the sculptor Auguste Rodin, of whose works there are several spirited examples, including the admirable bust of Victor Hugo. In an article on Mr. G. F. Watt, apropos of his first gift to the National gallery, Mr. F. G. Stephens describes the works of this English master of the brush now deposited at South Kensington; but the sole illustration is of the hugest and the least inspired of the canvases which were exhibited in New York—the carter and his horses, or "Mid-day Rest." It gains by being etched. There is also an etching of Temple Bar. Mr. Reginald T. Blomfield, writing of the old half-timber houses in the Weald of Kent and its neighborhood, undertakes to fix the approximate date of the introduction of chimneys into this class of houses at 1591, or thereabouts. Collaterally he cites Shakspere in "King Henry IV., Part I, act 2, scene 1, where the carrier in the inn yard says: "Charles' wain is over the new chimney." The first edition of this play appeared in 1598.

The editor of the *Photographic Times* of this city has compiled from it an 'American Annual of Photography, and Photographic Times Almanac for 1887' (Scovill Manufacturing Co.), adding much besides of great interest and convenience to members of the craft, whether professional or amateur. Yet how greatly its practical value would have been enhanced by making the index analytical, bringing the articles on lenses, plates, films, toning, developing, washing, printing, etc., together in one view. Several silver and heliotype prints serve to adorn this volume. The advertisements should not be omitted in enumerating the useful matter it contains.

From John Heywood, Manchester, we have *Almonds and Raisins*, the Vegetarian Society's annual for 1887, in its fifth issue. For a frontispiece it has a steel engraving (from 'Lodge's Portraits') of Gen. Eliott, the heroic defender of Gibraltar, and a vegetarian and teetotaler. Shelley's vegetarianism is insisted on, in another article, as being "in keeping with his whole character, and essential to his imaginative style of writing." Mr. W. E. A. Axon sets forth the vegetarian aspect (among others) of Buddhism, and contributes several short poems. Recipes close the annual.

We have received the bulky 'Estadística Comercial de la República de Chile' for the year 1885, compiled by Señor Juan B. Torres, chief of the department of commercial statistics. It has to report a general falling off in the trade movement, in keeping with that which marked the principal nations of the civilized world during the same period. The imports from the United States to Chile fell away nearly 35 per cent., the most marked discrepancy being in machinery and tools. On the other hand, our imports from Chile increased nearly 22 per cent.

From Dietrich Reimer, Berlin, we have four more sheets of the great map of Attica prepared by officers of the Prussian General Staff. No. 13 shows Pentelicus; No. 14, Markópulo; Nos. 14, 15, Cape Sunium. The contour lines, the heights, the roads, the indications in red of ruins or of traces of former structures, characterize these plates as they did their predecessors; the scale being 1:25,000. The text to accompany this and the preceding set is reserved for the concluding issue, which is now not far off.

The publishers of *Petermann's Mittheilungen* have just issued their index number to the eighteen volumes which have appeared during the years 1875-1884. It has the same general character as the previous index, but is much larger. Instead of two there are now four sheets of index maps, which are so divided by various kinds of colored lines, accompanied by figures and in many cases by the names of travellers, that it is comparatively easy at a glance to see whether there is a map of any particular part of the world, the volume in which it is contained, its scale and character (as, for instance, whether it is simply geographical, or geological, or statistical). A study of these index maps is interesting as showing the directions which recent geographical investigation has taken. In Europe, Germany and the Balkan States; in Asia, the Afghan frontier, have been the greatest points of interest, while

Equatorial Africa still surpasses all other parts of the world in the number of maps devoted to it.

We have before now remarked on the extreme frequency with which French writers for the young "annex" American books, arranging or adapting them very much as French plays are arranged and adapted for the American theatres. Among the announcements of the always admirable *Magasin illustré d'Éducation et de Récréation*, founded by the late P. J. Stahl, is "Les Jeunes Filles de Quinebasset," by J. Lermont, "d'après S. May"—a wholly inadequate acknowledgment, it seems to us, yet beyond redress till we join the Copyright Union.

A year or so ago we noted the most amusing misprint of a French word in an English book, whereby Mme. de Maintenon was styled a "glorieuse *modiste*," and we have now to note a droll blunder in an English word in a French book. In M. Alfred Copin's 'Talma et la Révolution' (Paris: L. Frinzine & Cie.; New York: F. W. Christern)—the first of three volumes on Talma's life, likely to be both interesting and useful—there is quoted a letter of Regnier's in which he adduces, as evidence of Talma's knowledge of English, the fact that he had in his library at his death a set of "Shakspere's *Aromatic* Works"—as strange a misprint for "Dramatic" as one could well imagine.

Frinzine & Cie., by the way, are now issuing a handsome octavo edition of M. Jules Barbey d'Aurevilly's "Les Œuvres et les Hommes," of which the third volume, 'Sensations d'Histoire,' has just appeared. The preceding volumes were 'Sensations d'Art' and 'Les Critiques, ou les Juges jugés.' The papers of which these volumes are composed have appeared during the last thirty years in various Parisian newspapers, especially the *Constitutionnel*, *Pays*, and *Nain jaune*. Many years ago the first five volumes of the series appeared in a much less luxurious form than the present one, but this original edition has long been out of print, and now the publishers announce a new and enlarged edition of these also, uniform with the three volumes that have recently been issued. The first of these, 'Les Philosophes,' is announced as in preparation. The other volumes to be republished are 'Les Historiens,' 'Les Poètes,' 'Les Romanciers,' 'Les Bas-Bleus.' M. Barbey d'Aurevilly is himself a novelist and a poet as well as a critic. To which of the various categories the new work upon the Middle Ages that he is now preparing belongs, it would be difficult to decide.

A second, "revised and enlarged" edition of Dr. Georg Brandes's 'Moderne Geister: Literarische Bildnisse aus dem Neunzehnten Jahrhundert,' has just been published in Frankfort-on-the-Main. This issue, in addition to the articles upon Paul Heyse, Renan, Flaubert, John Stuart Mill, Hans Christian Andersen, Tegnér, and Björnson, reprinted from the edition of 1882, contains four additional "literary portraits." The essay on the Danish poet Frederik Paludan-Müller has been omitted, for the reason, as stated in the preface, that it can be found by German readers elsewhere, namely, as the introduction to Emma Klingenfeld's translation of the poet's best known work, 'Adam Homo.' Of the chapters added to this edition, the one upon Henrik Ibsen was included in Prof. Anderson's translation, entitled 'Eminent Authors of the Nineteenth Century,' so that to American readers but three chapters, some sixty-eight pages in all, are new. These treat of Max Klinger, Edmond and Jules de Goncourt, and Turgeneff, and, with the article on Ibsen, constitute the latest work of Brandes included in the book, being dated (the first two) 1882 and (the last two) 1883. Readers familiar with Brandes's productiveness need hardly be told that he has since written enough to make several volumes of the size of 'Moderne Geister.'

No. 2, vol. i, of the *Revue Générale du Droit et des Sciences Politiques* (Bucharest), contains an article by Prof. Gneist on the administrative reforms accomplished in Prussia by the legislation of 1872-1876. This series of laws is concerned with local self-government in the Circle and Amtsbezirk (administrative subdivision of the circle). It also treats of the bureaucratic officials in province, district, and circle, in so far as they entertain appeals from, and preside over, the local self-governing organs. This great system originated in the brain of Baron vom Stein, and has been elaborated and carried out by Bismarck—not the least among the many debts that Germany and humanity generally owe him.

—Mr. Henry J. Morgan's 'Annual Register' (Toronto: Hunter, Rose & Co.) for 1885 is not so unpunctual as our notice of it, which, after all, must needs be somewhat perfunctory. To this excellent work every one must turn who wishes a summary review of what is going on across the Canadian border. The great events of 1885 in the Dominion were the Riel rebellion and the completion of the Canadian Pacific Railway; and among the minor happenings are to be noted the smallpox outbreak and fanaticism in Montreal, and the return of the Canadian voyageurs from Wolseley's expedition up the Nile. The chief deaths of the year were those of Riel and of Sir Francis Hincks. Our neighbors were, like ourselves, occupied with the liquor question, with civil-service reform, with restriction of Chinese immigration. In regard to the last, the expedient was adopted of taxing every incoming Chinaman (with certain exceptions) fifty dollars, as recommended recently for all immigrants to this country by a correspondent in these columns. In dread of evils not yet experienced, Parliament assumed its constitutional right to fix the qualifications of Dominion voters, the rule heretofore having been that the voter qualified for State suffrage was thereby entitled to vote for representatives in the Dominion House of Commons. To pass this bill without complications, Sir John Macdonald allowed the provision for female suffrage to be slaughtered, though professing sympathy with it. An *écho de France* is the fate of a bill to punish seduction, which did not get beyond a second reading. It had thrice in former years passed the House, but had been killed in the Senate, where we may suspect the French Canadian influence to predominate. Mr. Morgan's review of literature is this year confined to a bare list of 122 copyrighted works. The Library of Parliament, having grown national in its proportions, was provided by law with two librarians, one general and one especially Parliamentary—a luxury at which we have not yet arrived. The National (alias Protective) Policy may be studied in the debates here reported; the Government eulogizing its workings, and the Opposition lamenting them.

—After nearly two years' delay, the Dunlap Society is at last ready to begin. Its first two publications will be sent to the members in a few days, and the third will follow shortly. It is simply a publication society, all its receipts being spent in books and pamphlets for its subscribers, and these relating to the stage in America. Its first publication will be the comedy of the "Contrast," written by Royall Tyler, afterwards Chief Justice of Vermont, and acted at the John Street Theatre in 1787, just a century ago. It was the first play by a native author which was acted by a professional company, and it contained the first "Yankee part." In his interesting introduction to the present reprint, Mr. McKee shows that the success of a purely American play with American characters was largely instrumental in the change of public opinion about the drama, and in relaxing the laws against the theatre. The second publication of the Society will be "The Father, or American Shandyism," the first comedy of William Dunlap, who was the historian of the American Theatre, and namesake of the Society. "The Father" was the second play by a native author acted by a professional company. The introduction to this is also the work of Mr. McKee, who supplies an outline sketch of Dunlap's career, and an elaborate and much-needed list of Dunlap's plays, with the dates of their writing, performance, and publication. Both of these books have been beautifully printed at the De Vinne Press. They can be had only by members. The annual subscription is five dollars, which may be sent to Mr. Thomas J. McKee, Treasurer, No. 338 Broome Street. As the third publication of the Society, Mr. Laurence Hutton is preparing a collection of the poetic addresses written for the opening of various American theatres during the past century and a quarter. Among the later issues will be Dunlap's "André," edited by Mr. Brander Matthews, with an introduction considering the many other plays on the subject of Arnold's treason. It is in contemplation to issue during the year a volume of 'Transactions,' containing a theatrical bibliography, Mr. Lawrence Barrett's recollections of Charlotte Cushman, etc.

—"The passage in Pliny," writes a correspondent, "to which Mr. Windsor, in No. 1123, was unable to refer for proof that the effect of oil on stormy waters is not a modern discovery, is in 'Historia Naturalis,' book ii, ss. 105. It consists, however, only in four words, namely, 'Omne [mare] oleo tranquillari.' He might have found a better proof-text for his purpose in the 'Natural Questions' of Plutarch. No. 12 in this series is headed, 'When the sea is sprinkled over with oil, why does it become calm?' He asks further, 'Is it, as Aristotle [died 323 B. C.] says, because the winds, slipping on the smooth oil, have no force, nor cause any waves?' He adds, among other things, 'It is to be considered whether the sea which is uneven is compacted and made smooth by the dense oil,' etc., etc. No student of Plutarch will hearken to doubts about the storm-stilling power of oil, based on that opinion's being a novelty. The venerable Bede tells a story in his 'Ecclesiastical History' which may be the earliest historical ground of our phrase concerning storm-soothing oil. His words, in the quaint old version, are these, *verbatim et literatim:* 'A certain priest, when he was sent into Kent, A. D. 651, to fetche Kinge Edwine's daughter to be married to King Oswin, went to Bishop Aida beseeching his prayers, etc. The Bishop blessing them, and committing them to the goodness of God, gave them also hallowed oil, saying, "I know that when you shall have shipping, a tempe-t shall rise upon you sodirnly [*sic*]. But remember that you cast into the sea this oyle that I geue you," etc. All these things were fulfilled. Truly at the beginning of the tempest, when the waues and surges did chiefly rage, the shipmen essayed to cast ancar, but all in vaine. For the whaues multiphied so faste that nothing but present death was looked for In this distress, the priest at the length remembering the bishop's words, took the oyle-pot and did cast of the oyle into the sea; which being done, the sea calmed—and the ship passed on with a most prosperous voyage. No common reporter of uncertain rumors,' Bede adds, 'but a priest of our church, Cynimund by name, shewed me the process of this miracle.' The potencies of oil are traced far back of Bede or Plutarch by Menzel in 'Christian Symbolism.' According to his legendaries, the 'leaf plucked off' which the dove brought in her mouth to Noah was taken from the olive tree, the mother of oil, in pre-established harmony with the magical might of

oil on water. He also intimates that children about one's table are called 'olive plants,' as being peacemakers in conjugal storms, or at least adapted to be."

—Mr. Thomas Sinclair, whose numerous contributions to imaginative literature have been for the most part either ignored or damned without even faint praise by English critics, has found for his last work a German translator who likes him. Toward the close of 1885, Mr. Sinclair published a collection of miscellanies under the name of 'Humanities,' and a part of this book now lies before us in a German version bearing the title 'Humanitätsstudien.' The original was published by Trübner & Co. of London, and the translation bears the imprint of Karl J. Trübner of Strassburg. The translator, Hans Schiffert Müller by name, explains that he was drawn to his author by the "worth of the man, by his [Sinclair's] pure love of beauty, and by the hope of regenerating the nations through the agency of a *neu sich bildende Kunst*," that is, we suppose, through a new Renaissance. This may be a pretty enough programme, but we greatly fear that Mr. Sinclair and his translator combined have accomplished but little toward carrying it out. The former gentleman has as a writer two unfortunate characteristics which will interfere with the success of his doctrine. The first is a lack of lucidity—a literary virtue which may not be absolutely necessary to a crier in the wilderness as such, but is quite indispensable to an evangelist who expects to move the world by an appeal to the æsthetic instinct. The other is a radicalism of view, or at least a violence of statement, which will repel the very people who need to be persuaded. The essay on Humanism, the only really readable portion of the volume before us, has as its burden the now familiar idea that Christianity destroyed a better civilization than it has yet given birth to. Nerva, Trajan, Antoninus, represent higher types of character than the world since their time has produced. "Judaizing Christianity," with its hostility to the beautiful, has been a long calamity to mankind. One of the saddest sights in modern Rome is to see old classical temples, in all their wholesomeness and purity, employed for the barbarous cult of Christianity, and so forth. We have heard all this before, from Heine, from Mlle. de Maupin, from Mr. Swinburne, and others. It is a gospel which offends not only the religious mind (its promulgators of course glory in that), but the scientific mind also. It proceeds upon a one-sided and false view of antiquity, a view very different from that reached by sober and careful scholarship. But how in these days is a great reform to make its way with both religion and science against it?

— A very exciting debate took place at an extra session of the Municipal Council of Milan, on the 29th of December last, upon a proposal to erect a statue to Louis Napoleon in the new square to be opened in the old parade-ground surrounding the arch of triumph built by Napoleon I. In the end the resolution was passed by the large majority of sixty-eight votes to six of the assembled councilmen. The history of this statue is very curious. One of the most memorable events in the progress of the Italian regeneration was when Victor Emanuel and Napoleon III., after having defeated the Austrians in Lombardy, entered, as liberators, the city of Milan, at the head of the allied armies of France and Italy. The enthusiasm of the Milanese for the patriot King and the French Emperor was unbounded. There was nothing they would not have done to testify their joy and gratitude. Almost, had anybody proposed to erect altars and worship the King and the Emperor as divinities, they would have voted it unanimously, as their ancestors the Romans had done to their Emperors. But with regard to Napoleon III. this enthusiasm soon waned away, for, after the victory of Solferino, on his own authority, and without consulting his ally, he signed a treaty of peace at Villafranca, in which, though liberating Lombardy from Austria, he allowed this Power to retain Venice and the fortresses of the quadrilateral. Moreover, he inserted in the treaty a provision that the Grand Duke of Tuscany and the Duke of Modena, who had been expelled from their States, should be restored, and that Bologna, which had rebelled against the power of the Pope, should return to its allegiance; and, further, that a confederacy of all the Italian States should be formed under the "honorary" presidency of the Pope. The news of this treaty caused a painful dismay throughout Italy; Victor Emanuel signed it reluctantly, and Cavour was so indignant that he immediately resigned his premiership, and the King had some difficulty in calming his anger against what he considered the Emperor's duplicity. Louis Napoleon skulked back into France, passing hastily through Milan and Turin under very different auspices from those of his arrival.

— It is no wonder that even the Milanese cooled down considerably in their enthusiasm for Louis Napoleon. Their revulsion of feeling was intensified by his continued occupation of the Roman State to uphold the Pope, and by the defeat of the Garibaldians at Mentana, brought about by his French troops. But when his misfortunes came, with his terrible defeat at Sedan in 1870, a feeling of pity arose in many hearts in Italy, especially in Milan, where the people who had been oppressed by a foreign tyranny for nearly half a century could not forget the debt which they owed to the Emperor and the French army; and when, three years after, came the news of his death, the Milanese felt the old enthusiasm and sense of gratitude revive. A committee of citizens was formed for a public subscription to raise a statue to him, as to one who had contributed to liberate Lombardy from the Austrians. It was soon collected, and many eminent names appeared in the list of contributors, even among those whom one would have supposed hostile to it—for example, Gen. Sirtori, who had been Garibaldi's chief of staff in most of his campaigns. In a letter in which he defended his action against the attacks of some Radicals who accused him of inconsistency in his political principles, he stated that his act had no political meaning whatever; that it was merely one of gratitude—gratitude towards a man who might be reproached with many grave errors and wrongdoings, but to whom gratitude was certainly due for the part he took on that special occasion. The statue was ordered and finished, and is said to be a superb work of art; but when the question arose as to its being accepted by the city and erected in some public square, such strong opposition was manifested by the Radicals and *irredenti* that the Committee decided to let it remain where it had been exhibited, and where it still is. In this last session, however, most of the city Councilmen were known to be in favor of its acceptance and erection in a public place. The Mayor, who was a strong partisan of the project, brought the matter up, taking advantage of the improvements about to be made in the old parade-ground, and the proposition was voted by the large majority stated above.

—The new volume of 'Ersch and Gruber's Encyklopädie' is the thirty-ninth of the second section, and extends from Koeppen to Kriegk, being the eighth devoted to the letter K. Like its predecessors, it contains many titles which will be looked for in vain in any other encyclopædia, with the possible exception of Larousse's "Grand Dictionnaire." Among these may be mentioned the following, which do not appear at all in the 'Britannica': Peter von Köppen, Russian archæologist, and ethnographer, 1793–1864, occupying five pages—(this title occurs in 'Appleton's American Cyclopædia'); Korah (two pages, by Kautsch); Kordax, a dance of the older Greek comedy; Korórofa, a kingdom of Central Africa, mentioned in the second volume of Barth's travels, and visited by Robert Flegel in 1879 and 1882; and several others, some of which, however, are the names of German savants whom one would hardly expect to find in any but a German book. The article on the Copts occupies a page and a half in the 'Britannica' and five pages in 'Appleton's'; in 'Ersch and Gruber' there are twenty-four pages, of which ten are devoted to history, etc., twelve to language and literature—these two articles being by Ludwig Stern—and a third article of two pages, by another writer, on the Coptic Church. The article on the Koran covers nine pages, about the same space devoted to it by Nöldeke in the 'Britannica,' but does not treat of the position of the Koran in the dogma of Islam, or of its influence on the development of Mohammedan literature and science, referring for these topics to the article Mohammedanism, not yet published. It produces an almost odd effect to find in so learned a dissertation the following passage: "In Mecca Mohammed was a plebeian whose persistence occasionally became burdensome to the public, as does the shouting of the Salvation Army to the citizens of London, and whose personal history and activity among his adherents produced no deeper impression on the masses than the doings of 'General' Booth in the bosom of his 'Army.'" Other long articles are Cossacks, eleven pages; Kosegarten, ten pages; Kotzebue, nine pages, while Koerner has only four and a half; Corinthians (Epistles to the), eight pages; Crusades, fourteen pages. As indicating versatility may be mentioned articles on the Crossing of Breeds in Animals and Plants, on Cranes (derricks), three pages, and particularly one on Cosmetics, which would not be looked for in a work of erudition. It extends to three pages, and gives practical instructions for preventing baldness, removing dandruff, caring for the teeth, etc. An article of six pages is assigned to Humboldt's 'Kosmos,' and one of eight pages to War, the latter enumerating six causes of war, much as *Touchstone* mentions the seven degrees of the lie, to wit, "the Retort courteous, the Quip modest, the Reply churlish, the Reproof valiant, the Countercheck quarrelsome, the Lie with circumstance, the Lie direct."

McCLELLAN'S OWN STORY.—II.

McClellan's Own Story. The War for the Union, the Soldiers who fought it, the Civilians who directed it, and his relations to it and to them. By George B. McClellan, late Major-General commanding the armies. 8vo, pp. 678. New York: Charles L. Webster & Co. 1887.

In regard to his relations to Secretary Stanton, who is the *bête noire* of the story, the new matter of the volume has value—both that written by McClellan for publication and the correspondence added by his editor. In substance it is, that soon after reaching Washington he was introduced to Stanton, who was then a private citizen, as "a safe adviser on legal points," though what need he had of such advice, unless from the Attorney-General of the United States, is not clear. Stanton "did his best to ingratiate himself with me, and professed the warmest friendship and devotion. . . . The most disagreeable thing about him was the extreme virulence with which he abused the President, the Administration, and

the Republican party. . . . He never spoke of the President in any other way than as the 'original gorilla.' . . . At some time during the autumn of 1861, Secretary Cameron made quite an abolition speech to some newly arrived regiments. Next day Stanton urged me to arrest him for inciting to insubordination. He often advocated the propriety of my seizing the Government and taking affairs into my own hands" (p. 152). Under date of November 17, his private correspondence shows that he goes "to Stanton's to ascertain what the law of nations is on this Slidell and Mason seizure" (p. 175). In the same letter he says he must "devote the day to getting our Government to take the only prompt and honorable course of avoiding a war with England and France," and declares himself "heavy at heart when I see the weakness and unfitness of the poor beings who control the destinies of this great country." It was a few days later that he was "concealed at Stanton's" to escape "'browsing Presidents,' etc.," noticed above. During McClellan's illness in December he learned from Stanton that the President, who had been denied access to the General, had committed to McDowell, Franklin, and Meigs the duty of inquiring into the state of the army, and what should be done if McClellan were to die. He says that Stanton put it, "They are counting on your death, and are already dividing among themselves your military goods and chattels" (p. 155). It was from Stanton that he got the information that the President and Cabinet were to hear the report of the three generals on January 12, and he "mustered strength enough to be driven to the White House, where my unexpected appearance caused very much the effect of a shell in a powder magazine. It was very clear, from the manner of those I met there, that there was something of which they were ashamed" (p. 156).

Diverging for a moment from the thread of the relations between Stanton and McClellan, it is necessary to note the extraordinary frame of mind which the last statement indicates. He had been ill for some three weeks—so ill that, although he professes to have directed business from his sick-bed, "it more than once happened" (as he himself says) that the President called and was "denied admittance" (p. 155). He also does not deny that his leading generals were ignorant of his plans, if he had any. When an officer is so ill, in time of war, that the Commander-in-Chief is denied admittance to him, it would require no apology and give no cause for being "ashamed," but, on the other hand, would have been the most ordinary and simple exercise of right, to have turned over the command to the next in seniority. It was widely believed at the time that the illness was exaggerated, and that the denying admittance to the President was an affront for which the sickness was a pretext rather than a reason. If, though it happened "more than once," it had been really due to the accident that the General was asleep after "intervals of wakefulness" when the President called in person at his house, it can hardly need to be said that the imperative duty of the General was to see that a very prompt opportunity was offered for an interview at the earliest moment at which he was fit for any business whatever. There is no pretence that this was done, and the revelation that Mr. Stanton found no such difficulty in reaching him does not help to clear up this period of McClellan's personal history. So far as it goes, it supports the old accusation that he took refuge in seclusion to escape pressure to act.

But to return: Stanton was nominated Secretary of War the day after the events last spoken of. McClellan says that Stanton immediately called upon him to confer with him as to its acceptance. He (Stanton) said "that the only possible inducement would be that he might have it in his power to aid me in the work of putting down the rebellion; that he was willing to devote all his time, intellect, and energy to my assistance, and that together we could soon bring the war to an end. If I wished him to accept he would do so, but only on my account; that he had come to know my wishes and to determine accordingly. I told him that I hoped he would accept the position" (p. 153). In his letter to Stanton himself, under date of July 8, 1862, McClellan uses stronger language, and says: "When you were appointed Secretary of War I considered you my intimate friend and confidential adviser. Of all men in the nation, you were my choice for that position" (p. 477). The disclosure of Stanton's previous attitude to the Administration and to Mr. Lincoln personally, if correct, raises the troublesome question how McClellan could, consistently with his loyalty to the President, either have made Stanton his confidential adviser previously, or favored his assuming the confidential relation of Cabinet officer to Mr. Lincoln. If he had really advised McClellan to make a *coup d'état* and seize the Government, as the General says he had "often" done, to make him Secretary of War when renewing assurances of personal devotion has too ugly a suggestion of willingness to coöperate illegally, and McClellan, in making such a statement, starts more perilous problems than he solves. Assuming that it was only wild talk (McClellan calls them "ebullitions of an intense and patriotic nature"), we cannot help asking if this was fair dealing with Lincoln? We have not the space, nor are we now concerned, to examine Mr. Stanton's side of the controversy. McClellan credits him with being consistent in declaring his wish to put down the rebellion at any cost, and implies that the "patriotic" idea of a *coup d'état* was thought of as tending to that end. The idea was not unfamiliar to him. As early as August 9, the time of his first "row" with Scott, he writes that he "receives letter after letter, has conversation after conversation, calling on me to save the nation, alluding to the Presidency, dictatorship, etc." Although he earnestly disclaims such an aspiration, he adds: "I would cheerfully take the dictatorship and agree to lay down my life when the country is saved" (p. 85). If Mr. Lincoln had known of this, no doubt he would have said to McClellan, as he did afterwards to Hooker, that if he would crush the rebellion he would take the risk of the dictatorship. Perhaps Lincoln knew more than the General thought, and it is barely possible that a painful interview between them, narrated on page 196, concerning "a very ugly matter," may have been connected with such knowledge; and he who listened to "conversation after conversation" suggesting treason could hardly be surprised when Mr. Lincoln used the word in connection with things attributed to him.

We are told that Stanton's manner changed immediately after he became Secretary of War, and McClellan concludes that it was because he had all along been in secret alliance with "the radicals," who "were unwilling that I should be successful." It is possible for those less prejudiced to think that when Mr. Stanton officially learned the extent to which the resources of the country had been put at McClellan's disposal, he, too, went through the process of disillusion which so many have undergone before and since. McClellan's editor supplements the charge of duplicity against Stanton by contrasting the Secretary's letter of July 5, 1862, at the close of the "seven days' battles," assuring the General of his real friendship and of his ardent desire that he may be victorious, with the statements of Secretaries Welles and Chase as to his hostility. Unfortunately, such contrasts were not confined to Stanton's side of the matter. In reply to the letter mentioned above, McClellan wrote to Stanton on July 8, saying, among other things: "It is with a feeling of great relief that I now say to you that I shall at once resume, on my part, the same cordial confidence which once characterized our intercourse" (p. 478); yet only five days thereafter he writes to his wife: "So you want to know how I feel about Stanton, and what I think of him now? I think . . . [asterisks in the text]. I may do the man injustice. God grant that I may be wrong! For I hate to think that humanity can sink so low. But my opinion is just as I have told you. He deceived me once; he never will again. . . . I now know you were right. Enough of the creature" (p. 447). As the editor selected and printed the above, and also wrote the note accusing Stanton of "private treason to a general in the field," is it not possible that the same leniency which does not find duplicity in the letters of July 8 and 13 might cover the Secretary with the same mantle of charity? And will not one who thoughtfully reads the whole story of McClellan's relations to both Lincoln and Stanton in his own narrative, as well as in the private correspondence which the editor has, discreetly or indiscreetly, added, find that he, at least, was living in a "glass house"?

There is abundant proof that Mr. Lincoln did his own thinking, and that, in this matter of the policy of the war, McClellan was dealing with him personally. It was he who criticised the General's plan of sailing to the peninsula, and pointed out the fact "that going down the bay in search of a field, instead of fighting at or near Manassas, was only shifting and not surmounting a difficulty; that we should find the same enemy and the same or equal entrenchments at either place" (p. 277). The letters of Lincoln show a clear and sound judgment on military matters in nearly every particular, and he made no error at all comparable with the fatal one by which the professional General multiplied his enemy at every juncture. It was McClellan who failed to take account of the fact that, even by the much-abused "Cram map," a line of four miles would connect Yorktown with the affluents of the James. It was he who failed to reckon upon the probability that the Confederates would entrench such a line in advance, when in fact they made three such lines, by either of which McClellan was as completely "bottled" as Butler at Bermuda Hundreds. It was he who declared the roads on the peninsula were passable at all seasons, when he found them impassable as soon as he arrived there. It was he who argued that on that line his right would be secure, when his communications were forcibly cut on that flank and the terrible "seven days" began in that way.

The criticism of Mr. Lincoln for recalling McDowell when Jackson appeared in the Shenandoah would have been just if he could have relied upon McClellan's activity and "push." But he could not do this in the face of his experience of the previous year, and the event showed that Lee could occupy McClellan with a much inferior force, while a detachment under Jackson was striking telling and distant blows. But besides all this, there remains the stubborn fact, which his 'Own Story' does not attempt to meet, that his army and his resources were still superior to his enemy, and that he was baffled by his own imagination, which continued to magnify his opponents.

Perhaps the most painful thing in this volume to those who once made Gen. McClellan their idol, is to see the revelation of blinding self-esteem which it exhibits. Neither in the state nor in the army does he find one man capable of guiding affairs. The country is ruled by rogues and incapables, and at the Chickahominy he de-

clares that "it would be utter destruction to this army were I to be disabled so as not to be able to take command." McDowell, Halleck, Burnside, and Pope, as they by force of circumstances became his rivals, are stupid, dishonest, incompetent. He has some praise for a few of the regular officers who had been devoted followers of himself, or had been far removed from his sphere, but this is all. He has no word of recognition for the military achievements of Grant or Sherman or Sheridan.

Yet the army was devoted to him—so devoted that it was unjustly thought they would tolerate no other commander, and might mutiny if he were supplanted. Their enthusiasm for him was an advantage which determined his last appointment to command. There were several reasons for this—some of them good, some of them not so good. From headquarters the belief pervaded that great army that the skill of their commander saved them in conflicts against overwhelming odds, and had preserved them from being precipitated against a hundred and fifty thousand foes entrenched at Manassas. If they had known the truth as the pitiless pen of history is now picturing it, would they have been so enthusiastic? Would they have thought it a glory to have made good their retreat from the Chickahominy to the James, if they had known that by far the greater part of the enemy was engaged with Porter's single corps at Gaines's Mill? They took their commander at his word, and honestly believed that his genius had made them at least partly successful in a struggle of one against three or four, and that hardly "Father Abraham" had been just in estimating the odds opposed to them. A philosopher has said that "the sense of impossibility quenches all will," and the army was persistently and scientifically indoctrinated with the conviction that they were assigned to a task nearly if not quite beyond their physical powers. Braver men, better soldiers were never seen, and if there is any lack of the full accomplishment they were capable of, their commanders must bear the blame, and each of these in turn received the fatal legacy of a weak *morale* growing out of a false theory of the facts. For twenty years friend and foe have alike challenged the first commander of that army to justify his assertion that his enemy was multifold his superior in force. He has answered, and his answer is the silence on this point which is confession. To the soldiers who followed him is bequeathed the sad duty of doing justice to the Administration of Lincoln, and of readjusting the account of praise and blame, of glory and of humiliation.

GHIBERTI.

Ghiberti et son école. Par Charles C. Perkins. Paris: Jules Rouam. 1886.

LIKE previous works of the late lamented historian of the arts of Tuscany, this exhaustive monograph, on one of the most original of the Renaissance artists, is rather to be noted for its patient and thorough research, its compendious assimilation of the art studies of other authorities and its catholic appreciation, than for critical acumen or originality. It gives us all the material which exists for completing our idea of Ghiberti as a figure of his epoch and in his relations with his fellow-artists, but we shall look in it in vain for any luminous or original expression of the character of his art, or for subtle distinctions of artistic qualities in that of his epoch. Generous and comprehensive, even enthusiastic, as an amateur of the arts, Mr. Perkins somehow misses in his commentary the fundamental divisions which separate the vital and immortal manifestations of art from the emulations and semblances which the former always develop. His judgments never failed from want of research, but rather from want of fine discrimination between the considerations presented to him.

That with regard to Ghiberti Mr. Perkins was at a loss to form a definite and satisfactory estimate, is shown by his perplexity as to the artist's relation to the antique. It appears clearly enough, from the ensemble of the documents presented, that Ghiberti was sufficiently acquainted with antique sculpture to have undergone its influence as completely as any of his contemporaries; and his having been so slightly influenced as he was, according to Mr. Perkins, should have pointed directly to the cause in the limitations of his artistic faculties. Says the author:

"The field of observation being so restrained for Ghiberti, the influence of the antique, which shows itself in his 'Isaac,' is so much the more remarkable that this influence, which began to show itself so early, and which made him later one of the best connoisseurs and most famous collectors of his epoch, never incited him to treat classical subjects, nor to work in the Greco-Roman style. There is in this an enigma which is not easy to solve; and what surprises us still more is, that the antique had not sufficient influence on him to prevent the kind of picturesque debauch (*débauche pittoresque*) which characterizes his second manner. In fact, he seems there to ignore completely the natural limitations of sculpture which the ancients have always respected with such scrupulous care."

Now, nothing is clearer, among the comparisons which a wide study of art develops, than that which is here so nearly touched and yet missed. Ghiberti was not influenced more by Greek art for the simple reason that that art is one of ideals, of types, and Ghiberti had no sympathy with types. If we take the best Greek work in which there is any departure from the typical tendency and an attempt to tell a story, we must confess that the attempt is very lame—the pediments of the Parthenon not excepted, which, magnificent as are their broken fragments even, can have only been, in their most perfect state, a collection of types, very unsatisfactorily expressing the event they commemorated. Now, in none of Ghiberti's single statues is this study of type noticeable, but, on the contrary, the effort to develop the story-telling side of art. He had far more sympathy with Gothic art, which is primarily decorative (and by this alone kept within the limits of true art), and thus with the narrative-literary, as we might now call it. Naturally, as artist, he must have felt the supreme qualities of Greek sculpture, so far as its technique went; but there is nothing in his own art to show that he had any appreciation of what is the vital quality of the pure Greek art, the subjective development of types of beauty. Ghiberti was essentially modern in all his tendencies and achievements, and consequently without any root of sympathy with the motives of Greek art, however much he may have admired its technical triumphs.

The enigma which our author finds so difficult to solve ought to be no enigma at all—we see it repeated again and again in Veronese, in Rembrandt, wherever in art the decorative element dominated the ideal. We are disposed, besides, to differ with the author, though with less positiveness, in what he says of Ghiberti's work as that of a painter-sculptor—an idea which, however, he shows (p. 57) was not original with him, but due to Rumohr:

"In his first manner, such as it appears in his 'Sacrifice of Abraham' and in the bas-reliefs of the first door of the Baptistery, Ghiberti is much less painter-sculptor than in the second door, made after linear perspective, codified for the use of artists by Brunelleschi, had placed at his disposal resources until then unknown. Let us say, however, that the author of the doors worked as a painter from the beginning as much as was possible without the aid of perspective. In his bas-reliefs, in fact, he used landscape as background for his figures, and gave to these a peculiar lightness and flexibility (*plasticité*), calculating his shadows as an essential element of the effect sought for."

This is, while cognizant of certain distinctive qualities of the artist's work, and suggestive of their significance, not so close to the truth as not to be misleading. Ghiberti was not so much a painter-sculptor as a decorative sculptor. The general effect of his work as decoration was of vital importance; the particular value or perfection of parts, of very little. And with all due deference to any judgment differing from ours, we always have felt in presence of the gates of the Baptistery that the ornamental work *par excellence*, the borders and medallions of the first door, show a happier feeling and a more complete art than the more ambitious and intellectual subject bas-reliefs. But it is not the feeling of the painter, and perhaps if Mr. Perkins had been asked to define more clearly what he meant by painter-sculptor, and had not been misled by Rumohr, he would have said "designer in relief," for it is this character of designer in the more modern sense of the word—the decorative designer more distinctly—which distinguishes Ghiberti among his contemporaries. But so far from admitting that the term painter-sculptor was one which defined the quality of the artist, we should be disposed to say that it was owing to a deficiency of feeling for the aims of the painter and the charms of color, that his powers over relief were so subtle and remarkable. No just nomenclature of art will admit the use of the word "painter" where it is clear that the palette has no place and the resources of the artist are precisely those which dispense with color, as is the case in the work of Ghiberti.

Mr. Perkins traces the influences of prior art which had fallen on Ghiberti, but we apprehend that he carries too far complaisance to a certain worship of Dante which is much in vogue with the admirers of the art and thought of the Middle Ages, when he reckons him as the inspirer of Ghiberti.

"After having spoken of technique, let us consider the style of Ghiberti, which is that of an epoch already in part freed from the control of theology. Symbolism, allegory, convention, tradition, formulas, in fact, are no longer required; the artist enters into more direct relations with his epoch, he works under the double inspiration of nature and the antique. He owes his emancipation especially to the great poet of the 'Divine Comedy,' who, while solving in terms of the Middle Ages the problems which preoccupy him, does not lose sight for an instant of humanity and the real world."

This seems to us strained and inconsequent. That a culture which has vital causes in the spirit of its epoch should awaken the artist to efforts analogous to those of the writer, is most natural and probably of continual occurrence; but that there is any distinct relation between any form of literary work and the style or purely artistic side of the artist's work, we are disposed to deny entirely. The literary causes which enter into the character of a work of art, as distinguished from the purely pictorial, are always of inferior vitality; and, *where they dominate*, the art is always an inferior art. Not only is the picture which owes its effect to the story which it illustrates of a lower art, but the style which imitates or emulates literary qualities is invariably an artificial one, and, when its fashion is past, is sure to be consigned to the limbo of abortions. Dante might furnish subjects to Giotto or to Michael Angelo or Doré, but to suppose that he had any influence on the style of his illustrator is to go outside the capabilities of true art. Nor is it clear how the poet can affect the style of the artist, since they deal with elements the analogies between which are so remote that the translation is almost inconceivable. No more do the themes of Ghiberti or his contemporaries borrow their

vitality from the 'Commedia.' The mediæval hell was not invented by Dante, but was accepted by him as it was, and, as was the religion of his time, as a mélange of paganism and a doctrine of a hopeful and progressive immortality. If Dante had invented his Inferno, no one in his time would have believed in him or it. To say, therefore, that painters were influenced by Dante because they painted the Inferno, is a most insufficient reasoning; and our author's dictum is one which could not occur to an art critic pure and simple—it borrows reasons from literature, which are always fallacious.

It is a refinement of critical acumen which makes Ghiberti's work so superior to that of other sculptors in his vein. As decorative ensemble, no doubt they are the most remarkable of their kind in existence, and Michael Angelo's hyperbolical commendation has done as much for them as their real merits; but as sculptor and in statuary he may easily be overrated, and, in fact, it seems to us that the very limitations of his genius were the cause of his remarkable success in what must, after all, be accepted as a secondary work of sculpture.

It seems to us unfortunate that Mr. Perkins had not (if he has not) written his work in English, because his French does not compensate for his native language: it reads heavily. But, to cease fault-finding, which is the reviewer's chief business, we must render complete homage to the thoroughness of the work done by Mr. Perkins in the collation and weaving into one of the most interesting of art biographies the materials for Ghiberti's life. The publisher's part is ill done—the illustrations are in the worst vein of process work, and most unworthy the book or any illustrated book in this day of perfected processes. An American publisher of good standing would be ashamed to furnish so important a book with a so poor artistic outfit.

SOME RECENT WORKS ON ETYMOLOGY.

Précis de Grammaire historique de la langue française. Par Ferdinand Brunot. Paris: G. Masson; New York: F. W. Christern. 1887. Pp. 692.

Dictionnaire étymologique. Par L. Pourret. Paris: A. Fourant; New York: F. W. Christern. 1886. Pp. 520.

An Etymological Dictionary of the French Language. By A. Brachet, translated by G. W. Kitchin. 3d edition. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1882. Pp. 407.

The Life of Words as the Symbols of Ideas. By Arsène Darmesteter. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co. 1886. Pp. 173.

M. BRUNOT'S 'Grammaire historique' is much more ambitious than the analogous work published by M. Brachet twenty years ago. As the latter and his able translator, Mr. Kitchin, have not kept the older publication up to the requirements of modern science, it is natural that it should be superseded and surpassed. It may be doubted, however, whether the time has even now come when a complete French historical grammar can be written. There is as yet too little unanimity among the specialists of this branch of learning. The simplest forms give rise to too many contradictory statements. A single example may serve to show how much uncertainty yet exists in regard to the derivation of the commonest words. It is not necessary to look in very old French grammars to find the word *oui*, yes, explained as being the past participle of the verb *ouïr*, to hear. Then came the more logical and historical explanation, which accounts for the old form of the word, *oïl*, deriving it from *hoc illud*. This is probably accepted now by 99 per cent. of those who, without being specially etymologists, have generally correct ideas on French derivations. But of very late years the learned in phonetic changes have proved by analogy that the words *hoc illud* could never have given *oïl*, but only *oël*, so that one of them proposes as a solution the words *hoc illic* as the original of *oïl*. This etymology, for reasons which it would be pedantic to develop here, satisfies all the laws of letter changes from Latin to French. M. Clédat, in his 'Grammaire élémentaire de la vieille langue française,' already noticed in the *Nation*, rather shirks the question, although lately, in his edition of the 'Song of Roland,' he proposes *o* (Lat. *hoc*) and the personal pronoun *il*. In this M. Brunot follows him; so that, according to him, the answers to the questions, "Do you go?" "Does he go?" would have been *o je* and *o il*, as the answer to "Do we go?" would have been *o nous; o il* taking later the place of all the other forms. Hence, in view of all these newly discovered "belles choses," the professional etymologist must feel like exclaiming with Molière's *Madelon:* "Si l'on ignore ces choses, je ne donnerais pas un clou de tout l'esprit qu'on peut avoir."

M. Brunot is familiar with the latest researches, though in this elementary book he wisely gives only the results. After a very clear chapter on the general history of the French language, he devotes ninety pages to the now all-important branch, phonetics. But the main portion of the work is occupied with the forms and the syntax of the language. As to the syntax, scarcely anything good is to be found in former elementary historical grammars. M. Brunot has tried to do more than his predecessors, and in many cases has succeeded. The comparatively full treatment of the moods and tenses is especially to be noted. The book has a very complete table of contents, which, however, does not quite make up for the absence of an index.

The long sub-title of M. L. Pourret's work will do more than any analysis to give an idea of the author's intentions: "Vocabulaire des racines et des dérivés de la langue française, précédé de notions générales sur l'étymologie et la dérivation, à l'usage de tous les établissements d'instruction." This promises much, but the execution is not equal to the promise. The etymologies given are often more confusing than instructive, since they are seldom explained. The book is a typographical curiosity, being printed in two colors, red and black. The black is for the French words and the etymologies attributed to them; the red for the primitives, which are given mixed in with the French words, just as they come, in alphabetical order. Thus, after *fétu*, in black, we have in red "*Fetwa*, ARABE: *fetfa*," which might be puzzling even to pupils who had gone beyond the *établissements d'éducation*. Thus, again, in one column, besides the French words, we find: *hedera*, Latin; *hedjra*, Arabic; *hedra*, Greek: *heester*, Flemish; *hei*, Dutch; *heigero*, Old-High German; *heis*, Greek; etc. The author has evidently taken great pains to obtain a very meagre result.

The 'Etymological Dictionary' of M. Brachet, translated by Mr. Kitchin, received a long notice in the *Nation* when the first edition appeared in 1873. The second edition, in 1878, was a very great improvement on the first. The third edition does not differ materially from the second. It is but fair, in a notice of works on French etymologies, to recall this excellent book, one of the best printed by the Oxford Clarendon Press (New York: Macmillan). The 'Etymological Dictionary,' as improved by the translator, is far superior to the original work of M. Brachet, of which a very large number of editions have been issued with no material changes, though many are needed.

There has long been a promise of a French dictionary by MM. Darmesteter and Hatzfeld. In this we may expect, judging from the previous works of the authors, not only a careful presentation of the derivations, but also a logical classification of the meanings in the order of their development. The Dictionary is announced as in the press in the last work of M. Darmesteter, 'The Life of Words as the Symbols of Ideas.' The author delivered in London last year a short course of lectures which have been translated from the manuscript, as they have not yet been published in French. He says modestly in his preface that his book deals "almost exclusively" with that language. This is true as to the selection of examples only, for, while not addressing specialists, he touches with a light and graceful hand upon the very deepest general questions. His little book is very suggestive. Linguistic points thus treated, thus artistically presented and classed, may excite interest in the daintiest of readers. There are scattered throughout the work pages of exquisite beauty. Where all is so logically connected, it is difficult to quote, but a passage like the following may serve to indicate the general tone, where examples and diagrams are not made to teach the necessary lesson:

"A whole world of vague impressions, of indistinct sensations, live in the unconscious depths of our own thoughts, a sort of obscure dream which each of us carries in him. But words, rough interpreters of these inner worlds, allow only an infinitely small part of them to appear externally, those which are the most apparent and the most easily seized, and these are received by the listener, who in his turn gives to them the various fugitive and shifting aspects with which the basis of his own imagination furnishes him. . . . Thus each of us bears about with him a world of ideas and thoughts which remain in the subjective state, and which he is almost powerless to convey to others."

It would be misleading not to state that a great portion of the book is made up of examples often repeated. It deals less with general assertions than with a few (never exhaustive) details. The translation reads well, though fault might be found with the renderings of a few idioms. Thus: *Triste comme un bonnet de nuit sans coiffe* is rendered, "As melancholy as a nightcap without a tassel." Now, *coiffe* never meant *tassel*, and as *sans coiffe* (now always omitted) is what explains the queer expression *triste comme un bonnet de nuit*, the translator's version is misleading. The phrase may be found explained in Littré under *coiffe*. In conclusion it may be said that the impression left by M. Darmesteter's 'Life of Words' is that language is eminently a living organism, subject to the same laws as all organic life. If those who are trying to fetter thought in *Volapuk* or other conventional strait-jackets would but understand this, they might see the futility of their efforts.

'Le Démonstratif ILLE et le Relatif QUI en roman' (Paris, Vieweg) is a short essay by M. Darmesteter, in which he clearly and learnedly establishes the fact that the hitherto unsatisfactorily explained French *lui* was formed by analogy under the influence of the relative *cui*.

THE LATEST YEAR BOOKS.

Year Books of the Reign of King Edward the Third. Years 13 and 14. Edited and translated by Luke Owen Pike, M.A., of Lincoln's Inn, Barrister-at-Law, author of 'A History of Crime in England.' London: Longmans & Co. 1886.

A YEAR and a half ago we gave some account of the translated new Year Books of the twelfth and thirteenth of Edward III., then lately published under the editorship of Mr. L. O. Pike. The gap in the old black-letter volumes, between the tenth and seventeenth years, is now still further re-

duced. Another volume has appeared, containing the reports of the thirteenth and fourteenth years of the same king, beginning with the Michaelmas (October–November) term of 1339, and ending with the next or Hilary term (January-February), 1339-1340. Edward's regnal year began with January 25. This volume is marked by the same excellent qualities that characterized the last one—the same comparison of various texts (more than seven in the case of this volume), the same occasional reproduction of a second report, and especially by the same careful collation with the original records. "Not only," says the editor, "are the references to the records in the present volume more numerous [than in the last one], but they must very nearly exhaust the possibilities of identification." No one who has not inspected the great and almost unsearchable bulk of these records can justly tell what labor this has involved on the part of the editor; it is very great. One fact we are glad to learn—that the Year Books have reported nearly all of the most important cases: "The Year Books are, in fact, to those who know how to use them, the most perfect guides to almost all that is most important in the rolls."

The editor confirms, by all he says and does, the opinion, which is growing in this country, no less than in England, that the old printed Year Books should be reëdited. It is gratifying to learn, from various sources, that this important task is likely to be undertaken before long. The idle and shallow opinion that the Year Books are obsolete and useless, is fast passing away. To legal students who would be thoroughly grounded, they are invaluable; and it is certain that a new, translated, and thoroughly edited set of the old Year Books, with all gaps supplied and the text brought into relation with the records and with the newly printed volumes, will be heartily welcomed by many persons on this side of the water, no less than on the other. There can be no doubt that in such scholars as Mr. Pike and Mr. Maitland, England has men that are fit for the task.

In this volume, as in the last, there is interesting matter touching the early infiltration of equitable principles into the common-law courts; especially in the case of Staunton vs. Staunton and wife (pp. 16-37), and Uppecote's case (pp. 83-98), and in the editor's comments on these cases at pp. xxxvi-xlvi. He remarks upon the uniformity given to the administration of justice by the constant supervision of the King in Council; and by the fact that a case brought in a common-law court might be carried into the Chancery at almost any stage. The system was

"that of proceeding by established forms so long as they sufficed, and of assistance from the authority to which they originally owed their existence where they sufficed no longer. . . . The unity of principle which is thus discernible may perhaps afford some assistance towards the comprehension of a very remarkable observation made by Stonore [C. J. of the Com. Pleas] in Uppecote's case. He said . . . : 'We see, on the one hand, that, according to good conscience and the law of God, it would be contrary to what is right (or reasonable), if the plaintiff speaks the truth, that by such a fine which is void he should be disinherited; and on the other hand, it is a strong measure, having regard to the law of the land, to take an averment which may annul the fine; wherefore we wish well to consider it.' The point in dispute was, like that in Staunton's case, the admissibility or otherwise of an averment relating to a fine, and one which presented an unforeseen difficulty. It is not impossible that Stonore's hesitation may have been caused in part by the decision of the Council in Staunton's case. In both cases he was clearly of opinion (though in Staunton's case the Council decided otherwise) that the averment was inadmissible in law; but in Uppecote's case he thought that in conscience or equity it should be admitted. It is not certain that he had any intention of applying the principles of conscience or equity in the Court of Common Pleas, but he may have thought that if this point were taken before the Council which listened to appeals for justice 'pur dieu' (made as for God's sake), the decision might be the same as in Staunton's case, and he may have taken time to consider whether he would follow that decision as one which did substantial justice, or act on his own opinion as to the strict law."

The learned reader will recall other cases in the Year Books that illustrate the same topic, *e. g.*, a case in Y. B. 39 Ed. 3. 35. A, where in strictness the plaintiff was entitled to judgment, but the court suspected some practice on the plaintiff's part and made an examination of the defendants, which tended to confirm their suspicions. The plaintiff insisted upon his right to judgment, but the Chief Justice refused, saying:

"The manner in which it is done is suspicious and 'vicious,' and in a like case of Giles Blaket it was spoken of (*parle*) in Parliament, and we were directed that when any such case came before us and we could see any *vitiosite*, we were not to proceed to judgment without good advisement; *car il soit malveis ensample*. Wherefore sue to the Council; and as they wish that we should do we will do; and otherwise we will do nothing in this case."

Mr. Pike has interesting remarks and suggestions on the puzzling topics of the *secta* and the early jury, and the way in which witnesses may have been used with the jury. "Upon the whole," he says, "it seems a reasonable inference that at the period of the reports in the present volumes there had not come into existence any trial by jury in the modern sense, any hearing by the jury of oral evidence given in court upon oath as a preliminary to their verdict." In the note on p. liii there is an error in the citation of the important case of Y. B. 17 Ed. 3. 48, pl. 14: both year and page are wrongly given. The editor's interesting speculations as to the custom of inserting in counts and declarations the names of witnesses who were never examined, might perhaps be illustrated by the practice, of which there are traces in the Year Books, of mentioning in the counsel's address to the jury the names of witnesses who were not examined.

In these Year Books, as in others, there are matters of a more general interest. The editor remarks upon the replication, in a certain action of Waste, that whitethorn is a tree upon which a graft can be made: "There is not, from a modern point of view, anything very remarkable in the statement, as it is well known that the whitethorn is used for grafting purposes. But it is not by any means so well known that fruit was cultivated with so much skill in the first half of the fourteenth century." The early history of surnames is another subject which is illustrated here. In the case of the Abbot of Glastonbury vs. Sir Richard Pyke, it is said: "idem Ricardus et Thomas Richardsheyward Pyke attachiati fuerunt ad respondendum." The editor adds: "It is hardly necessary to say that 'Thomas Richardsheyward Pyke' is not an instance in which two baptismal names stand before a surname. . . . It may not, perhaps, be equally apparent that this Thomas had no surname at all. Thomas Richardsheyward Pyke is, however, in all probability, only an idiomatic expression which might be rendered in modern English, Thomas, the hayward of Richard Pyke. This is not a mere conjecture, but an inference founded on many similar instances. . . . The custom prevailed throughout the length and breadth of the land" Another instance is given from the record of a case in this volume, and two more from certain Durham records:—Edward, servant of John de Chiltern appears as Edward Jonesservant of Chiltern; William, servant of William Litster of Gateshead, as William Williamservant Litster of Gateshead; and Nicholas, servant of Robert of the Woghes, as Nicholas Robertservant of the Woghes. "The only reasonable explanation of the formula seems to be that at a time when family names were not very definitely fixed, even throughout the whole of the higher ranks, persons in the lowest ranks had no family names and no surnames of their own at all."

Mr. Pike announces in his preface, dated in August last, that the material "is in a forward state of preparation as far as the end of the sixteenth year of the reign." We may hope, therefore, to see before long another volume of his scholarly and thoroughly good work.

THAYER'S GREEK ENGLISH LEXICON OF THE NEW TESTAMENT.

A Greek-English Lexicon of the New Testament; being Grimm's Wilke's Clavis Novi Testamenti, Translated, Revised, and Enlarged by Joseph Henry Thayer, D.D., Professor in the Divinity School of Harvard University. Harper & Bros.

THE long-expected appearance of this book is matter of special rejoicing, not only to theological students and all ministers who use the Greek Testament as they ought, but to any other persons who have a fair general knowledge of the language, and would like to make careful reading of the New Testament in the original. Dr. Robinson's Lexicon was a useful book, but never satisfactory. Edward Robinson was the creator of modern Biblical geography, and in that department a great honor to American scholarship. But he had no special talent for philological work, and his lexicon is unscientific. Moreover, the German works on which his was based were far inferior to that of Grimm, now translated and greatly improved by Dr. Thayer. From the first appearance of Grimm's book (completed in 1868, with a second edition in 1879) its great superiority was recognized by scholars in all countries. We know of an American theological teacher who at once made his students throw away Robinson and use Grimm in the Latin, though the average American student does not do that with delightful facility, and will no doubt distinctly prefer the English.

Robinson (whose second edition appeared in 1850) gave only the words and forms found in the Greek Testament of Hahn, a now forgotten follower of Griesbach. We are still far from having any single standard for the Greek text. Grimm wisely gave whatever was in the so-called Textus Receptus, with all the additional words and forms found in Griesbach, in Lachmann, or in Tischendorf; Thayer has now added every word or form found in Tregelles or in Westcott and Hort, even the marginal readings; so that whatever Greek Testament is read, this Lexicon will meet the reader's wants. We were at first inclined to regret that Dr. Thayer did not follow the example of Robinson and of Grimm in constructing an independent work on the basis of a predecessor. This would have been more convenient and agreeable to beginners and to the majority of general readers. But Grimm's book has attained such generally recognized preëminence that scholars would have been constantly desirous of knowing whether his view was precisely the same as that given in the American work. Upon the whole, therefore, we are satisfied that Dr. Thayer has pursued the wisest course. He translates Grimm throughout, putting in square brackets his own additions and intimations of dissent. We think these additions are of such extent and value as to warrant its being called Thayer's Lexicon. The translation itself is remarkably good. A German writer's Latin is apt to retain in some measure the Teutonic lack of lucidity, and a translation of it into idiomatic, clear, and agreeable English is really not a very easy task; but

Dr. Thayer had already disciplined and exhibited his skill by translating from the German the great works of Winer and Buttmann on New Testament Greek Grammar. He of course does not here content himself with rendering Grimm's Latin definitions into English, for, besides other considerations, a good many Greek words or uses of words can be more exactly paralleled in English than in Latin.

The additions consist in large measure of references to recent works in every department, including lexicons, grammars, and commentaries, Bible dictionaries, and articles in leading periodicals, and records of learned societies of Germany, England, and America. These references have been prepared with great labor, and, so far as we can judge, with wise discrimination. They will be of great use to students having access to large theological libraries, and many of them can be turned to account by the better furnished pastors. The views of the writers referred to are sometimes summarily stated, and it is often intimated that they do not agree with Grimm. One wishes that the substance of the corrective or additional matter from these authorities could have been more generally given, however briefly, for the sake of the numerous ministers who do not possess, or have not time to consult, the books to which reference is made. Yet it was probably seen that this would too greatly enlarge the work, and that it would be difficult to present opinions contrary to those of Grimm without frequently undertaking to decide between them, which would have produced confusion. Dr. Thayer has modestly shrunk from putting forward his own opinions, and even where he unquestionably dissents strongly from Grimm, he is usually content to say, "Others think," etc. It is certainly graceful to make a lexicon so far as possible impersonal, and many are very anxious to rely on such a work as an impartial authority. They know that a commentary gives only the views of its author; but they wish to think otherwise as to a grammar or lexicon of the original language. Yet, after all, no such work can free itself from the personal prepossessions of those who construct it. As Addison Alexander once casually said of Robinson, "a lexicon is only a commentary in alphabetical order." Dr. Thayer has recognized this fact in his preface, and in defining terms, or particular uses, concerning which there is a difference of doctrinal opinion, he has usually referred to leading treatises on both sides. His breadth of view and studious fairness are evident at all points. It is probably through inadvertence that he has sometimes failed to intimate dissent where Grimm, in dealing with a case of "discrepancy" between two Gospels, has remarked, as a matter of course, that one or the other is in error, without hinting at the possibility of reconciliation.

A notable and readily helpful class of additions consists in the discussion of groups of synonyms. Here the editor, of course, frequently draws upon Trench and the recent elaborate work of Schmidt; and he gives a number of choice bits from the commentaries of Bishop Lightfoot. His own statements are very discriminating and carefully guarded. The common vice of writers on synonyms in any language is that they make their distinctions sharper, and push them more consistently through the entire use, than facts will warrant. Grimm's etymologies were somewhat meagre, and occasionally quite erroneous, his talents or attainments not seeming to lie in that direction. Thayer has here also made valuable additions, with references to recent German works of great importance.

We observe fewer additions to the discussion of particles than to that of nouns and verbs. Grimm is especially full and complete in these portions of his work, and here not so much has been added by recent specialists. It is not clear whether Dr. Thayer himself takes less interest in the study of particles than in other departments of lexicography.

Great pains have been taken to make use of the recent remarkable progress in Semitic studies, wherever light is thus thrown upon the use of words in the New Testament.

The appendix to the American work is a very important feature, both for advanced students and for beginners. The copious list of forms of verbs will not only help the tyro, but will relieve some good Greek scholars, when they first begin to read Westcott and Hort and are puzzled by unfamiliar inflectional forms or peculiarities of orthography. The other lists will furnish important help to advanced students, and are evidently the fruit of unstinted labor. They comprise (1) Greek words in the New Testament which are not found in general Greek use till after the time of Aristotle; (2) words borrowed from Hebrew, Latin, etc.; (3) words and significations found only in the New Testament; (4) words peculiar to individual New-Testament writers. Here careful attention has been given to differences of text, as found in leading critical editions.

The book is admirably printed. In a pretty careful examination, and some daily use, we have stumbled upon no error of the press; and the well-known difficulty of attaining accuracy in proof-reading is in such a work raised to the second power. Some junior students will probably wish the publishers had printed in closer lines and on thinner paper, so as to rival the German edition in cheapness; but the cost would not thus have been greatly diminished to them, and their eyesight will in all probability begin to fail before this excellent work is superseded.

Having referred at the outset to readers of the Greek Testament who are not ministers, it may be well that we should add a word concerning the present choice of editions. Such as prefer the Textus Receptus may get either Scrivener's Greek Testament, which gives the text of Stephens, and at the bottom of the page the principal differences of reading presented by several leading critical editions; or Scrivener's other edition, which attempts to give the precise Greek text followed by King James's translators, and indicates the departures from this made by the recent Anglo-American revision. Those who sympathize with progress in this respect will, in our judgment, make a great mistake if they choose any edition of Tischendorf, whose apparatus of text-criticism is unrivalled, but whose unsound and vacillating judgment has led to the production of a text that is highly inconsistent and in every way unsatisfactory. It is far better to take Westcott and Hort, whose text alone may now be had in very cheap editions. Some of their particular decisions will doubtless be corrected by future progress, but the work is constructed on a scientific method, and as a whole is very good. It is pleasant to observe that the text offered by the most progressive and fearless criticism leaves the doctrinal, ecclesiastical, and ethical teachings of the New Testament substantially unaltered. Some readers might prefer Palmer's Greek Testament, which presents the text followed in the recent revision; this text, we think, is nearly always right in so far as it departs from the Textus Receptus, but ought to go further still.

Modern Idols. Studies in Biography and Criticism. By William Henry Thorne. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company. 1887.

MR. THORNE is a very honest critic. He has told his readers just what he thinks about Arnold, Browning, Ole Bull, Burns, Carlyle, George Eliot, and George Sand; and the virtue of frankness in this case involved, one would think, that of courage. He is a man interested in poetry, but not in Arnold's—whose career therein he thus summarizes from start to finish: "Like most English schoolboys of refined feelings and lofty aspirations, he began early to scribble verses, and the fact that in his twenty-first year he won the Newdigate prize for his poem on Cromwell led him to waste a great many of his earlier years in writing what is called poetry. . . . It is perfectly useless for his over-zealous admirers to laud the work which, as poetry, is destined to be very short-lived." It is not the truth but the courage of this view which is worth remarking. We cannot resist the temptation to continue the quotation in order that Mr. Thorne may stand exactly on the merits of his own words. He goes on: "Mr. Arnold's own definition of poetry is, that it deals with and describes actions; the greater and nobler the actions, so much better the texts of the poems. If Shakespeare, or Goethe, or Tennyson, had defined poetry, any one of them would have said that it had to do with impulses, feelings, spirituality, angels' and demons' wings, and such voices of nature as are heard by poets alone." The fine audacity with which he here contradicts a greater than Arnold is perhaps less striking than the happy self-confidence with which he informs us what "any one of them" would have replied if he were respectfully interrogated. Pray, did Shakspere and Goethe never actually define the art in language of their own? and can these "angels' and demons' wings" be fairly regarded as a felicitous paraphrase of their remarks? But, possibly, Mr. Thorne did not mean to include drama as a part of poetry, for we notice he says later that "Robert Browning was never made to wear or jingle the adornments of 'cap and bells,'" and seems to think writing for the stage a poor business for a modern man.

Next to the boldness of this writer, his distinguishing trait is the excellence of his moral views. He approaches poetry through his moral fervor, and does really get into some contact with it on that side; but it is in the region of prose, particularly in biography, that his righteousness glows most fiercely. He does not make the mistake of rendering judgment—that he leaves to the proper authority; he admits that "the world is not all conscience and justice and severity, any more than it is all mugwump, dandy, dallying, and clown"; and he is willing to wait for the everlasting bonfire, as Shakspere calls it, to abolish the latter half of his antithesis. He is, however, especially sound on the doctrine of marriage; and, while he exclaims against condemnation, yet the proceedings of George Eliot and George Sand were so flagrant that he cannot get them out of his mind, and his reframing from judgment upon them strikes one as a good deal like that mode of savage torture which consists in seeing how nigh one can shoot without hitting, or how small a bit of flesh he can chip off the victim. George Sand is, in fact, a name of Babylon to him, and he rejoices in the exactness of that symbolic picture of her which the fathers showed the youthful Renan, as a woman in black trampling on the cross. Burns is treated with more of imagination, but the pit is conveniently near at hand. This irrepressible conviction of the universality and irresistibility of the moral law, which pervades the book, shows traces in its peculiar mental and linguistic form of Carlylese origin, and consequently one is not surprised to find Carlyle more highly lauded than the rest; but this partiality does not extend to his wife, of whom it is declared: "Throughout her earlier and later letters it is plain that Mrs. Carlyle was seldom her best—that is, her most agreeable and attractive—in her husband's pre-

sence"! The conclusion of the whole matter is, that the author is delightfully intrepid, and a son of orthodox morality, and is gifted with other excellences of character. But character, though a much more precious thing, is not culture; and hence, willingly as one recognizes the author's strong interest in letters and in righteousness, his faithfulness and ability in compiling facts in a reviewer's way, and his altogether worthy aims, nevertheless more cannot be said in conscience than that he is an honest critic.

Raleigh. By Edmund Gosse, M.A. [English Worthies.] D. Appleton & Co. 12mo, pp. 284. 1886.

THE life of Sir Walter Raleigh has been so thoroughly investigated and so often written that any new biographer must find himself embarrassed, at once by the abundance of materials and by the difficulty of saying anything new about him. Mr. Gosse has, however, the advantage that the new materials brought to light in 1868 by Mr. Edwards and Mr. St. John have never before been collated and embodied in a biography of a popular character. He has, moreover, chosen to confine himself to the personal career of his hero, "disengaged from the general history of his time." What might appear, therefore, a superfluous task, in the face of so many books professing to cover the same ground, is a welcome addition to our libraries.

The story of Raleigh's life is told by Mr. Gosse with great fulness and sobriety, and in a very interesting way. To illustrate his point of view, we will give a passage in relation to Raleigh as a discoverer (p. 76):

"It has been customary of late, in reaction against the defamation of Raleigh in the eighteenth century, to protest that gold was not his chief aim in the Guiana enterprise, but that his main wish, under cover of the search for gold, was to form a South American colony for England, and to open out the west to general commerce. With every wish to hold this view, I am unable to do so in the face of the existing evidence. More humane, more intelligent than any of the adventurers who had preceded him, it yet does not seem that Raleigh was less insanely bitten with the gold fever than any of them. He saw the fleets of Spain return to Europe year after year laden with precious metals from Mexico, and he exaggerated, as all men of his age did, the power of this tide of gold. He conceived that no one would stem the dangerous influence of Spain until the stream of wealth was diverted or divided. He says in the most direct language that it is not the trade of Spain, her export of wines and Seville oranges and other legitimate produce, that threatens shipwreck to us all: 'it is his Indian gold that endangereth and disturbeth all the nations of Europe; it purchaseth intelligence, creepeth into councils, and setteth bound loyalty at liberty in the greatest monarchies of Europe.' In Raleigh's exploration of Guiana, his steadfast hope, the hope which led him patiently through so many hardships, was that he might secure for Elizabeth a vast auriferous colony, the proceeds of which might rival the revenues of Mexico and Peru. But we must not make the mistake of supposing him to have been so wise before his time as to perceive that the real wealth which might paralyze a selfish power like that of Spain, would consist in the cereals and other products which such a colony might learn to export."

We will also call attention to the judgment upon the 'History of the World' (p. 176), a judgment for which Mr. Gosse is especially qualified.

Introduction to a History of the Factory System. By E. Whately Cooke Taylor. London: Richard Bentley & Sons. 1886. 8vo, pp. 441.

MR. COOKE TAYLOR is, we understand, a Government inspector of factories in England, whose attention had been drawn to the rather surprising fact that there exists no adequate account of the origin and growth of the factory system. He proposed to himself to supply this deficiency, but found the obstacles so great, at once in the mass of detail to be marshalled, and at the same time in the lack of material, that he decided to suspend the execution of his original plan, and undertake the preliminary task of preparing an historical introduction to the subject, leaving it to others, or to himself at some future time, to fill in the outline here sketched. Even this more modest preliminary work is one of no small amount of difficulty and complication. The amount of detail gathered in this volume is very great, and we are inclined to think that if the author has erred anywhere, it has been just in this respect. The number of facts here gathered, and their lack of organic connection with one another, sometimes interfere with the consecutive treatment and unity of view which have been his aim throughout. The subject treated is nothing less than the history of industrial organization, and this has really made necessary a history of industry. Industrial processes, therefore, inventions and discoveries, come necessarily within his scope; and, as trade is inextricably connected with manufacture, commercial relations have been also treated.

The preparation for the work has evidently been made faithfully and industriously, and the references testify to a large range of reading and study. The result has, as he says, inevitably been in a great degree compilation. We note, however, an absence of any but English authorities; and in this limitation of materials we find an explanation of the most important limitation in the treatment. There is very little in the English language upon the history and organization of industry during the Middle Ages, and it is here that we find the book least satisfactory. The account of the mediæval guilds (chiefly from Lacroix) and of mediæval commerce is quite inadequate. On the other hand, ancient history and that of the modern centuries are treated very fully and well.

In a book like this the subject of definition is of the first importance, and the first chapter is devoted to establishing a terminology. This is not an easy task, in view of the loose and conflicting use of many terms, and here and there the discussion labors somewhat from lack of clearness. The fault, however, arises from the nature of the subject, and in general the definitions are exceedingly good, while the statements of fundamental economical principles are clear and sound. "Manufacture is the making commodities in excess of local needs, and trade is their organized dispersion; and in pursuing the history of the one we shall generally find ourselves on the track of the other" (p. 17). "The proper conception of handicraft is . . . nearly the *opposite* of the modern conception of manufacture, and the two terms cannot be regarded as convertible without a distinct loss to economic nomenclature. The one (handicraft) is the system of isolated individual effort, as opposed to the other, the system of combined and generally mechanically aided production" (*ib.*). The word "factory," it is said, "will be used all through these pages in its popular rather than its historical or legal sense up to the period of its being defined by statute. The early signification of a trading establishment will be altogether and everywhere excluded, and the later meaning, of a place of production, will be at first and everywhere understood. It will be held to be *any* such place of production—that is, any *definite place* where *associated industrial production* is carried on, *by whatever means*" (p. 36).

The importance of the book is largely as a contribution towards the solution of the great problems of the day:

"These problems," says Mr. Taylor, "are becoming more pressing as time proceeds, as this system strikes its roots deeper, and spreads its branches wider, at the expense of elder and less energetic growths; and this while a dazed legislature is painfully feeling its way among them, with half concessions and temporary expedients, clumsily enough for the most part, while still on the whole faithful to the high responsibilities of its trust. . . . The expansion of the factory system into nearly all departments of industrial employment in the country has become an already accomplished fact. Commensurate with it has become the desire among the better minded of the people, including our more thoughtful legislators, to take precautions that the new order of things shall be introduced at the least preventable cost of human health and happiness. It was not so always, but such is the feeling now. But this benevolent intention is at present checked and hampered, is liable to be diverted from its proper course and rendered nugatory or even injurious, by the amazing ignorance of the history and philosophy of the whole subject that prevails. I am anxious to make a humble beginning towards a better state of things" (Preface, p. ix.).

This praiseworthy intention has certainly been carried out successfully; and the reader will acquire, with a vast amount of information, a clear notion of the historical relations of this important subject.

Essays. By James Vila Blake. Chicago: Chas. H. Kerr & Co.; Boston: Geo. H. Ellis. 1887.

IT is not easy to write in a field which so different authors as Montaigne and Bacon have cultivated, or, at a further remove, Seneca and Emerson. To compose moral essays is to invite unlucky comparisons as inevitably as when one attempts poetry. There is the same danger, too, in such literary efforts as in versifying, that the writer will fall into mannerisms both of his own and of the greater models; and in substance there is usually as little freshness in reflections on Anger as in amatory fancies. The exception arises in both kinds when there is a genius at work, moral in the one and poetic in the other. But Mr. Blake is not a moral genius; and his pages illustrate these perils of the moralist, which have just been alluded to, as likely to beset his way in our time. He discourses in short articles, which read like excerpts from good, quiet, cultivated sermons, upon Choice, Vainglory, Censure, Knowledge, Patience, Death, and twenty-four other subjects of the same sort. The thoughts are just, the temper serious and benevolent, the quotations thick from Epictetus, Rochefoucauld, and that irreproachable genus; and one has to say of it, as of a book of verses, that it is excellent, only it fails of distinction. One observes, too, as a sign of the author's real range, that his beloved poet seems to be Schefer.

Home Life of Great Authors. By Hattie Tyng Griswold. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1887.

THIS volume contains papers, compiled from the proper authorities, upon thirty-three of the most famous authors of this century, living and dead, all but four of the number being English or American. The accounts are readable, and substantially accurate, although the writer is not altogether free from the fault of painting fancy pictures of scenes, and filling in with imaginary details. The subject is the unfortunate one of the domestic life of genius, but this limit is not very narrowly observed; most often we have a condensed biography, with special attention given to the personal element, in the way of description, anecdote, reminiscences, and other such matters as a skilful collector could gather from the plentiful sources of such information. There is a noticeable good taste shown in dealing with those more intimate portions of the lives of the heroes and heroines—the *affaires de cœur*. With Byron, Bulwer, Goethe, Burns, George Sand, to mention no others, there was need of some tact in statement. The almost undiscriminating for-

giveness which the author dispenses to these illustrious offenders, is not so agreeable a trait of her work. In fact, there is a good deal of weak worship in the volume, of a laudation of men apart from their genius and their service, which, though natural enough, ought to be kept within better bounds. Perhaps, too, a more explicit acknowledgment of obligation to original authorities might have been expected.

The Electric Motor and its Applications. By Thomas Commerford Martin and Joseph Wetzler. New York: W. J. Johnston. 1887.

As this work is largely made up of articles from the *Electrical World*, describing, from the inventor's standpoint in each case, different electrical inventions which are competing with each other for public favor, it is not strange that it contains neither a comparative discussion of the merits of these inventions nor a judicial presentation of them. The variety of sources drawn upon may account for the diversities of literary style exhibited in the book, and very probably for the want of uniform excellence in its illustrations. Nevertheless, it will interest both the general reader and those who are professionally or otherwise especially concerned with the subject to which it relates. It describes a large number of kinds of electro-motors, applied to various purposes with what is asserted to be great practical success.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, E. P. Railway Practice. Its Principles and Suggested Reforms Reviewed. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Alexander, Prof. A. Some Problems of Philosophy. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Allen, A. P. The Ambassadors of Commerce. London: T. Fisher Unwin. 25 cents.
Bancroft, H. H. History of the Pacific States of North America. Vol. xxvii, British Columbia. 1792-1887. San Francisco: The History Co.
Barr, Amelia E. The Squire of Sandal-Side: A Pastoral Romance. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Boisslisle, A. de. Mémoires du duc de Saint-Simon, éd. Regnier fils. 18mo. T. xxi. Supplément. Boston: Schoenhof.
Collar—Jandell. Latine Reddenda: Exercises from the Beginner's Latin Book. Boston: Ginn & Co. 22 cents.
Crane, Prof. T. F. Le Romantisme Français: A Selection from Writers of the French Romantic School. 1824–1848. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Doucet, Camille. Concours littéraires 1875-1885. Boston: Schoenhof.
Durand, Madame la Générale. Napoleon and Marie-Louise: A Memoir. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. 75 cents.
Fenn, G. M. Devon Boys: A Tale of the North Shore. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 25 cents.
Frost, T. Reminiscences of a Country Journalist. Scribner & Welford. $2.
Förster, Max von. Compressed Gun Cotton for Military Use. D. Van Nostrand.
Goodell, T. D. Greek in English: First Lessons in Greek. Henry Holt & Co. 75 cents.
Habberton, J. Helen's Babies. 200th ed. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Brothers. 50 cents.
Hallowell, R. P. The Pioneer Quakers. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Hare, J. I. C. The Law of Contracts. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Harris, Prof. S. The Self-Revelation of God. Charles Scribner's Sons. $3.50.
Higgins, C. Home Rule; or the Irish Land Question. Facts and Arguments. Rand, McNally & Co. $1.
Higginson, T. W. The Monarch of Dreams. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.
Hopkins, Louisa P. Practical Pedagogy; or, The Science of Teaching. Illustrated. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Janvier, T. A. The Mexican Guide. With two maps. 1. The City of Mexico; 2. Environs of the City of Mexico. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.50.
Krauskopf, Rabbi J. The Jews and Moors in Spain. Kansas City: M. Berkowitz & Co.
Lee, E. Dorothy Wordsworth: The Story of a Sister's Love. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Lorenz, Otto. Catalogue général de la Librairie française. T. ix. Fasc. 2. Cr—H. Boston. Schoenhof.
Luckock, Canon H. M. The Bishops in the Tower: A Record of Stirring Events affecting the Church and Nonconformists from the Restoration to the Revolution. Thomas Whittaker. $1.50.
Newton, Rev. H. Social Studies. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Ohnet, G. Noir et Rose. Paris: Ollendorff. New York: Westermann.
Poore, B. P. Reminiscences of Sixty Years in the National Metropolis. Illustrated. Vol. ii. Philadelphia: Hubbard Brothers.
Prince, J. T. Courses and Methods: A Handbook for Teachers of Primary, Grammar, and Ungraded Schools. Boston: Ginn & Co. 85 cents.
Raymond, G. L. Ballads of the Revolution, and Other Poems. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Remsen, Prof. I. Elements of Chemistry: A Text-Book for Beginners. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Ridgway, R. A Nomenclature of Colors for Naturalists, and Compendium of Useful Knowledge for Ornithologists. Illustrated. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Sichler, Leon. Histoire de la littérature russe. Boston: Schoenhof.
Skene, F. M. F. A Strange Inheritance. A Novel. Harper's Handy Series. 25 cents.
Smith, G. H. Elements of Right and of the Law. To which is added a Historical and Critical Essay upon the several Theories of Jurisprudence. Second edition. Chicago: Callaghan & Co.
Stapfer, Paul. Molière et Shakespeare (Nouvelle édition, 1887.) Boston: Schoenhof.
Stapfer, Paul. Racine et Victor Hugo. Boston: Schoenhof.
Stickney. A Second Reader. Boston: Ginn & Co. 50 cents.
Swainson, Rev. C. Provincial Names and Folk-Lore of British Birds. London: Trübner & Co.
Taken by Siege: A Novel. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Thackeray, W. M. The Adventures of Philip. To which is now prefixed A Shabby-Genteel Story. Handy Edition. 2 vols. London: Smith, Elder & Co. 50 cents.

Fine Arts.

THE SALMAGUNDI CLUB EXHIBITION.

THE Salmagundi Club holds a yearly exhibition of works in black and white. The ninth exhibition is now open, in connection with the second annual exhibition of the Architectural League, at the galleries of the American Art Association. The chief interest in the present exhibition centres in the collection of drawings by E. A. Abbey for Goldsmith's comedy, "She Stoops to Conquer," and the drawings by Kenyon Cox for Rossetti's poem, "The Blessed Damozel." Both of these collections of original drawings have already been on exhibition in New York, the one at the Grolier Club, the other at Reichard's gallery. These works of Mr. Abbey and Mr. Cox, really important achievements in the field of illustrative work, so highly appreciated and so well received by the art public in New York, have been noticed at length in the columns of the daily press, and call for no extended notice here. The exhibition proper of the Salmagundi Club is confined to a miscellaneous collection of black and white oils, charcoal drawings, etchings, one or two bronzes, and some wood-cut proofs. This exhibition is far from attaining a high average. There is a striking dearth of drawings. Black and white work in New York seems to be drifting more and more in the direction of "effects" in heavy oil sketches, and the artists who exhibited at the Salmagundi Club's exhibition seem to rely more every year on strong contrasts of crude white and solid black masses to make pictures, than on any delicacy of line or any attempt to make drawings pure and simple. The beauty of pure outline or the more substantial quality of well-balanced masses of true light and shade is lost sight of in the scrambling after noisy effect. In the present exhibition there are impossible landscapes and badly-drawn illustrations in oil. A few pen-and-ink drawings are in no way remarkable for any real art qualities. They are in the main amateurish efforts, that would not even make a creditable appearance in the pages of a popular magazine with the gain derived from reduction in size.

The impression made by this exhibition so far as the new work is concerned is dreary in the extreme, for the contemplation of such perfunctory performances as the majority of the pictures shown this year certainly are, is not calculated to encourage the champions of the native school. If we find few good drawings in what is ostensibly an exhibition of drawings, we are forced to one of two conclusions, either that our artists cannot draw, or that if we have draughtsmen, they have not thought it worth while to send work to the Salmagundi Exhibition. The latter is without doubt the correct inference to be drawn from the present exhibition. Leaving out of the question Messrs. Abbey and Cox, there is nothing here from Smedley, Beckwith, Chase, Dewing, Denman, Mowbray, Rice, Hovenden, Reinhart, Blum, Ulrich, Blashfield, Brush, Bunker, Montague Flagg, Harrison, Simmons, F. Jones, Dannat, Low, Robinson, Vedder, Sartain, Bridgman, or Sargent. We find only among the familiar names in good figure work Millet, Wiles, Wyatt Eaton, Maynard, Lippincott, Dielman, and Thulstrup. Lack of interest in a black-and-white exhibition on the part of our best figure painters, or doubts as to the utility of such an exhibition, must, in our opinion, be the cause of such a weak display in this branch of art.

"The Orphans," No. 255, is one of the best figure compositions in this exhibition. It is by Frederick Dielman. The same artist shows an excellent "Portrait," No. 12, a soberly drawn study of a gentleman seated at his library table. W. H. Lippincott's "Head," No. 323, is a clever study in charcoal, J. R. Wiles's "A Pose in Black," No. 228, a deftly-handled wash drawing, and G. W. Maynard's "News," No. 251, an old man reading a newspaper, a good little genre, although in tone it is too black, are quite worth looking at. Wyatt Eaton, in the "Judgment of Paris," No. 239, has attempted a subject of the most ambitious kind. The nude figures are not realistic by any means. The drawing leans too much toward an imitation of the classic painters in a certain ampleness of form that a live painter of the modern school would never have thought of trying for; but, despite some very grave faults, the drawing may be commended for its good intention. "A Relay on the Old Boston Post Road," No. 360, is a spirited and sufficiently well-drawn illustration by T. de Thulstrup. "Her Dream," No. 291, is a successful bit of fantasy, decoratively treated by W. V. Birney. "A Wet Evening at the Thirtieth Street Station," No. 267, by H. W. Ranger, is a good example of what may be done in the way of making everyday subjects interesting in black and white, and J. R. Wiles's "A Rainy Day," No. 259, though less important, deserves to be mentioned for the same distinguishing merit.

In landscape, leaving out the multitude of "noisy" effects in oil already alluded to, we find some excellent work by Chas. Warren Eaton in his tender "Charcoal Study," No. 68, and "By the Roadside," No. 35; in B. W. Loomis's landscape, No. 295; "A Windy Day," No. 201, by C. A. Vanderhoof; "Solitude," No. 48, by D. Kotz; in the naïvely treated little studies by T. R. Manley, Nos. 49, 59, 72, and 320; and in F. Leo Hunter's wash sketches, "Fishing Smack," No. 314, and "Winter on the Long Island Shore," No. 109.

The exhibition of the Architectural League in gallery E comprises 189 numbers, including projects and designs and a heterogeneous collection of sketches and drawings, water-color sketches of street scenes in picturesque European towns, colored detail drawings of decorations, such as those in the palace of Fontainebleau, and pen drawings of furniture. It is not such an exhibition as should be made by the Architectural League, but it may be that the exhibition as it is will prove to be more popular than it would be if it were more dignified and professional in character. Excellent technical work is shown in "Details from the Château d'Anet," No. 158, by J. W. Wells; real artistic quality in Stanford White's "Sketches of Rouen," No. 14, and "Sketch for a Piano," No. 86, by John Du Fais. "Foreign Sketches," No. 162, by Walter Cope, are good water-color drawings. There are innumerable designs for country houses, more or less good, but most of them lacking in the important quality of beauty, and some eccentric projects for public buildings.

In gallery C is exhibited a collection of thirty-seven Limoges paintings by Charles Volkmar. Some of these, such as "The Bronx near Fordham," No. 12, are handsome in color, and all are effective as wall decorations. It is rather doubtful taste, however, to frame these pretty plaques in glaring gold.

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CONTENTS:

THE LAWS OF HABIT. By Professor William James.
SCIENCE IN RELIGIOUS EDUCATION. (Concluded.) By Daniel G. Thompson.
THE SOUTH-AFRICAN DIAMOND MINES. (Illustrated.)
MATERIALISM AND MORALITY. By W. S. Lilly.
SCIENCE AND MORALS: A Reply. By Professor T. H. Huxley.
SOME POINTS ON THE LAND QUESTION. By Oliver B. Bunce.
FETICHISM OR ANTHROPOMORPHISM. By George Pellew.
MISGOVERNMENT OF GREAT CITIES. (Concluded.) By Frank P. Crandon.
FULGURITES OR LIGHTNING-HOLES. (Illustrated.) By George P. Merrill.
VIEWS OF LIFE IN THE CRAZY MOUNTAINS. By Mrs. E. D. W. Hatch.
MASSAGE. By Lady John Manners.
SKETCH OF CHARLES C. ABBOTT. (With Portrait.)
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For Interest, Rents, &c.	407,117 81	$1,915,816 51
		$9,310,362 15

DISBURSEMENTS.

Claims by Death	$518,486 54	
Matured and Discounted Endowments	152,718 86	
Cash Dividends, Return Premiums, and Surrendered Policies	435,633 85	
Annuities	4,543 99	
Total paid Policy-holders	$1,111,383 24	
Taxes	15,121 53	
Commuted Commissions	55,499 13	
Profit and Loss	43,343 12	
Dividends to Stockholders	8,590 75	
Expenses: Rent, Commissions, Salaries, Postage, Advertising, Medical Examinations, &c.	262,793 02	1,496,730 79
Net Assets, December 31, 1886.		$7,813,631 36

ASSETS.

U. S. and N. Y. City Stocks	$659,703 42	
Bonds and Mortgages, being first liens on real estate	6,377,398 67	
Real Estate	450,216 57	
Cash on hand and in Banks and Trust Co	137,631 52	
Loans on Collaterals	170,197 29	
Agents' Balances	38,483 89	$7,813,631 36
Add excess of market value of Stocks over cost		167,546 58
Interest Accrued		63,936 68
Interest due and unpaid		12,862 25
Deferred and Unpaid Premiums, less 20 per cent.		211,636 73
Gross Assets, Dec. 31, 1886		$8,269,613 60

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Surplus as regards Policy-holders	981,290 63	$8,269,613 60

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Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1886	1,426,049 46
Total Marine Premiums	$5,235,299 99
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1886, to 31st December, 1886	$3,817,699 86
Losses paid during the same period	$2,206,588 68
Returns of Premiums and Expenses	$841,378 15

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 87

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS 90

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:
Our Standing Army of Pensioners 92
How the Inter-State Commerce Bill will Work 93

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:
Ireland.—Juries, the Lord Mayor's Banquet, Evictions 94
Carducci 95

CORRESPONDENCE:
The Supply of Teachers 96
An American Teacher in Ireland 97
The Degree of A.B. 97
"Reliable," etc. 7
Brooks's History of Medford 97
Discrimination against Silver 98
The Administration and the Fisheries 98
A Slip of the Pen 98
A Correction 98
The Late General Stone 98

NOTES 98

REVIEWS:
William Henry Channing 101
Dean Plumptre's Translation of the Divine Comedy 102
Primitive Races 104
The Life of Benjamin F. Wade 104
Mural Painting 105
The Standard Orations 105
Exposé Sommaire des Théories Transformistes de Lamarck, Darwin et Haeckel 106
Perry's Saints 106

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 106

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 3, 1887.

The Week.

THE unanimity with which the Senate Fishery Bill was passed, and the indifference with which it has been received by the country, betoken anything rather than war. There is perhaps some party politics behind the curtain. The Democrats must not allow the Republicans to pose as the sole defenders of the country's honor against foreign aggression. Without reference to the merits of the bill, they must forestall any imputation of want of patriotism. This can be easily managed because the execution of it is in the hands of a Democratic Administration. The bill provides that the President may suspend commercial intercourse with Canada, more or less, whenever our fishing rights, under the Treaty of 1818, have been wantonly infringed. This is a grant of power to the President of a very extraordinary kind —no less, in fact, than the power to ruin thousands of American merchants. No such power would have been granted by the Republicans without a political end in view. This end obviously is to catch the President and his party on one or the other horn of a dilemma. If he does not exercise the power conferred upon him, it will be said that he has come short of a patriotic duty. If he does exercise it, more or less suffering will ensue on our own side of the border, and for this he will be held responsible.

The responsibility for suspending trade relations ought never to be surrendered by the legislative power. At the time when Napoleon Bonaparte was issuing his Berlin and Milan decrees, and the British Ministry their Orders in Council, the Congress of the United States passed the Embargo and Non-Intercourse Acts, decreeing in fixed terms the suspension of commerce with the offending Powers, and giving the President power merely to relax the operation of the acts when one or the other of the offenders should desist from the injustice complained of. The embargo and non-intercourse acts were total failures in practice. Yet Congress preserved its dignity and its prerogatives by keeping within its own hands the power to close the ports of the United States, giving to the President the discretion merely to open them in certain specified contingencies. In the present case the power of closing and opening is surrendered to the President in a spirit of gush which is open to strong suspicion. When Senator Frye utters such fulsome praise of the President as is found in the recent Senate debate, it is well to inquire what it signifies. In our judgment it means that Mr. Frye wants him to make a liberal use of the dangerous power conferred upon him. It may do his Administration some harm. It can do him no good unless the provocation offered by the Canadians is more extreme than anything yet offered, for if a justifiable case for non-intercourse exists now, it is the bounden duty of Congress to declare and enforce it, and not leave it to the discretion of the Executive.

Some very instructive figures are supplied by *Bradstreet's* as to the comparative dimensions and importance of the fish trade between Canada and the United States and the aggregate trade of all kinds between the same countries. Some of the details are curious. It is singular to find that all the row with Canada relates to $1,105,382 worth of fish, that being the amount of dutiable fish imported in the year 1886, after the Washington Treaty had been repealed. In the year 1884, while the treaty was still in force, the whole amount of fish imported from the British provinces was of the value of $3,873,799, but of this amount about $1,500,000 worth was fresh fish not dutiable under our general tariff. So it would seem that not above $2,300,000 worth of dutiable fish was imported in a good fishing year. Since the repeal of the treaty the total importation has fallen off, a result which may be due in part to the reimposition of duties on salt fish and in part to a decline in the catch, but most largely, we presume, to the former of these causes. The next fact, not commonly understood, is, that Canada bought fish of us to the amount of $213,794 in the year 1886, reducing our net importation of fish, both free and dutiable, for that year to $1,963,000, or of dutiable only to $892,000. Another fact is, that our importation of hens' eggs from Canada exceeds our importation of dutiable fish by nearly $800,000, and nearly equals our importation of all kinds of fish, both free and dutiable. Lumber imports exceed those of fish of all kinds in the ratio of three and a half to one. Barley stands in the same ratio. In the total import trade, fish constitutes 5.8 per cent., and in the aggregate import and export trade about 2 per cent. It is the other 98 per cent. that the Retaliation Bill proposes to cut off, or authorize the President to cut off at his own discretion.

The present strike of coal-heavers, 'longshoremen, and the like in this city is superintended, if not set on foot, by a certain James E. Quinn, who has never had anything to do with coal-heaving or freight-handling in his life, but, when he had a regular calling, was a bookbinder. He is now pursuing the much more exciting and profitable business of Master Workman of District Assembly 49. His work now consists in negotiating as commander of an army with steamship proprietors and coal companies the terms on which he will allow them to carry on their business. He made a speech last week at the Cooper Union, in which he revealed the kind of dream which is filling the heads to-day of the labor agitators all over the country. He said:

"There is more in the cause of the workingman than the brains of the politician can understand. We propose that our organization shall get to that point where it will dominate all the institutions of this country. The question is not of any one particular organization. The question is of the protection of all classes of labor. We have many difficulties before us, but remember when the night seems darkest we are nearest to the rising of the sun."

Supposing District Assembly 49, for instance, "dominated" this city, it is easy to see what a personage Quinn would be. We should have to go to him for permits to put coal in our cellars, and have our butchers and bakers assigned to us on the first of each month. Supposing the General Assembly of the Knights "dominated all our institutions," of course the Master Workmen would be the "biggest men" the world has yet seen. The Venetian Council of Ten would be small potatoes compared to them. They would wield power such as only single despots have hitherto ever been able to get hold of. Who would be a plumber, or bookbinder, or 'longshoreman, or freight-handler, one minute after he saw within his reach even a distant approach to such eminence? We need hardly say that Quinn has long been an agitator, and was, in the Greenback days, a clamorous Greenbacker, or, in other words, was for "Government money" to be distributed to the people without the intervention of those odious institutions the banks.

What most interests the sober, sensible, and industrious people of the country is not what the Quinns are aiming at, but how long their ambition is to be fostered and their attempts to "dominate" by disturbing industry are to be encouraged by the politicians of both parties. This encouragement, of course, is mainly given by the refusal of governors, mayors, sheriffs, and the like to protect non-union men from violence when seeking work, and to protect the premises of employers against damage at the hands of strikers or by the slowness and feebleness of such attempts as they make to protect them. But it is also given most effectively by gross flattery of "Labor" in speeches and messages; by the pretence of a profound conviction of the power of Labor, and of the right of Labor (if this were an age of pure justice) to seize and consume every form of wealth; by professions of belief in and respect for all the labor platitudes and fallacies and follies, and by charlatanic recommendations that they should be embodied in legislation; and, though last not least, by attempts to embody them in bills drafted by the Quinns and Donnellys, in order to enable these worthies to keep their hold on their followers, and make the triumph of Labor and the appearance of dog-carts and coupés to take Labor to the Park in the afternoons seem near at hand. This most mischievous and shameful branch of the "labor movement" nothing will check or suppress except punishment at the polls. Nothing will ever cause the Hills and Greens and Orestes Clevelands to speak soberly and truthfully about labor, and do their duty to the peaceable and industrious, except their discovery that they will lose more votes than they gain by not doing so. They will probably find this out by and by, when the excesses and disturbances of Labor have made sufficient impression on the public to detach a considerable body of the voters from the old parties, in order to look after the primary interests of society, or, in other words, to provide for peace and security.

Whatever may be the magnitude reached by the coal strike, and however great the inconveniences it may entail, employers may as well make up their minds that they must resist it to the last. The coal strike has lost already, as the Southwestern railroad strike soon lost, the character of a dispute between a certain class of laborers and their employers. It has become, as the Southwestern strike rapidly became, an attempt to establish the power of the organization of Knights over trade and industry. If they find that by stopping or greatly diminishing the supply of coal or of any other commodity, for a short period, at this season of the year, they can bring employers to their terms, it is just as certain as the rising of the sun that they would repeat the process every winter and increase their exactions. In other words, the vast body of savings now accumulated at this point and invested in manufactures and shipping would pass out of the control of the owners, and into that of a body as irresponsible and unscrupulous as a party of Mexican bandits. Consequently the very cheapest and safest thing employers can do is to resist now. They must not forget, too, that in yielding to the demands of the Knights on an occasion of this kind they would not be yielding to the opinions or wishes of 17,000, or 40,000, or whatever the number may be, workingmen. They would be yielding to the threats of a small knot or junta of adventurers without character, or credit, or education, who control the organization without consulting their followers, and who, of course, enjoy the power and importance which their control of it gives them, and the money it puts in their pockets. To yield anything to these people is a crime against every honest and industrious man in the community. If it were gravely proposed to us to hand over to two dozen of the most upright, able, and illustrious men on earth the power to block the channels of trade and industry in this city at midwinter for any reason which to them seemed good, we should all say that we would die or emigrate sooner than submit to a despotism so odious. Well, we are threatened at this moment with something far worse, namely, the despotism of a small committee of conspirators whom no respectable business man would wish to take into partnership, or intrust with money or goods, or employ in any place of trust or responsibility, and who have never given any proof of capacity in any honorable and lawful calling, and whose names are not known outside the halls in which they meet to plan their attacks on society.

The *Times* suggests, as a very proper piece of labor legislation, a "bill to secure the punishment of the rascals who instigate hopeless strikes for the purpose of swindling the strikers and payers of assessments." There is no doubt that legislation in this direction is sorely needed, and ought to be pushed both by the real friends of Labor in the interest of humanity and by the pseudo-friends of Labor for the sake of consistency. It is only the outside of these great strikes—owing to the disorders they cause in the streets, and the disturbance and loss they inflict on industry—which attracts the attention of the general public. But the inside history of them is most pitiful. In all of them large sums of money are collected by a little committee of managers, not one of whom is probably worth a cent, or follows any regular calling, or has any credit. They render no account of it to anybody, and dole it out in such amounts as they please, for as long as they please, to the strikers, who are mostly poor, ignorant, and cowed men. That a very large part of it goes into the pockets of these managers, there is no reasonable doubt. In other words, every strike is honeycombed with fraud of the basest kind. After the Third Avenue strike, the scamps who engineered it went about showing sheafs of bank-bills in the most brazen way. In pocketing a good deal of the money, too, the managers are no worse than other men. It is what nearly all needy men do who get hold of the money of poor, ignorant people, and are not obliged to tell what they do with it. As we know from the melancholy story of Archbishop Purcell, even high dignitaries of the Church cannot be trusted under these circumstances. He spent the money of the poor intrusted to him in the way nearest his heart—in building churches. The Master Workmen and Walking Delegates probably spent it in the way nearest their hearts—that is, on themselves.

Now, we are strongly in favor of all labor legislation which is likely to promote the workingman's self-reliance, and cultivate his judgment and discretion, and are strongly opposed to all legislation which fosters the habit of blaming some one else for his misfortunes, and looking to somebody else for relief for his burdens, and of considering himself as the ward of the State. Most of the legislation "demanded" or proposed by him and his friends is extremely childish, and, if carried out, would soon make him as helpless as the Paraguayan Indians when the Jesuits had charge of them, and flogged them when they got drunk or came too late to their work in the morning. We desire to see this republic remain a republic of men and women, and not become a community of squalling children, ruled by a lot of knavish taskmasters and inspectors. But if any legislation for the protection of the laborer against the consequences of his own ignorance and helplessness, and against the greed or indifference of others, such as the labor reformers are constantly asking for, be proper or desirable, then assuredly we ought to have legislation for the regulation of these strikes. We therefore 'demand" a law, on the laborers' behalf, which shall either compel persons collecting money during strikes, in the shape of "assessments" for the benefit of the strikers, to publish daily audited accounts of the same, showing the source of the receipts, and the nature and object of the disbursements, or else provide a simple and cheap legal process by which they can, on the application of any contributor to the fund, be hauled into court on short notice, and compelled to show their books and vouchers. We know of no piece of labor legislation for which there is at this moment more pressing need. The evil it would attack is growing rapidly. The appetite for assessments on the part of the managers is probably the most potent cause of the increasing frequency of the great strikes.

The attempted destruction of the Old Dominion steamship *Guyandotte* by some kind of infernal contrivance recalls the desperate villanies of Martin Irons's men in the Southwest, when they found, to their infinite surprise, that the great world was moving on without them. They had argued themselves into the belief that they were the government of three or four States, and that they had only to set the brakes on railroad traffic to bring everybody in the attitude of petitioners to them, humbly asking of them the terms upon which society might be allowed to exist; they being, in fact, less than 5,000 persons all told, in a community of more than 5,000,000. When the truth dawned upon them that the earth was turning on its axis very much in the old way, in spite of all their efforts to hold it, their wrath was naturally kindled, and they declared war upon society. This is no figure of speech. The Adjutant-General of Kansas testified before the Congressional Committee that at Parsons, "Buchanan, the local leader of the Knights, took the position, and another gentleman, by the name of Hollis, who was present at that time, that they were entitled to the *rights of belligerents;* that it was justifiable revolution. Mr. Buchanan went so far as to bring his dictionary to show me the distinction between revolution and rebellion, and argued it at some length." Irons testified that he considered the strike an act of war, qualifying the remark by saying that it was so considered "by the property-owners also." At first the Knights denied that the acts of violence were sanctioned by the Order, but it was proved that the Master Workman of the local Assembly at Fort Worth commanded the party that fired on the train from ambush, when three deputy sheriffs were shot. It was proved also that the wrecking of the train at Wyandotte, where two men were killed, was planned in the Knights of Labor meeting-room in Kansas City, and that the wrecking party was headed by the leader of the local Assembly. Before the investigation was concluded, all pretence that the killing and maiming were done without the authority of the organization was abandoned, a moral sanction for those acts being sought for under the "war powers" of the Order.

The paper presented by the "Bartholdi Association Executive Committee" to the receivers of the Central Railroad of New Jersey exceeds in impudence anything recorded in the annals of Labor in the Eastern States, although it may be matched by the initial steps of the strike on the Missouri Pacific last year. In the latter case the strike was ordered without any notice at all. In the New Jersey Central case, four hours was allowed to the receivers to determine whether they would yield to twenty-three different demands, including two that could not be conceded because they were outside the jurisdiction and beyond the power of the receivers. One of these was a declaration that the freight-handlers of the road would not

handle any freight that had been previously handled by non-union men. This declaration, which was tantamount to a demand that the railroad should not carry any freight that had been handled by non-union men, is made in the teeth of the Inter-State Commerce Bill just passed by Congress, which prohibits, under severe penalties, any discrimination whatever between persons in the transportation of property. Such discrimination is prohibited by the common law, but now we have, if the President signs the bill, a statutory provision which would subject the receivers to a fine of $5,000 each, besides damages to the injured party, if they should accede to the demand of the "Bartholdi Association Executive Committee," and refuse to receive freight that had been handled by non-union men. It is perfectly plain that the demands made upon the receivers were drawn with the intention of not being complied with.

Looking at the growth of the pension roll at Washington, we need not wonder that every little war-cloud on the horizon, the size of a weasel, becomes a whale in the estimation of a great many people. A few months ago a fellow named Cutting got into some kind of a scrape which led to his arrest by the Mexican authorities, and straightway volunteers for immediate service were offered by captains, colonels, brigadier-generals in various places, and by one Governor of a State. Now that the principle has been adopted that anybody who has served in any war and has since become "dependent" must have a pension, it will not need any violent extension of the principle to provide that anybody who has *offered* to serve in a war shall also have a pension, provided he becomes dependent afterward. It is to be expected that in the course of revolving years all the pension claimants of the war for the Union (and their widows by their side) will be buried in the graves of heroes. Then will come the chance of the volunteers who were prevented from fighting against Mexico or Canada by no fault of their own, for how can this country hold up its head in the world without a big pension roll? How can it compete with the nations of Europe unless it has disbursements corresponding to theirs? Can we imagine so disgraceful a state of public economy and national cheese-paring as a dwindling pension list? Whatever else we have or don't have, we must never be without pensioners. Looking forward to the time when death will have deprived us of this source of renown, and seeing the consternation that will come upon us when any year shall call for a smaller appropriation than the last one, the volunteers along the lakes, from Buffalo to Chicago, for immediate service against Canada are quite right in placing themselves in the line of promotion to the pension list. It was reported that the late Thurlow Weed drew a pension to the day of his death in consequence of being mustered into the Home Guards during the war of 1812. With such precedents before us, why should not volunteering flourish? Unless something is done to make good the ravages of time among the soldier element, we may be driven to pensioning the ex-rebels.

A morning contemporary, waggishly attached to the Democratic party, which was lately "running" Mr. Conkling for the Senatorship against Mr. Smith Weed, reprimands the Louisville *Courier-Journal* for assuming that President Cleveland will be renominated by his party in 1888. It should be remarked that the Louisville paper is waggishly opposed to Mr. Cleveland's nomination, but considers it inevitable, and declares beforehand its mirthful intention to support him if nominated, although it considers him grossly unfit for the place. Its New York contemporary thinks that the only danger of Mr. Cleveland's renomination arises from a mystification and misconception widely prevalent in the South that Mr. Cleveland is strong in New York, and will be able to secure the delegation of this State in the next national Convention. This opinion is in fact widely prevalent among greenhorns, so much so, indeed, that it may have a preponderant reflex influence upon the Democracy of New York. "It would indeed be the greatest political joke of the decade," says our waggish contemporary, "if men who feel thus should meet and accept as inevitable the easily preventable." Yes, it would be a joke fit to be repeated in any company of Democratic supporters of Mr. Conkling for the Senatorship as against Mr. Smith Weed. The two jokes together would not fail to set the table in a roar. If reinforced by the pleasantry of the Butler campaign of 1884 at any dinner party at the Manhattan Club, we would not be answerable for the consequences.

There was trouble of a very serious character in Tazewell Court-house, Virginia, a few days ago. Col. May, one of the counsel in a criminal case, was cross-examining a witness on a subject disagreeable to the witness, one Baldwin, who thereupon drew a pistol, and declared he would "settle" Col. May "if he reflected on his character." The Colonel drew a pistol also, to prepare for the settlement, but the officers seized Baldwin, and the affair went no further. As there had been no settlement, Baldwin was not called to account by the Court for a contempt, or any little thing of that kind. So he sent word to the Colonel that if he reflected on him in his argument on the following day he would hold him "personally responsible." The Colonel, however, says the local journal, "was making a powerful argument, and had discussed the salient points," when he got to the place where Baldwin's testimony was to be handled. Here the Colonel naturally "made an impressive pause," and then announced that he was going to do his duty by Baldwin, who thereupon made his appearance with a pistol and opened fire. The Colonel returned it, and the whole audience apparently joined in, and bullets were soon flying in all parts of the room. The Colonel received a ball in the leg; Capt. Tines was shot in the arm, the Rev. E. A. Tilling in the scalp, and John H. Witten had his front teeth shot out. Others had their clothing perforated. The judges do not appear to have taken part in the fray, but "behaved coolly," we are told, under fire. "Many people," the reporter says, "were glad after this that the trial was to end on the following day." Baldwin got off unhurt, having basely taken refuge in the jury room. Col May with Roman firmness offered to continue his argument with the ball in his leg, but his physician interfered.

The defeat of Mr. Goschen, Lord Salisbury's new Chancellor of the Exchequer, at Liverpool, following as it does his defeat at Edinburgh at the last election, is almost as heavy a blow for the Ministry as for him. The complete dislocation the Cabinet has undergone, and its shilly-shally policy in Ireland, have greatly weakened and discredited it with the public, and a few severe maulings in the House of Commons, such as it will probably receive, would compel it to try its luck again at the polls, or surrender at discretion. That it would get another lease of power in this way seems now unlikely, as a good many of the Liberal Unionists, to whose support it owes its existence, would almost certainly fail to be reëlected. When they were returned, anti-Gladstonite Liberals had not fully realized what a Tory Ministry kept in power by Liberal votes meant. The arrangement has disgusted and alarmed a good many moderate men, from the constitutional point of view, because it gives the office and the responsibility to Lord Salisbury, while giving the power to Lord Hartington. Lord Salisbury has been during the past year the constitutional adviser of the Crown, but he has taken no step without consulting Lord Hartington, who is not a minister at all. This is a sham of which the public has been growing more and more impatient.

The Italians sent a small force to Massowah, on the coast of the Red Sea, two years ago to take part in the British attempt to reach Khartum and occupy the Sudan. It was done from somewhat the same motives as actuated the Sardinians in taking part in the invasion of the Crimea in 1854—that is, a desire to form a sort of alliance with a great Power in view of future complications near home. The British invasion of the Sudan has failed, but the Italians have remained at Massowah, where they have from time to time attempted small demonstrations against the Arabs, in conjunction with the secular enemy of the Arabs, the Abyssinians. The Abyssinians are great fighters, and have, as their existence as a nation shows, generally got the better of the Arabs, but their luck or skill appears to have failed them at last, and they have shared the fate of the Egyptians in being cut to pieces, though led by their best general, Ras-a-lula. The small Italian force acting with them shared, or nearly shared, their fate. This has had the usual effect on the Italians at home. They are all for vengeance and the vindication of the honor of their arms, as the English were under similar circumstances. So the Chambers have voted almost unanimously more men and more money to pursue, in a deadly climate and through trackless wastes, an enemy who can never be conquered, and victory over whom has no result but the slaughter of so many men,

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, January 26, to TUESDAY, February 1, 1887, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE President has signed the act granting pensions to the soldiers and sailors of the Mexican war.

The President has vetoed the Senate bill granting a pension to Benjamin Obekiah. He has also vetoed a bill for the relief of H. K. Belding, a mail contractor, who asserts that in 1860 he performed service for which he was not paid, on intimation from the Postmaster-General that Congress would reimburse him. The President says: "It appears that this contractor, who in 1860 claimed that he continued full service upon the invitation of his own unanswered letter for less than four months, insists twenty-seven years after the date of the alleged service that he performed such service for seventeen months, and up to October, 1860. Not only has he himself in this manner almost conclusively shown that the claim now made and allowed is exorbitant, but the evidence gives rise to a strong presumption that it is entirely fictitious."

The President on Tuesday sent in a message vetoing the Senate bill granting a pension to Mrs. Margaret Dunlap, mother of James F. Dunlap of the Seventh Missouri Militia Cavalry, who died in 1864 of wounds received at the hands of a comrade. The President shows that Dunlap was the aggressor in the quarrel.

In the Senate on Wednesday Mr. Hoar earnestly pressed his motion for an investigation of the charges that political rights are denied to American citizens in Texas. He contrasted the allegations of Texas citizens with the outrages upon the American fishermen, and asked if American citizenship in Texas was any less sacred than the rights of American fishermen in Canadian waters. Mr. Hoar's resolution was adopted—31 to 26.

The Senate, on Wednesday in executive session, again rejected the nomination of J. C. Matthews (colored) to be Recorder of Deeds in the District of Columbia.

The Senate Committee on Post-offices and Post-roads on Wednesday agreed to report an original postal-telegraph bill as a substitute for that introduced by Senator Edmunds. The new bill provides for the establishment by the Postmaster General of a postal-telegraph system by contracting for the performance of the service with existing telegraph companies. The Government is required to furnish the offices and make provision for selling stamps to cover the charges. The schedule of rates is fixed at 20 cents for twenty words where the distance of transmission is 1,000 miles, and 5 cents for every additional 250 miles; provided, however, that no charge for twenty words or less shall be more than 50 cents. Night rates are fixed at 15 cents for 2,000 miles or under. All words except the date are to be counted, and for every five words or less in excess of twenty, an addition of one-fifth the twenty-word rate is to be charged. The press rates are fixed at not exceeding 35 cents for each 100 words sent at night and 75 cents during the day, and the same pro-rata for each word in excess of 100.

On Thursday the Senate, on motion of Mr. Cullom, adopted a resolution directing the Finance Committee to inquire why the Secretary of the Treasury does not include the $15,000,000 of fractional currency in the amounts available, and to report what legislation, if any, is necessary to compel him to do so. It also passed "The Dependent Relatives Pension Bill," the Pension Committee having reported the bill just as it came from the House. It is said it will take fifty millions from the Treasury. This bill changes the policy which the Republicans have kept upon the statute books since the war, placing upon the pension rolls soldiers engaged in any early war even if they joined in the rebellion. It will pension Jeff Davis, for instance.

The Senate Finance Committee on Tuesday morning agreed to report favorably the Freedman's Bank Bill with some amendments, the bill to refund tolls to certain States, which, it is expected, will require $20,000,000, and the bill to reimburse New York and other States for arms furnished to Union troops.

The House Foreign Affairs Committee on Thursday referred the Retaliation Bill to a subcommittee for careful consideration. The sentiment was averse to hasty action.

The River and Harbor Bill was passed on Thursday just as it came from the Committee by a vote of 154 to 94. This action makes it almost certain that a river and harbor bill will be passed at this session.

The Texas Senatorial contest ended on Tuesday in the election of John H. Reagan as United States Senator on the thirty-second ballot.

When Mr. Hearst (Dem.) presents his credentials as United States Senator from California at Washington, his claim to the seat will be contested by H. W. Vrooman, who has certificates that all the Republicans in the Legislature voted for him, and that he has therefore a majority of the legally-elected members of the Legislature.

It is said that Representative W. R. Cox of North Carolina, the civil-service reformer, will be the new Minister to Turkey.

It is settled now that Mr. C. N. Jordan, Treasurer of the United States, will relinquish his present office on May 1, in order to accept an office, probably the vice-presidency of the Western National Bank of the city of New York, now organizing, and which will be fully established by that date. It is also believed that Secretary Manning will soon resign, to be succeeded by Mr. Fairchild, and will possibly take the presidency of the same bank.

The decrease of the public debt for January was $9,750,000.

The report of the Commissioners of the Niagara Falls Reservation was presented in the New York Assembly on Monday night. Its estimates for the future are that the income for the coming year, plus the amount on hand, will about pay expenses. But after next year, the income from sales of property ceasing, the reservation will have to depend on fixed income from privileges, the inclined railroad, etc., which will not be sufficient.

A full force of new men was at work on all the piers in this city on Monday, and the longshore strikers were practically beaten. The freight-handlers of this city on Monday presented a demand for an increase of wages, and threatened to strike on Tuesday if it were not granted. They accordingly struck on Tuesday at most of the railroad piers in New York.

One incident of the strike was the attempt to blow up with dynamite the Old Dominion steamer *Guyandotte*, which left New York on Monday afternoon for Norfolk. The explosive was in a valise, and the infernal machine went off at about 5:45 P. M., knocking a big hole in the hurricane deck and injuring two men. The man who placed the valise on board has not been discovered. The *Guyandotte* put back to port.

The boot manufacturers of Worcester, Spencer, and North Brookfield, Mass., on Wednesday posted the following notice in their factories: "Recognizing the fact that justice can only be obtained by according to both employer and employee the right of individual contract for his or her labor, this factory will hereafter be open only to such operatives as will agree to deal individually with the firm or its accredited representative."

Ex-Alderman John O'Neil of this city was on Tuesday night found guilty of bribery in the Broadway Railroad scandal.

FOREIGN.

Contrary to the expectation of the most sanguine Liberals, Mr. George J. Goschen, Chancellor of the Exchequer, was on Wednesday defeated in the Exchange Division of Liverpool by Mr. Neville (Gladstonite), the vote being 3,217 to 3,210. The news was received at the different Liberal headquarters with the wildest enthusiasm. Mr. Neville's election has done almost as much as a general election could to clear the political atmosphere. It will make the Government more chary of dissolving Parliament.

Parliament reassembled on Thursday without any unusual demonstrations. The Queen's speech, after reviewing the peaceful relations of England with all the foreign Powers, says: "The condition of Ireland still requires your anxious attention. Grave crimes in that country have happily been rarer in the last few months than during the similar period of the preceding year; but the relations between the owners and occupiers of the land, which in the early autumn exhibited signs of improvement, have since been seriously disturbed in some districts by organized attempts to incite the latter class to combine against the fulfilment of their legal obligations. The efforts of the Government to cope with this evil have been seriously impeded by the difficulties incident to the method at present prescribed by statute for dealing with such offences. Your early attention will be called to proposals for the reform of legal procedure which seem necessary to secure prompt and efficient administration of the Criminal Law. Bills for the improvement of local government in England and Scotland will be laid before you. Should the circumstances render it possible, they will be followed by a measure dealing with the same subject in Ireland. A bill for improving and cheapening the process of private-bill legislation for England, Scotland, and Ireland will be submitted. You will be asked to consider measures having for their object the removal of hindrances which exist to the cheap and rapid transfer of land; to facilitate the provision of allotments for small householders, and to provide for the readier sale of glebe lands. A bill for altering the mode of levying tithes in England and Wales will be submitted. With regard to Scotland, you will be asked to consider measures for the reform of the universities, for completing the recent legislation as to the powers of the Secretary for Scotland, and for amending the procedure of the criminal courts."

In the House of Commons on Thursday night W. H. Smith, First Lord of the Treasury, gave notice of the Government's intention to introduce measures for the reform of the rules of Parliamentary procedure, and said he would ask facilities for giving precedence to the consideration of these measures, that they might be at once discussed from day to day. Mr. Smith said the discussion of the procedure measures would be subject only to such interruptions as might be necessary for the conduct of urgent business. Lord Randolph Churchill explained the reasons which led him to resign from the Cabinet. He said he retired because the Government's naval and military estimates exceeded £31,000,000, without counting the large supplementary estimates. He insisted on having these estimates reduced, but his colleagues refused to cut them down, "although," added Lord Randolph, "I had been urging economy ever since August." Lord Randolph then referred to the Government's foreign policy, and declared amid loud Opposition cheers: "I also objected to the Government's policy of needless interference in the affairs of other nations. The Marquis of Salisbury wrote, defending the estimates in the face of possible war, as he said. There was no course left open for me but to write my resignation." The letter in which Lord Salisbury accepted Lord Randolph's resignation was read. In it he said: "The outlook on the Continent is so very black that it is not too much

to say that the chances are in favor of a war at an early date. When once it has broken out we shall not be secure from being involved. Therefore, we cannot accept the responsibility of refusing supplies which the War and Navy Ministers have declared necessary."

Mr. Gladstone made a brief speech, in which he applauded what he called Lord Randolph's sacrifices in behalf of a sound economic policy. He found no fault with the Government's foreign policy, but strongly objected to the severance of the Treasury portfolio from the Premiership, and the combining of the latter with the heavy duties of Foreign Secretary. He hoped the country would oppose the oppression of Bulgaria by a foreign Power. He greatly regretted that the Queen's speech had not expressed regret at the recent lamentable evictions in Kerry.

In the House of Lords, the Marquis of Salisbury, alluding to Lord Randolph's resignation, said he thought the execution of Lord Randolph Churchill's policy at the present time would inflict an injury on the public service, because it was a time when no one could tell what crisis might happen. The Marquis said he hoped the Conservatives would soon again have the advantage of Lord Randolph Churchill's services. He said that nothing known to him gave an impression that there was imminent danger of war.

Sir Michael Hicks-Beach made a long and able speech in the House of Commons on Friday evening. "The Government," he said, "will soon introduce legislation for dealing with the condition of the miserable Inhabitants congested in certain districts of Ireland." He denied most emphatically that he had ever exercised a dispensing power in granting Government aid to sheriffs for evictions, but admitted that he had put pressure on landlords to induce them to come to terms. Finally, he foreshadowed coercion in the following words: "I will not enter into the details as to legislative measures with regard to Irish criminal law. We have done what we could with the tools ready to our hands; but difficulties and delays inseparable from the working of the ordinary criminal law as it now exists render it in our judgment insufficient to cope with such proceedings as described in the name 'plan of campaign.' We are pledged to maintain the Union; but it is no use to maintain the Union—it is worse than useless to maintain the Union—it would be better to have separation, unless with the Union we maintain the reign of law in Ireland."

Lord Randolph Churchill made a telling speech in the House of Commons on Monday night. The Liberal-Unionist alliance he declared he had never regarded as other than a useful crutch. As for Mr. Chamberlain's latest suggestion for a rounder round table at which Salisbury and Gladstone should meet, he laughed at it. He spoke contemptuously of Mr. Chamberlain's extraordinary gyrations, and asserted strongly that his own resignation was not upon the question of fortifying coaling stations, but of general retrenchment. He challenged his late colleagues to appoint a special committee to inquire into the army and navy estimates. "It is not the first time," he added in conclusion, "that it has been my ill fortune to wrestle with the Tory party; but on this great question of retrenchment and economy I patiently await the judgment of Cæsar."

Mr. Parnell moved the following amendment to the address in reply to the Queen's speech: "The relations between the owners and the occupiers of land in Ireland have not been seriously disturbed in the cases of those who granted to their tenants such abatements as were demanded by the prices of agricultural and pastoral produce. The remedy for the crisis in Irish agrarian affairs will be found, not in an increased stringency of criminal procedure or in the pursuit of such novel, doubtful, and unconstitutional measures as those recently taken by her Majesty's Government, but in such reform of the law and system of Government as will satisfy the needs and secure the confidence of the Irish people."

The Government's proposals for the reform of the procedure rules of Parliament leave the numerical limitations for enforcing closure the same as before, but transfer the initiative for demanding closure to any member who has obtained the Speaker's consent to make the motion. Motions to adjourn the House and discuss business of urgent public importance, which have been dependent hitherto upon the consent of forty members, shall not in the future be made without the consent of the Speaker, to whom a statement upon the subject proposed to be discussed must be submitted in writing.

Mr. Chamberlain writes to the London *Times* at considerable length to show the practicability of the adaptation of the Canadian Constitution to Ireland, to meet the fundamental conditions of Lord Hartington's plan for the government of Ireland. Mr. Gladstone, writing to a Glasgow paper, says there are many circumstantial differences between the cases of Canada and Ireland, but within and under them there is a strong analogy. In the main they have the same friends and foes. Toryism has not supported freedom in Canada, and resists it in Ireland.

Mr. Gladstone, in an article in the February number of the *Nineteenth Century*, contends that though Ireland formerly gained concessions from England through fear, an attempt by Ireland to repeat her former tactics would be like warring against heaven now. England's strength compared with Ireland's is as ten to one. He would rather rely, he says, upon England's innate sense of justice. Mr. Gladstone defends the American donations to Ireland, on the ground that they have done much to stave off famine.

It is announced that the British Imperial Government has consented to send out men-of-war next season to assist in the protection of the Dominion fisheries.

Two of the seized American schooners have recently been released on the payment of nominal fines. United States Minister Phelps had an hour's conference with the Marquis of Salisbury on Friday at the Premier's request to discuss the Canadian fisheries question. The conference was most cordial on both sides.

There was terrible rioting in the Petershill, Carrickhill, and Shankhill Districts of Belfast on Saturday night. The trouble originated through soldiers belonging to the West Surrey Regiment insulting a number of Catholic civilians. The latter retaliated by stoning the soldiers, many of whom were injured. This was followed by wholesale arrests, more than 100 persons being placed in the lock-up. On Sunday evening the rioting was renewed, and the police and the mob exchanged shots. Many persons received gunshot wounds, and a large number of others were more or less bruised by being struck by stones.

Commander Cameron has offered to lead a second expedition to relieve Emin Bey. The sum of £3,000 has been offered towards the expenses. Henry M. Stanley telegraphed from Cairo on Monday as follows: "Nubar Pasha desires me to contradict the reports that the Egyptian Government is raising difficulties for the Emin Bey relief expedition. The men and everything I have asked for will be ready for departure on Monday." Mr. Stanley adds that everything is proceeding satisfactorily.

A Grand Imperial Council was held at Vienna on Saturday, at which it was decided to convoke the delegations for March to vote extra credits of $15,000,000 for the army and a special credit for the equipment of the Landsturm.

The Vienna *Fremdenblatt's* announcement of the decisions of the Imperial Council caused a heavy fall on the Vienna Bourse on Monday, and there was almost a panic. It is reported that a credit of 46,000,000 florins will be demanded exclusively for the regular army, and additional credits for the Landsturm.

The Berlin *Post* (semi-official), in a leading article entitled "On the Edge of the Knife," on Monday said: "The position of Gen. Boulanger is now not only strengthened, but is becoming unassailable. He is the master of the situation to a degree that neither Thiers nor Gambetta ever was. He can only govern the situation by keeping up the warlike impetus he has given to it. The impression left on the minds of all observers is that, the armaments of France having been pushed forward with feverish energy, Boulanger no longer has the power to lead the people back to the path of peace. If he attempted to do so, he would have to quit his post burdened with reproach for having led France to the brink of a great peril." The National Liberal party in their manifesto say: "Never since the Franco-German war has the danger of a great conflict been so near. No statesman can form any certain conclusion as to the future, even for a few weeks. The peace of Europe rests at this moment solely upon the strength, readiness for action, and moral trustworthiness of the German Army." The *Post's* article caused a panic on the Paris Bourse on Tuesday, three per cent. rentes declining 2 francs and 67½ centimes. The bourses of Berlin, Vienna, and other capitals were panicky. Everywhere the belief that war is imminent is prevalent. It is said that the Emperor William has finally decided that the question must be settled in his lifetime.

The *Pesther Lloyd* publishes a communication from Berlin which it asserts is from an authentic source, and which states that war between Germany and France is regarded as more probable at Berlin than is to be inferred from the information which is permitted to be accessible to the public. "It is erroneous," says the letter, "to suppose that the semi-official press of Germany publish the details of French armaments merely for the purpose of influencing the people in the coming elections. We happen to know that Prince Bismarck recently, when he had that view of the case presented to him, quoted, in reply, from 'Faust,' the words, 'Thou resemblest the spirit whom thou comprehendest; not me.' The Prince added that the statements made in behalf of the German Government respecting French armaments were not put forth as any part of election manœuvring, but as a warning, and he said the cold douche had been turned on with less force this time in order not to provoke the people too much, but it would be turned on with greater strength if that was found to be necessary."

At a court reception at Berlin on Friday Emperor William informed the assembled officers that 72,000 men of the reserves would be called out immediately and be drilled in the use of the new repeating rifle. He added: "This action will produce loud rumors of war, but there will be no war. The reserves will be called only to accustom them to new weapons." It is reported that the Crown Prince at the same reception said the situation was still serious.

An order has been issued forbidding the exportation of horses across the German frontier in any direction. In special cases deserving of exception, exemption will be made from the present and from future measures controlling the exportation of these animals.

In the French Chamber of Deputies on Friday M. Laguerre's motion to abolish the censorship of plays was opposed by the Government, and was rejected by a vote of 338 to 169.

The Bulgarian delegates, in an interview with Premier Tricoupis of Greece, said that they would never yield on the question of changing the present Government of Bulgaria

OUR STANDING ARMY OF PENSIONERS.

It has always been our boast as Americans that we are not obliged to support a great standing army, and that we thus escape the crushing burden of those vast military establishments which Great Britain and the Continental nations are forced to maintain even in time of peace. But the people of the United States are already supporting a standing army of pensioners which approaches in numbers the dimensions of the standing armies of the greatest Powers, and the annual pension list in this country calls for an expenditure almost as large as the cost of sustaining those immense military establishments. If the new Pension Bill which has just passed Congress becomes a law, and an allowance of $12 a month is granted to any veteran of any war who claims that he cannot earn a living, the number of pensioners will far exceed that of any standing army in Europe, and the yearly appropriation for their support will be vastly greater in amount than the annual expense of any such army.

When the pending pension bill was before the House, one or two inquisitive members sought to gain some idea as to its probable cost. The promoters of the measure, as usual in such cases, rather resented such questions, and tried to dismiss the matter of expense as worth little thought. Being pressed to make at least a guess at the probable sum, the Chairman of the Pension Committee presented the only data for an estimate which anybody had thought it worth while to collect before pushing the proposition to an issue. It has been learned by inquiries addressed to the local authorities that in 1,240 of the 2,583 counties in the United States there are 5,172 soldiers and sailors now supported in public institutions of charity. On this basis it was estimated that there are in all such institutions in the country 10,344 veterans As to the number in the soldiers' homes, both State and national, there was "no exact information"; but the Committee made a guess that there were not over 3,000. They then made another guess at the number who are not supported by public charity, but who receive private relief from persons not legally bound for their support, and, allowing five to each county, added 12,905 for this class, making in all 26,249 probable new pensioners under the bill, to whom were further added 6,856 as the number of those claimants whose cases are now pending in the Pension Office under former laws, but who naturally would avail themselves of the more generous terms of this measure. This makes 33,105 veterans of the Union army in the civil war who were expected by the Committee to avail themselves of the $144 yearly allowance. But the bill includes also soldiers in the Mexican and Indian wars, and, adding 10 or 15 per cent. to the above total for this class, Mr. Matson, Chairman of the Committee, held that "it would still require less than $6,000,000 per annum to pay the expenses of all the pensions provided for in the bill."

Mr. Matson insisted that this was a liberal estimate of the cost of the new measure, but it only requires the most cursory acquaintance with previous pension legislation to show that it is ridiculously inadequate. Mr. McKinley of Ohio says that, instead of requiring "less than $6,000,000," this bill (with the allied Mexican Pension Bill, which went through the House on the same day) "will take from $25,000,000 to $50,000,000 annually out of the Treasury, and I do not know but a great deal more." The highest of Mr. McKinley's estimates does not so far exceed the guess of the Committee as the cost of the Arrears of Pensions Bill (which has already taken more than $218,000,000) exceeds the mere bagatelle of $20,000,000 which its promoters fixed as the maximum possible cost of that scheme. A candid consideration of the facts indicates that $50,000,000 a year will fall far short of the demands which will be made upon the Treasury under this bill.

Four years ago the Commissioner of Pensions, in his annual report, made some calculations which show that 2,049,969 different individuals enlisted in the volunteer forces for longer or shorter periods during the civil war, to whom should be added the 16,422 in the regular army and navy at the beginning of the civil war, making a grand total of 2,066,391 who fought on the Union side. Of these, 359,496 died in the service, leaving more than 1,700,000 alive at the close of the struggle. On the 30th of June last there were upon the roll the names of 268,807 men who served in the army or navy during the war, and incurred wounds or disabilities entitling them to pensions under our present most liberal laws. Making a generous allowance for the deaths among ex-soldiers since the war, it seems reasonable to conclude that there must be still surviving nearly 1,000,000 veterans who are not entitled to pensions under existing law—for the longevity of soldiers, when it is a question of pensions, is proverbial, as is illustrated by the fact that of our little force in the war of 1812, which ended nearly three-quarters of a century ago, there were no less than 1,539 drawing pensions last June. Besides, there are to be added to the survivors of the civil war the men still living who fought in the Mexican war, the Seminole and Black Hawk wars, and other little struggles which, although they cut but a slight figure in history, always develop an unexpectedly large number of survivors when there is an offer of pensions. There can apparently be no doubt that there are a million men in this country who served in one or another war, and who become possible candidates for pensions under the proposed bill.

In considering how many of this million would get pensions, it must be remembered that practically all the men who were either wounded in battle or incurred disability which a conscientious person could attribute to army service, are already pensioners. We are to deal now with a class which includes all the shirks who tried to keep out of harm's way, all the men who entered the army not from motives of patriotism, but because they were either attracted into it by the great bounties offered or were forced into it by draft—in short, all of what that gallant Union soldier, Gen. Bragg of Wisconsin, called in the House the other day "the rubbish of the army." Many of these are men with little self-respect, who, no matter how vigorous they may be, are eagerly looking for a chance of getting supported at the expense of somebody else. Moreover it must be kept in mind that any chance to get a living at the public expense offers a temptation before which many men who would ordinarily be considered men of self-respect are sure to fall, since it is so easy for any one to persuade himself that he is not able to work when he finds that it is not necessary to work. Of the million men who might apply for pensions under the pending bill, it is a moderate estimate to say that fully half would get them; the probability is that much more than 500,000 would be found on the roll within a short period. Half a million men would call for $72,000,000 a year.

Taking the moderate estimate of 500,000, let us see how our standing army of pensioners will compare with the standing armies of European nations, using the latest figures, in most cases for the current fiscal year:

Great Britain (regular army)	209,480
Austria-Hungary "	286,423
Germany "	449,342
France "	523,283
U. S. pension roll (all classes) now	365,783
U. S. pension roll as proposed, at least	865,783

Compare now the entire cost of the military establishments, including ordinary and extraordinary expenses, in these great Powers, with the present and the probable cost of our standing army of pensioners:

Great Britain	$102,477,010
Austria-Hungary	51,307,602
Germany	91,522,495
France	126,366,086
United States annual pension bill now,	75,000,000
United States annual pension bill as proposed, at least	147,000,000

In other words, our pension roll already is almost double the standing army of Great Britain, far exceeds that of Austria-Hungary, is more than two-thirds as large as the French army, and more than three-fourths that of Germany, while a moderate estimate of the additions probable under the pending bill would swell its dimensions to the appalling total of 865,000 persons, against only 523,283 in the largest of these European armies. The regular annual pension appropriation bill recently passed by Congress far exceeds the entire cost of maintaining the whole military establishment of Austria-Hungary, and is about three-fourths as large as the cost of that establishment in either Great Britain or Germany, while the $147,000,000 to which it would be swollen at the very least under the pending bill would make the burden more than half as large again as the cost of the standing army even in Germany.

The standing armies of the great Powers are quite as heavy burdens upon the people of Europe as they have ever been represented. But, unless a halt is called, the rage of demagogues will have imposed upon the people of America a heavier burden of taxation for pensions than even the French or the Germans have to endure to maintain their vast military establishments. Fortunately there is a chance to make public sentiment felt in this matter before the President will be called upon to act; and while the press may do much to strengthen the President to veto the measure, private appeals from individuals, particularly from such as served in the war, may be even more potent.

HOW THE INTER-STATE COMMERCE BILL WILL WORK.

THE President has not yet acted upon the Inter-State Commerce Bill, but, with the great majorities in both houses of Congress in its favor, even an Executive veto will hardly prevent its becoming a law. Hence it may be assumed that this new departure is now definitively taken, after the many futile starts at the Capitol in the same direction. It is taken, but no one can foretell where it will land the public and the transportation interests directly affected by it. The very uncertainty as to its effect was, indeed, the most striking incident of its enactment. The debates immediately preceding its passage, even, justify the assertion that Congress has never before made so conscious a leap in the dark. They were marked by features the like of which, we venture to say, rarely, if ever, have been seen in any legislative body in this or any other country. Here was a measure the most important provisions of which, viz., the long and short-haul and anti-pool clauses, had a vital bearing upon the commerce, industry, and agriculture of the whole land. They were retained in spite of the most earnest protests of the principal commercial bodies East and West. They were so framed that every Senator and member who spoke upon the bill, including its authors and most active promoters, admitted their want of clearness and their liability to every sort of interpretation. Not one pretended to understand their meaning, or to be able to measure exactly their probable practical working. But, while all admitted their uncertainty, no appeal for amendment availed. It was clear, in fact, from the beginning, that the majority in each house were entirely under the influence of the belief that Congress must do something to satisfy the popular clamor for anti-railroad legislation. Hence the law-makers were less disturbed by the risk of subjecting the most important material interests of the entire nation to a crude and incomprehensible law, than of exposing themselves to the chance of popular disfavor.

There is a strong probability that the law will be a failure, with the single exception of the provision requiring publicity of tariffs. Not that the latter is the only good feature of the law, or that we consider Federal supervision over common carriers altogether impracticable. On the contrary, we hold that it contains other provisions, such as the clause prohibiting discrimination in rates, which, if enforcible, would correct acknowledged evils. We hold that a moderate exercise of authority by the national Government over the transportation interests, within practicable limits, and working through the natural influence of the Government and the force of public opinion, rather than through over-exacting legislative prescriptions, would be of great public benefit. But we contend that the law as it stands is nothing less than an attempt to substitute for the established business organism, so to speak, of the country, a piece of State socialism at variance with the real interests of the people and with the national character. It is evident, too, that the very effort to provide a solution for perhaps the most intricate problem of modern times, all at once and by force of one law, inevitably led to the creation of inadequate machinery, of a multiplicity of functions and complication of details, and that in its practical application the law will encounter such obstacles as will reduce it to a dead letter. This is our deliberate conclusion, based upon careful study. Space does not permit us to state all the reasons for it, but we will give the principal ones.

In dealing first with the focal point, as it were, the long and short-haul clause, the task is easy, as the proof is furnished by Senator Cullom himself. During the final discussion in the Senate, the few of his colleagues who had the independence and courage to expose the true character of the bill subjected him to a close examination as to his construction of the clause. He was led to say that, as he and the other members of the Conference Committee understood it, the qualification of the prohibition to charge more for a short than for a long haul by the terms in the clause, "under substantially similar circumstances and conditions," meant that such prohibition would apply only and exclusively in cases of transportation where certain circumstances and conditions combined. "To my mind," the Senator said, "these words 'circumstances and conditions' are full of meaning. *They comprehend all the circumstances and conditions that may justify differences in rates, such as competition with other railroads and with water routes, the volume and character of business at different points, the difference in terminal expenses and the cost of service in each case.*" This means clearly, and the Senator did not deny it when it was so construed by his colleagues in his hearing, that the inhibition is not intended to be enforcible in any case in which any of the defined circumstances and conditions obtain, or, inversely stated, that the inhibition applies only in cases where none of these circumstances and conditions operate. Well did a Senator defy all his colleagues to cite a single possible case in all railroad experience not coming within this alternative, and well might another exclaim, "With that construction, all the beneficial part of the bill is given away."

We need hardly add that, with this construction as a fulcrum, it will not tax the ingenuity of railroad managers very seriously to lift the short and long-haul clause out of the way. In this view, it is perhaps not necessary to dwell upon the practical results of a possible enforcement of the clause. It may be taken for granted, however, that such a contingency would prove a real calamity to the public, while it might be a real boon to the common carriers. For the law does not prescribe, as a good portion of the public seem to imagine, a fixed rate per mile according to distance. Under its language, it will be possible, as Senator Cullom distinctly admitted, to charge for a short haul any rate not higher than and not equal to the rate for the longest haul. In other words, local rates may be charged for any distance just under the rate for the longest distance. It is certain, therefore, that, in case of an enforcement, all the carriers whose earnings from through business are unimportant as compared with local earnings, would go out of the former, but find more than compensation for the loss of it by increasing local rates. Take, for instance, all the Pacific railroads and all the lines from Missouri River points to Denver. With all of them the profit from through business forms but a small percentage of their total net revenue, and they would all largely gain by withdrawing from it and raising their local tariff. But such a policy would work immeasurable mischief for all the so-called competitive points, which are the chief commercial and industrial centres. For "to get out of" or "withdraw from" the through business would really mean for the railroads to do it at rates, fixed for the sake of high local rates, that would entirely paralyze the interior commerce of the country. This would, of course, forthwith produce an irresistible reaction against the law that would not be long in making itself felt at the Capitol.

To come now to the feature next in importance, the interdiction of pooling. It is a characteristic fact that, while as to the long and short haul a door was deliberately left open for its modification in practice, pooling is prohibited peremptorily and absolutely. Yet the petitions and remonstrances from the most important Boards of Trade and Chambers of Commerce before Congress had emphatically protested against such prohibition, as pools had unquestionably proved a great gain to the general business community by securing stable rates. Moreover, the experience of every other country is to the same effect. In Germany, Austria, and Russia, where there is partial Government ownership of the railroads, the Governments directly foster not only interior but international pools as the best means of insuring satisfactory income to the roads and of meeting the wants of the public as to rates. We deem it as certain as anything, in the solution of the railroad problem in the United States, that the national Government and the public will, after a short period of trial, unite in adopting the correct view of pooling

Meantime, how will the prohibition work? We believe that among the scores of men of the sharpest wit and longest experience intrusted with the management of the principal American railways, there is not one who has not already devised a method of his own by which the object of the pools may be reached in ways not in formal contravention of the law. One of the means to secure to railroads the advantages of pools without infringement of the law might be a system of actually dividing and carrying traffic at the same rates, instead of the present system of not dividing traffic, but dividing the earnings for it with hauling allowances. Then pools might be arranged within the limits of States, so as to exempt them from the operation of the law under the proviso of section 1, and settlements be made between such State pools. Independent of such resorts, we think it a very open question whether the limitations of the powers of State corporations by the anti-pool section will be sustained in courts of law or equity. The consolidation of direct or indirect ownership—the former exemplified by the absorption of many local lines into the New York Central system, and the latter by the form of con-

trol of Western lines by the Pennsylvania Company—would be another method of getting beyond the scope of the law, in keeping with the continuous tendency since the close of the civil war towards the evolution of great systems of lines through the absorption of the weak by the strong.

The strongest evidence of incompetence to deal with the subject lies in the provisions for the execution of the law. They create as the main instrument for this purpose a commission of five members and one secretary. It may be assumed, under the rules of ordinary business life, that those who own the stock and bonds of transportation companies know more about the transportation business than those who do not. But the opposite view prevails in the law, as owners of such securities are disqualified for service on the Commission. The six men composing this body are expected to perform prodigious feats of labor, the prescribed extent of which only proves that the framers of the law had no conception of what they were really requiring. The Commissioners are constituted, indeed, not only stationary and travelling investigators of and judges upon any and all transgressions of the law, but also examiners and regulators of the accounts and traffic relations, and collaters and digesters of the regular annual reports of the common carriers placed under their supervision. The magnitude of the burden thus imposed upon the Commission can be easily seen. Under the terms of the law, any person in the United States has an unqualified right to complain to the Commission of any supposed or real grievance against any common carrier. Now, considering this and the other provision of the law, that "all rates shall be just and reasonable," and considering also the constitutional inclination of most producers and shippers to look upon common carriers as their natural enemies, the inevitable result can be readily conceived. The Commission will be simply overwhelmed by a flood of grievances. The mass of material of this sort continually accumulating in the general offices of any one important railroad would furnish a measure of the vast uncontrollable aggregate that will pour in upon the Commission. We do not hesitate to say that any one of the great trunk lines will furnish sufficient matter for months of unceasing inquiry by the six men. Yet the law compels them to hear complaints not only against every railroad, but against every other common carrier by land and ocean, lake and river!—and not only to receive complaints against all these from any one who chooses to make them, but to carry on regular prosecutions of the offending common carriers in the Federal courts.

Their physical inability will be in the way, too, of the fulfilment of the other duties put upon the Commissioners. It implies almost childish ignorance to expect them to be able, in addition to their other task, to examine and report upon the financial condition, the revenues, the systems of account, all the methods of operation of each and every common carrier throughout the land—in other words, to achieve a work that is now being done and can only be done literally by tens of thousands of men under the direction of hundreds of experts distributed through hundreds of railroad offices If what the law aims at is to be really accomplished, nothing short of the organization of a regular department in Washington, with bureaus in every State and Territory, will do it.

We have stated the main reasons for our conviction that the law as it stands cannot be executed in practice. But we should consider it a national misfortune if this awkward attempt should result in the entire failure of railroad regulation by the Federal Government. Nor do we fear such an outcome. We believe, on the contrary, that this first experiment will gradually lead to a better understanding of the true requirements of the case, and to sound legislation in accordance with them.

IRELAND.—JURIES, THE LORD MAYOR'S BANQUET, EVICTIONS.

DUBLIN, January 19, 1887.

THE unsound state of feeling in Ireland is in no way more strikingly shown than in the condition and prospects of the jury system—the relations between jurors and the letter of the law. In all cases connected with politics or the tenure of land, however clear the evidence and the judge's charge, there is not the slightest chance of obtaining a conviction unless the jury has been "packed"—unless, roughly speaking, all Catholics have been, by challenges or "stand-asides," eliminated from the chosen twelve. A few weeks ago I had some personal experience of the kind. I was on a jury to try a peasant for having assaulted a policeman at a seizure for rent. There was a majority of Catholics on the panel, but only three or four were allowed to enter the box. The evidence was of a conflicting character. Against the apparently straightforward testimony of two policemen, a positive alibi was sworn to by some eight peasants, one of whom declared that he himself had thrown the stone. On our retiring to consider the verdict, it was evident that agreement was impossible. Three declared they would not believe the testimony of the police under the circumstances, seven that the evidence as to alibis by Irish peasants was worthless, and two were undecided as to their verdict. It was the second time the case had been tried within a few days, and the annoyance of the judge at the result was undisguised.

Conceptions of law in Ireland are poisoned at their source by the sense that the wishes of the minority prevail instead of the convictions of the majority. And the very effort of the Government to enforce and uphold the law under the present régime still further complicates matters. To secure convictions in certain important cases, Catholics are told to "stand aside"—an outrage to Catholic feeling throughout the country. To secure the intellect of the community and encourage lawyers to stand by the powers that be, friendly lawyers are appointed to influential posts, and, having served there, are promoted to the highest offices. The judge is by the people too often rightly regarded as one whose business it is, not to hold the scales of justice even, but to obtain convictions. In the above case the judge had been for long years in the Government service, and he carried with him to the bench all the proclivities of the Crown prosecutor—cross-examining the witnesses towards the guilt of the prisoner, and charging heavily against him. Frequently the judges have put off sentencing the prisoners, in momentous agrarian cases, until the end of assizes, so as not to alarm jurors by the severity of sentences following their verdicts. We now have the possible severity of the sentence considered, and naturally considered, by jurors.

I was much struck by the remark of one of the jurors in the case referred to: "Do you think I would find him guilty? Don't we all know the judge wants to make an example of him?" Like most ethical questions in troublous times and a disordered condition of society, the obligations of a juror's oath are not simple, however dangerous the admission may appear. British liberty has been much "broadened down" by the refusal of jurors to find verdicts upon the clearest evidence and the most direct dicta of the judge, this refusal having led to the modification and amelioration of the laws. Human feeling is approvingly permitted to play a large part in verdicts. A few years ago the inmate of an English prison made a savage attack upon a warder. The evidence was unquestionable. The law, as laid down by the judge, necessitated a conviction; yet the jury unhesitatingly acquitted the prisoner, and all England approved. The warder had killed a mouse which the prisoner had domesticated in his cell. Either the jury system must go down in Ireland, or the laws and sentences must be modified so as to meet the average sense of right and wrong of jurors. One of the worst heritages of misgovernment and degradation is the undermining of respect for truth. A people too weak to defend themselves are apt to shelter behind falsehood. Many will be the sufferers—great, doubtless, will be the laxity of the law in many directions, before the people of this country come to regard the sanctity of an oath as a free community regards it—before they learn to regard deceit as a source of weakness instead of a shield for the suffering and oppressed.

A few evenings ago the Mansion House presented an interesting spectacle. In the great Round Room built for the festivities with which, in 1821, George IV. was welcomed to Dublin, the Lord Mayor gave a banquet in honor of Mr. Labouchere, M. P., and Mr. Conybeare, M. P., as representatives of the English friends of home rule. The change was great from such banquets of the pre-Parnellite period. "This is a different Dublin from the Dublin I knew ten years ago," remarked a guest who had been absent from Ireland for some time. Formerly the Lord Lieutenant used to be the guest whom the New Year's banquet was designed to honor. "The Queen" was the chief toast, the Lord Lieutenant's speech was the great event of the evening; the judges, Government officials, the officers of the garrison, and of the war ships in harbor were the principal guests. How great is the change!—an uncompromising Home-Ruler in the civic chair; Irish members under the shadow of a state prosecution, and English Radicals, the most honored guests, the rank and file being the leaders of the people in the corporation, in the wards, in trade societies. "The old order changed, giving place to the new." The brilliant "V. R." in gas jets which used to crown the dais has been removed, and a harp with shamrocks substituted; and for the toast of "The Queen," that of "Our Native Land" was given. Contrary to the preconceived ideas of many regarding the democratizing of institutions, the Mansion House is, under the new régime, a much better kept, brighter, and more tastefully decorated place than formerly. "The people," who are unaccustomed to brightness and embellishment at home, appear to appreciate and demand them in their collective institutions more than do the class who, in their personal surroundings, have such tastes constantly gratified. It is pleasant to be able to add that although scantiness of wardrobe was in some instances shown in the absence of evening dress, and although the supply of wines was unstinted, the general de-

meanor of the company compared favorably with that of the more select assemblages of former times.

The warm approval of the conduct of the Irish movement generally, and of the "plan of campaign" in particular, evinced by the guests of that evening, as lately by many British friends upon British platforms, is striking and encouraging: yet the masses of the thoughtful and the educated and well-to-do who tacitly approve of the same in Ireland do not practically throw themselves into the movement. It is easier to see the rights and wrongs of a contest from a distance than on the battle-field and in the confusion of the campaign. Moreover, the rights and wrongs of actual warfare are, according to present ideas, more easily defined than is a struggle such as that now waged in Ireland. Declare war, dress men in uniform, sound the bugle, give the word of command, and murder becomes right, the seizure of the enemy's property is praiseworthy, every underhand trick and lying subterfuge is accepted as necessary. The moral laws are suspended. Proclaim peace, call off the troops, everything falls into its natural place—lying becomes lying—robbery, robbery—murder, murder. But how is this Irish warfare conducted? By supporting all who declare themselves unable to meet their engagements with their landlords; by branding as selfish and as traitors those who on an estate may be better able to pay than others, and who are willing to pay; by claiming for the movement a constitutional basis, and yet supporting the people in opposition to the laws and the constituted authorities; classing the good landlord and the bad landlord together; acknowledging and supporting local associations which support their members in strikes against rents for property created by the landlord, as well as against rents for that created by the tenant. In effect, sympathy is proffered to the tenant, no matter how much he may be responsible for his own misfortunes; while open or effective sympathy is withheld from those on the other side, no matter how innocent they may be—whether a Mr. Field struck down by the assassin for his honest verdict as a juror, or the Curtin sisters still shamefully persecuted for defending their hearth and the gray hairs of their father from the midnight marauders. In the destruction of the landlord's interest in land, land as a security for debts of any kind is made valueless. In the grim holding on of tenants to their little places, cottiers and laborers see a warrant for giving as much trouble as possible to their landlords. Landlords prefer a ruined or a boarded-up piece of property to one which, in occupation, may bring them into odium, and so the ownership of land and houses tends more and more to fall into the hands of those who are callous as to the opinion of either tenant or public.

"And yet all this must be; through no other possible means is there a way out of it," was in effect, in answer to a private communication, the expression of opinion of one of the most high-minded and clear-sighted of Englishmen. That the conclusion of the contest may not be too long delayed is most earnestly to be desired, for the confusion of public and private ideas of rectitude, such as now exist here, is perhaps more demoralizing and irremediable than the disturbance of ordinary warfare would be. The agitation can reach a resting-point only in some form of home government, and in the immediate or prospective abrogation of the dual ownership of land. But it is not an agitation resting upon clearly defined moral lines like that for the abolition of slavery. It is largely necessitated by the abuse of rights upon the acknowledgment of which civilized society rests, not of arbitrary claims opposed to civilization. Every phase of both the present agitation and the coming settlement is therefore full of perplexity to persons not endowed with the happy and sustaining faculty of seeing only one side of the question.

The scenes at the evictions now going on at Glenbeigh and elsewhere are heartrending, and are profoundly stirring public feeling in England. But if extremities are never to be resorted to in Ireland with people who appear unable to pay rent, we shall have a permanent premium on the simulachres of poverty, and an extension of the limits within which too many of our population are satisfied to increase, under circumstances which preclude any but a low degree of civilization. D. B.

CARDUCCI.

ALBERGO PELLEGRINO,
BOLOGNA, January 10, 1887.

Qui
in agosto e settembre MDCCCXIX
albergò
e per la libertà congiurò
Giorgio Gordon lord Byron
che alla Grecia la vita
all'Italia diè il cuore e l'ingegno
del quale
niuno surse tra i moderni più potente
d'accompagnare alla poesia l'azione
niuno più inclito e pietoso
a cantare le glorie e le sventure
del nostro popolo

a ricordo
con gratitudine d'italiano
Francesco Ravaldoni
pose
1 gennaio MDCCCLXXXVII.*

THE *qui* means the Pellegrino Hotel in Bologna, where, if police records did not suffice to prove how Byron was dogged by the authorities, suspected of conspiring with secret societies against the Austrians and for the independence of Italy, we have Rogers's kindly memory of their meeting:

"'Twas where hangs aloft
That ancient sign, the Pilgrim welcoming
All who arrive there—all, perhaps, save those
Clad like himself, with staff and scallop-shell,
Those on a pilgrimage. And now approached
Wheels, through the lofty porticoes surrounding
Arch beyond arch, a shelter or a shade
As the sky changes. To the gate they came;
And, ere the man had half his story done,
Mine host received the Master—one long used
To sojourn among strangers, everywhere.
. . . . . Much had passed
Since last we parted; and those five short years,
Much had they told! His clustering locks were turned
Gray; nor did aught recall the youth that swam
From Sestos to Abydos. Yet his voice
Still it was sweet; still from his eye the thought
Flashed lightning-like, nor lingered on the way,
Waiting for words. Far, far into the night
We sat conversing—no unwelcome hour,
The hour we met; and when Aurora rose,
Rising, we climbed the rugged Apennine."

Here at Bologna as in Venice and Ravenna, Byron's heart beat in unison with the dreams of liberty, even as he had sympathized with the Americans and later with the French, till Napoleon turned tyrant. This, more than his poetry, which has never been decently translated, is the hold he has on Italians, whose poets, if you note, from Dante downwards, have always been patriots and *politicians*. These may seem contradictory terms, but they are not so in reality. I remember being much struck with a remark made by Prof. Nichol, author of the 'Astronomy of the Heavens,' in his beautiful observatory at Glasgow: "Our poet Burns," he said, "was a patriot; his 'Scots wha ha' kept country love and liberty alive in the hearts of many generations; so we were never conquered, but of our own free will cast in our lot with England. But Ireland's poet was a love-sick rhymer, and Ireland owes to Tom Moore a heavy portion of her material and moral slavery." Now Italy's nineteenth-century poets have no such crimes to answer for. From Foscolo, who preferred exile to Austrian rule, to Manzoni, who, if too resigned for struggle, spurred on others by his choruses in the "Adelphi;" to Niccolini, who, in his "Arnaldo di Brescia," bearded the priest of Rome; to Berchet, who armed the populace of '48 with the weapons forged in 1821; to Giusti, whose satires cut sharper than bayonets and swords; to Mameli, the soldier-poet, who met his death on the Janiculum while his fellow-soldiers, boy warriors like himself, were shouting his war hymn: "Fratelli d'Italia, l'Italia è desta!"—all, all have loved Italy better than fame, deeplier than life. Nor is Italy's one living poet an exception. Giosuè Carducci, who just now traced in pencil the epigraph which is being engraved on marble for the vestibule of the "Pilgrim's Hotel," is first a patriot then a poet, and I learned to love his poems from the lips of Giorgio Imbriani, who fell in the first hour of the first fighting day at Dijon, January 19, 1871, when Garibaldi, who had offered all that was left of himself to France, betrayed at Sedan and now invaded, kept the enemy at bay and took the only flag lost by Prussia to France. A patriot, we say, not a partisan; for if he has immortalized Mentana, he has celebrated the feats of the old King, Victor Emanuel, and if he has refused the medal of the Order of Savoy, "because he would have to kneel and with his hand on the Gospels swear fealty to the King and his successors," he has written an Ode to Queen Margaret which will live when the very existence of queenship shall have passed away.

What a tempest in a tea-cup there was when that Ode appeared, and how valiantly in sternest, raciest prose our poet defended himself, first for consenting to be presented to her, and then for singing of her beauty and her grace. The Liberals had been but a short time in power, and the royal couple came to Bologna just after the attempt on the King's life by the mad Passananti at Naples—came accompanied by Benedetto Cairoli, the last of five brothers dead for Italy, and by Zanardelli, the dauntless Brescian, whom the Queen welcomed in the poet's words—

"Lieto del fato Brescia raccolse,
Brescia la forte, Brescia la ferrea,
Brescia leonessa d'Italia."

adding: "I should like to see Carducci, Italy's greatest living poet."

So up toiled Zanardelli to the fifth story, and leads him to the reception hall.

"And I," quoth Giosuè, "who had seen and sought and studied in the history of the epopee and the drama so many queens, was most curious to see a real living queen interested in poetry and the arts. And in the morning I went to pay my respects to the royal heads, and my little girl said: 'Salute the Queen for me.' Liberty is the child's name, and I thought it was a good augury. . . . I have not the antipathy for the house of Savoy which the Lombard Democrats have, with Cattaneo's pen consigned in pages of fire. The Estensi were all mediocrities, and there are no more of them, and the Medici finished as befitted a family of bankers clothed with the purple, not the cuirass; nor did the cuirass hide the original stain of the Farnesi, who were sons of priests. So, if the Italian people, persuaded that their country could not be unified save by monarchy, called on the scions of Savoy, what fault is it of theirs, O Alberto Mario?*

"The historical and political ambition of the dynasty would probably have been limited to Upper Italy. We, we ourselves, Giuseppe Mazzini at our head, drew them to central Italy, Garibaldi won the South *for* them and won them *to* the South. And now, thanks to the plastic tendency of the human animal to realize personally its own idealities so as to adore or vituperate them at will, the head of the family of Savoy represents Italy and the state. So, *Viva l'Italia.* Valets, uplift the curtain, let us pass to salute the King . . . and the Queen, also, *l'eterno femminino.*"

Thus the puritans, who demurred at their poets

* "Here, in August and September, 1819, lodged and for liberty conspired George Gordon Lord Byron, who to Greece gave his life, to Italy his heart and a genius than which never arose in modern times one more potent in uniting action to poetry, more able and tender in singing the glories and the woes of our people.—Placed here in memoriam with an Italian's gratitude, by Francesco Ravaldoni, January 1, 1887."

* This was written in 1880, when Alberto Mario, then editor of the *Lega Democratica*, preached as he had practised (by refusing rank or seat in a monarchical Government) the duties of republicans. He, however, worshipped Carducci as a poet, and on his death-bed whispered: "Do write the history of the Renaissance."

singing the *Eterno femminino regale*, were treated to some fifteen pages of historical prose to which none ever made reply.

It is difficult to say which of Carducci's poems delight you most. His early ones, brimful of light and brightness, all pagan in their love of life and Grecian in their joy of beauty, enchain and enchant: then his wine and war songs exhilarate and stir. But it is the memories of the battles fought and *lost* for liberty that are the sweetest and, alas, the most untranslatable. Carducci uses so few words and such little ones that it is next to impossible to put them even into the oldest Saxon English. Longfellow could have translated Carducci, and perhaps Robert Browning, and surely he might be tempted to try the twelve sonnets, "Ça ira"—a swifter, terser, more life-like picture of the French Revolution than even our Carlyle's. All Carducci's poems call forth fierce and fiery criticism. I think sometimes that the critics, Bonghi not excluded, exaggerate on purpose to win from him a prose defence. If so, they succeed to their heart's content, as precisely in the case of this "Ça ira." Sometimes his passionate sympathy for the dead heroes makes him steep his pen in aloes to embitter the unearned honors of some "knight of industry"; but this is rare, always an afterthought, which may be left unread without deducting from the completeness of the poem.

Carducci is, without exception, the hardest and the most conscientious worker ever known in Italy. He was born in the Maremma, and left by his father's death quite young, with a mother and sister entirely dependent on him. Then he took to himself a charming, dowerless wife, and kept both families by his pen, preparing editions of classic authors for the press, and next by prose writing. He is now professor of literature at Bologna, and a Wednesday lecture of his is a joy for ever. On other days he makes one of his scholars take his chair and act the professor, while he questions and criticises with the rest. He is now at work on a third edition of his selections from celebrated authors, as we should say. How carefully he selects! how he searches all that previous writers have said about his authors! A wonderful text-book indeed is his for boys in the upper schools, and finer still will be that for the students of the lyceums. I fancy his works now amount to about a dozen volumes of prose and poetry. He may be said to live *by* his prose and *for* his poetry; but, of late years, even for his poems he obtains a fair price, which no one, I suspect, has ever done in Italy since Manzoni laid down his pen.

Carducci is a writer and a poet worthy to be known in America, though he would not thank your correspondent for introducing him by an "epigraph"—a thing he disdains, but has been hitherto too good-natured to refuse, protesting, however, that this is to be the very last.

J. W. M.

Correspondence.

THE SUPPLY OF TEACHERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There are many phases of the problem concerning the "supply of teachers," and they cannot all be treated in a brief paragraph. The matter is complicated not only by an inordinate desire on the part of young girls (sometimes, it must be confessed, unwisely stimulated by parents and instructors) to become teachers on account of the supposed "respectability" which attaches to the calling, but also by their disinclination to accept positions in rural schools, where social opportunities are limited and remuneration is small, and by the additional important fact that nearly all women (and many men) only look upon the work of teaching as a temporary expedient by which they can make a livelihood while awaiting their actual settlement in life.

Perhaps there is no practicable method of dealing with all these complications, which inevitably result in an immense supply of inefficient, indifferent, well-nigh worthless teachers, and comparatively few of the first class. Your correspondent "B." seems to me correct in saying that "arbitrarily cutting down the numbers of those who are trying to prepare themselves will, under the present system, afford no proper relief." But is the case entirely without remedy? Cannot the principles of the civil-service reform be applied with some prospects of relief at least? The power of removal must be left unchecked in the interest of efficiency—because, while it may be sometimes abused, it is not here that the chief abuses exist, and without it school boards would be well nigh powerless to enforce faithful work. But there is certainly great room for improvement in the conditions of admission to the teacher's calling, and it can best be secured by making that admission depend upon the approval of *professional teachers*. Commissions of such should be established under the authority of the State, for the examination of applicants, classes should be designated for different kinds of schools, and no person should be allowed to draw a cent of the public money who does not hold a certificate from the examiners corresponding to the work he is hired to do. The examiners should, of course, be entirely independent of local school boards. This measure would be a welcome relief to the appointing power, for at once an immense share of the elements of "pressure" and "influence" in behalf of unfit candidates would be eliminated.

Something of this, in fact, the State is already doing, through normal schools, but even in Massachusetts a large number of teachers are not graduates of and have not attended the normal schools, while all over the country so-called normal schools are often not at all what they are supposed to be, but in very many cases are simply doing the work of academies and high schools, with perhaps a small amount of incidental instruction in methods of teaching, and nowhere are they professional schools in the same sense as medical and law schools.

W. P. Beckwith.

Adams, Mass., January 25, 1887.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Is there not some depth to this question of "Supply of Teachers," discussed in last week's *Nation*? Is teaching regarded and paid as a profession, and is not State legislation seriously defective in this regard? Are not both the public and the teacher to blame—the teacher for her low idea of her profession, and the public for its indifference to the details of school work?

It is remarkable that, after over twenty years of peace, more progress has not been made educationally, with reference to efficient teachers, permanency of office, examination of applicants, etc. Civil-service reform, now grafted into our body politic, seems to be a stranger to pedagogue-dom. While there is a science of teaching, little of it gets into the schools, and Comenius, Rousseau, Pestalozzi, and Froebel are, to the rank and file, merely names. It is a common joke among us that the mention of Rousseau's 'Emile' or Goethe's 'Wilhelm Meister' to the average teacher usually calls forth a stare of inquiry. Pestalozzi and Froebel proved that there is an art of teaching. A multitude of men have proved that there is a Science of Education, and a few disciples of education have shown that there is an Art of Teaching. How noble a thing to write on the theory and principles of education! How ignoble a thing to try to put those principles into practice!

But is there a profession of teaching? The Chicago *Tribune* says there is no profession of teaching. The number of persons engaged in teaching, according to the Census of 1880, exceeds the sum of all the lawyers, physicians, surgeons, clergymen, and journalists; the former amounting to 227,710, and the latter to 226,811. Swett of San Francisco says that, out of the 300,000 teachers in the United States, not one out of ten is a graduate of a normal school; that, of the other nine-tenths, few have become skilled teachers; that in a few cities only normal graduates are employed. The training schools connected with public schools, and which are now becoming common, deal, I believe, only with primary work. At best there is only a part or remnant of a profession of teaching in this country. The State laws sanction this view of it. Many States require an annual examination. Throughout the Union, teachers are elected for one year. Is there any State in the Union requiring training on the part of the teacher before teaching? Where is it? Still the popular idea exists (incomprehensible to a German) that any one can teach who can get a certificate. Then, a normal-school diploma and a life-diploma do not pass from State to State, although the legal diploma practically does. We are considered as unprofessional educational vagrants. We are compelled to shift, to fly for our lives, yet taxed and examined at every turn (like travellers through Italy), as if we were transporting dynamite in our pockets. This is worse than a high protective tariff! Then the short terms of school officials, low salaries, and the tendency to employ the cheapest, are another slur on the would-be profession.

Every number of the *Nation* brings us a communication on civil-service reform. The cardinal importance of fitness, retention in office, and advancement according to merit apply exactly to our present educational needs, and with crushing force. The educational church throws open her doors to all. The State establishes practically no educational limitation for applicants. Iowa has ordered her saloons closed (transferred them to the drug-stores), but lets Tom, Dick, and Harry instruct her young. We need "protection" here. Claude R. Buchanan.

Wilton, Ia., January 24, 1887.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your item in regard to the New York City Normal School graduates deserves attention, as it may add to the arguments continually used against the training of teachers. I cannot speak of the difficulties the New York graduates meet in procuring situations, but I am tolerably conversant with other normal schools. The graduates of Oswego and Bridgewater, for instance, are in great demand. The Cook County Normal School graduated seventy-eight last June; seventy of them immediately took good places in the graded schools of the county, and Mr. A. G. Lane, the County Superintendent of Schools, informs me that he could have found places for one hundred more. These places—the hundred—had to be filled by inferior teachers because skilled teachers could not be found. The remaining eight of the seventy-eight were offered places out of the county, and six of them accepted, two preferring not to teach at present.

I am quite sure that if I had four hundred graduates yearly, they could all find good places. One day last week I received four requests for teachers—salaries from $500 to $900. The Cooke County Normal School is no exception to the rule. There is a great demand for good teachers. There are, however, thousands of incompetent, untrained teachers waiting until political influ

ence shall put them into places. Please revise your opinion about normal schools.

FRANCIS W. PARKER.

NORMAL PARK, ILL., January 22, 1887.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am at a loss to understand Col. Higginson's statement that there is a lack of teachers in this State. A service of between four and five years on a school committee has proved to me that there are enough unemployed teachers to supply all the schools in the Commonwealth. Certainly that is the condition of things in this section. There lies before me, as I write, a "list of approved candidates" for teacherships in Salem which contains the names of fifty-one, all graduates of the State Normal School. Some of them have been waiting ever since 1880 for schools. School committeemen are constantly besieged by young women seeking positions, many of them finely educated.

WINFIELD S. NEVINS.

SALEM, MASS., January 22, 1887.

AN AMERICAN TEACHER IN IRELAND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A few months ago at the centenary of one of the principal Quaker schools in Ireland, Mount-Mellick, interesting mention was made by several of the old scholars of a certain American citizen, Samuel Prescott Dole, who, some forty years ago, for a few weeks taught at the school. Nothing was heard of him after his departure, and a very general desire was expressed for some further information regarding him. He was a man of original genius and wide information, and had travelled on foot over Europe; and the belief was expressed that if he had lived he must have attained to distinction in his native land. Could any of your readers give any information concerning his previous or after life?

Yours truly,

ALFRED WEBB.

DUBLIN, January 19, 1887.

THE DEGREE OF A.B.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Apropos of your editorial remark upon Prof. Palmer's answer to his critics in regard to what he calls a "petty difficulty," I may perhaps be allowed to say, in my own and others' behalf, that it is a very poor answer to those who claim that the Bachelor's degree ought not to be disturbed in the possession of its ancient privileges. If it is a matter of small consequence, the innovators will act wisely by leaving the conservatives in possession of the old and betaking themselves to the new; the latter do not think it a matter of small importance. I am a thorough believer in the elective system, yet I do not believe that any one is entitled to the degree of A.B. whose collegiate training is not largely based on the ancient languages. All the arguments I have yet seen from those who advocate the giving of this degree to indicate simply the completion of a four-years' course of study, remind me of those used by the wolf when he had determined to eat the lamb: having made up their minds to do a thing—for reasons of expediency, perhaps—they justify their action by the best arguments within the reach of a bad cause.

Most persons who use the terms "definite" and "precise," when speaking of the classical course, intend them to be understood in a general, not in a mathematical, sense. And it may surely be claimed for the "old-fashioned" degree of A.B. that it, at worst, represents a minimum of Greek and Latin, mathematics, and history. It was definite almost in the same sense that M.D. or B.D. or LL.B. are. These degrees likewise "take an individual variation of meaning for every one who wins them"; but no one will need to ask the winner of a LL.B. whether he claims to be a lawyer or a theologian.

But, granting that the A.B. of twenty years ago was indefinite, does anybody claim that the new system makes the case any better? Nobody is likely to do that. Or will some of our colleges say in substance to the father, Twenty-five years ago we made you a Bachelor of Arts for work that was somewhat indefinite, but we expect to make the case clearer to the public by giving the same degree to your son for work of an entirely different character? If the old degree is so indefinite and meaningless, it is strange that any of the reformed want it all. We should suppose that they would wish the superiority of the new education to be indicated by some appropriate degree.

Every collegiate degree given twenty-five years ago claimed to represent a certain amount of knowledge, and indicated roughly the chief sources of that knowledge. The Bachelor of Science and Bachelor of Philosophy had studied little or no Greek, more rarely no Latin. In no case did the degree claim to represent even a minimum of culture. In this sense all degrees were and always will be more or less indefinite. But let us not mix up two things that are so easily kept separate, and which ought to be so kept. All experience proves that now and then a student only wastes time by trying to learn a foreign language, and that he may nevertheless attain a fair degree of scholarship in other departments. Some students who make little progress in the dead languages do fairly well with the living. The mind of one learner may be most effectively trained by means of one science, that of another, by another. And it is not asking our college authorities to do an unreasonable thing when we demand that they shall indicate as nearly as may be the sources of the training received by the graduates they send forth. It is the common error of new converts to claim more for their system than its merits justify.

CHAS. W. SUPER.

[The reformers who decline to relinquish the degree of A.B., with all that it implies, to the conservatives, may contend that it has long meant nothing more than graduation from a higher institution of learning. It threw some light on the probable courses of study of the recipient, but none at all on the quality of his instruction or the height of culture and discipline attained. For all practical purposes it was necessary to affix the name of the college or "university" conferring the degree. This is still and will always be necessary, and the conservatives have a complete remedy as against Harvard by leaving to that college the naked A.B., and uniformly writing A.B. Yale, A.B. Princeton, etc., etc. No one asked that Harvard should abandon the degree of M.D. when it resolved to examine for admission to its Medical School only those who had had a liberal education. This really put a new and higher value on the degree, though, as before, it simply stood for graduation from the School. —ED. NATION.]

"RELIABLE," ETC.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As quoted by your correspondent "J. W. A.," in No. 1123, Bishop Coxe denounces *reliable* as an "abominable barbarism." It is lucky, this time, for those who endure the word, that its assailant is restrained by a sense of episcopal dignity. He does not, indeed, go the length of saying, as the *Saturday Review* said only the other day, that the man who uses *reliable* "is a donkey and a vulgarian." Still, in calling it an "abominable barbarism," he does not, perhaps, divide himself by very many leagues from those who season shallow philology with euphemistic billingsgate. At all events, he faces it neither with judicial calmness nor with competent information. For my own part, even though I have found it to be respectably analogical, and though I have proved that it has extensively the sanction of good usage—the sole determinant, in general, of what is acceptable in language—my affection for it is not at all consuming. To get at the truth about it is all that concerns me.

Nine years ago I published a long list of noteworthy writers who had not scorned *reliable* and its derivatives. To that list I now add Mr. Thos. Arnold, the Rev. S. Baring-Gould, Mr. Walter Bagehot, the Rev. J. S. Brewer, the Rev. Dr. J. W. Donaldson, Messrs. Robinson Ellis, James Grant, W. R. Greg, James Hinton, Dr. W. B. Hodgson, the Rev. Dr. F. G. Lee, Archbishop Longley, Col. G. B. Malleson, Mr. J. C. Morrison, the Rev. Frederick Oakeley, Mr. Richard A. Proctor, the Duke of Somerset, Mr. Henry Sweet, Sir G. O. Trevelyan, Mr. Anthony Trollope, Dr. W. G. Ward, and Sir Monier Williams. As to the age of *reliable*, it was pointed out by a lady, in 1877, that it occurs in a letter, dated as long ago as 1624, written by the Rev. Richard Montagu, afterwards Bishop of Chichester, and then Bishop of Ely. From 1624 it apparently slept until it was resuscitated, or redevised, by Coleridge in 1800.

I now come to another point. That Bishop Coxe is so ill supplied with relevant facts as he evinces himself to be regarding expressions like Lord Macaulay's "to fully appreciate," indicates either that his reading has been most limited, or else that he has read most inattentively. "J. W. A.," I should surmise, has seen, though he does not name, the paper in the *American Journal of Philology*, Vol. iii, where I discuss such phrases at length. Among the users of them there mentioned is the Rev. Dr. John Donne—a dean only—who is now transformed into "Bishop Doane." In Donne's 'Polydoron' (1631), I have lately come upon "to truely judge," etc., six times. In addition to the instances, similar to those given above, which I collected in 1882, beginning with Wyclif, I now know of others, viz.: from Margaret Duchess of Savoy (1513), the Rev. Richard Bernard (1598), Edward Grimstone (1604), G. Woodcocke (1606), the Rev. Richard Carpenter (1642), the Rev. Dr. Henry More (1681), the Rev. Myles Davies (1716), Jethro Tull (1739), W. Horsley (1746), the *New Spectator* (1784), Robert Southey (1813), H. T. Colebrooke (1818), Thomas Carlyle (1831 and 1850) William Beckford (1835), "George Eliot" (1876), and James Spedding (1879). Bishop Coxe need, then, no longer suspect that the locution referred to travelled to Great Britain from American "tap-rooms," as he suggests that it did. In his hasty opinion it is, besides being "vulgar," "illogical." Elsewhere I have shown that it is just the reverse. Logic, pretty clearly, is not the Bishop's forte.

"In this connection" is "a New England phrase" and a "very illogical provincialism," asserts "J. W. A." It is neither; and I could make good my contention. But here I must stop, as this letter is already too long.—Your obedient servant, F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, January 20, 1887.

BROOKS'S HISTORY OF MEDFORD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In 1855 the late Rev. Charles Brooks compiled a history of Medford, Mass. A portion

of the edition, it is said, was destroyed by fire, and the book has for some years been quite a rarity. Now a new edition has been issued by Mr. James M. Usher, who has altered and amended it according to his own views.

Probably I am not an impartial judge of the result, for the following reason: To Brooks's history there was appended a genealogical register of families, entirely prepared by me. This is now reprinted with sundry omissions and trifling additions. But Mr. Usher has reproduced all the errors and omissions of my work, although he was offered the use of the extended and most valuable corrections made for me by the late Thomas B. Wyman, jr.

Finding the new history so lamentably and unnecessarily deficient on this point, I can only view with suspicion other changes which I have not had time to examine. I can only regret that Mr. Brooks's work was not so reprinted that one could tell for what portion he was responsible.—Yours very truly, WILLIAM H. WHITMORE.

DISCRIMINATION AGAINST SILVER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The people on the Pacific Coast who are continually complaining that Eastern bankers and business men discriminate against silver, and cause the Government at Washington to discriminate against it, do not seem to realize that "they condemn themselves, for they that judge do the same things." In Oregon and California every promissory note of the banks and money-lenders is made payable, principal and interest, in gold coin. All promissory notes, indeed, and usually sheriffs' sales, are made with this condition. The same custom prevails, as I am informed, in Nevada, as it does to a considerable extent in the Territories west of the Rocky Mountains.

This is a discrimination against silver which I never heard of in the Eastern States, where everybody accepts legal tenders of the United States in payment of debts. During the suspension of specie payments it was regarded in Oregon as a breach of commercial honor to pay a debt in greenbacks. To "greenback" a creditor was a commercial crime, almost; and the victims of such an atrocity had their revenge by posting the offenders in the black list of the advertising columns of the newspapers. The merchants made great profits by buying their goods with greenbacks in the East and selling them here for gold. In no part of the country have the masses of the people suffered so much from cheap money as in these sections, where the popular demand for it is so great. S. B. P.

PORTLAND, OREGON, January 22.

THE ADMINISTRATION AND THE FISHERIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will the *Nation* kindly state *to what extent the United States*, as represented by the present Administration, is to blame for the present fisheries imbroglio, and thus enlighten the rather confused state of mind of

A REGULAR SUBSCRIBER.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., January 26, 1887.

[The present fisheries imbroglio results from the termination of the fisheries clauses of the Treaty of Washington, in pursuance of notice given by the United States before the present Administration came into office.—ED. NATION.]

A SLIP OF THE PEN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am informed that the latest number of the *Nation* refers to the magazine recently published in the interests of the Agassiz Association, and for all lovers of nature and science, as the "*Red Cross*." In consequence, we are receiving inquiries for the *Red Cross Magazine*. Will you not kindly state that the name of the new magazine is the *Swiss Cross*? The name is taken from the badge of the Agassiz Association, which in turn was adopted in honor of Louis Agassiz. The "Red Cross" Society is illustrious in another field, and renders aid to the suffering in war and peace. HARLAN H. BALLARD.

50 SOUTH STREET, PITTSFIELD, MASS., January 28, 1887.

A CORRECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Permit me to correct the two inaccuracies which occur in your mention of 'The Photographic Times Annual' on page 77 of the *Nation* for January 27. Your reviewer there states: "The editor of the *Photographic Times* of this city has compiled from it an 'American Annual of Photography and Photographic Times Almanac' for 1887."

Allow me to say that the articles of which this Annual is composed are original contributions, written expressly for its pages, and that the book was edited by Mr. C. W. Canfield of this city, and not by me.—Respectfully yours,

W. I. LINCOLN ADAMS.

No. 423 BROOME STREET, NEW YORK, January 29, 1887.

[We were led into our wrong inference by the opening sentences of one of the special contributions, and by the general aspect of the smaller pieces which make the "filling" of the Annual.—ED. NATION.]

THE LATE GENERAL STONE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of January 27 you say of the late Gen. Charles P. Stone: "After the fight at Ball's Bluff he was court-martialled, and was imprisoned for nearly a year in Fort Lafayette. He asserted that he was treated very unfairly."

The unfairness and injustice of his treatment consisted not in imprisonment after trial, as these words seem to imply, but in the fact that he was arrested, left without definite charges, refused the court-martial which the laws allowed and which he again and again demanded; and that, when released without any opportunity to clear himself in the eyes of the world, neither he nor any of his friends could find the slightest evidence why the authorities had suffered a loyal soldier to be subjected to prolonged imprisonment, without trial or opportunity of defence against those popular attacks in the press to which his sudden arrest necessarily gave birth.

That this is an accurate account of the way in which Gen. Stone was "unfairly treated," any history of the war written since its close will bear evidence.—Very sincerely yours,

EDWARD M. PARKER.

CONCORD, N. H.

Notes.

R. WORTHINGTON Co. have issued the third and concluding part of the 'Greville Memoirs,' 1852-1860, in two volumes. The same work is announced to be published in a single volume by D. Appleton & Co., along with 'Brazil, its Condition and Prospects,' by Gen. C. C. Andrews, formerly Consul-General in that country, and 'Miss Churchill: a Study,' by Christian Reid.

Macmillan & Co.'s spring announcements include 'Romantic Love and Personal Beauty: their Development, Causal Relations, Historic and National Peculiarities,' by Henry T. Finck; 'The Song of the Nibelung,' translated into English verse by Alfred E. Foster-Barham; 'The Life of Peter De Wint,' by J. Comyns Carr, illustrated with twenty photogravures; an illustrated edition of Mahaffy's 'Rambles and Studies in Greece'; 'Memoir of Sir Peter Scratchley, High Commissioner of New Guinea,' by C. Kinloch Cooke; 'Life of James Fraser, Bishop of Manchester,' by Thomas Hughes; and 'Letters between Carlyle and Goethe,' edited by Charles Eliot Norton.

J. B. Lippincott Co. have in press 'Ornamental Interiors, Ancient and Modern,' by J Moyr Smith; 'Half Hours with American History,' selections by Charles Morris, in two volumes; 'The Nursing and Care of the Nervous and the Insane,' by Chas. K. Mills, M.D.; and 'Manual of North American Birds, for the Naturalist and Sportsman,' by Robert Ridgway.

Charles Scribner's Sons will take over the entire list of Hebrew and Semitic text-books heretofore published by the American Publication Society of Hebrew, Chicago, including the Hebrew grammars of Prof. Wm. R. Harper. They announce two novels as in press, 'A Child of the Century,' by John T. Wheelwright; and 'The Jesuit's Ring,' a romance of Mt. Desert, by A. A. Hayes.

From *Modern Language Notes* for February we learn that Prof. T. W. Hunt of Princeton has prepared a treatise on 'English Prose and Prose Writers,' now in the press of A. C. Armstrong & Son. It is intended as an aid to the higher instruction in our prose development.

Funk & Wagnalls will shortly take in hand a popular history of the State of New York just completed by Benson J. Lossing.

'A Half Century in Salem,' reminiscences by Mrs. Nathaniel Silsbee, is announced by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

We are glad to have the assurance of the *Publishers' Weekly* that the Annual Catalogue projected for the benefit of the trade will be supported, and that its manufacture is already begun.

G. P. Putnam's Sons are about to publish 'The Conflict of East and West in Egypt,' by Dr. John Eliot Bowen of the *Independent*. The articles that compose it appeared in the *Political Science Quarterly*.

It is a pleasure to receive from the office of the Geological Survey of New Jersey three more sheets of the great Atlas of that State, leaving but four of the total seventeen to be issued. These we may expect in the course of the next year. Sheets 8, 11, and 12 are all of sections bordering on the Delaware River. The first shows the line from Trenton to Bordentown, and the district to the north and east, embracing New Brunswick and the greater part of the course of the Raritan River. The third continues on from Bordentown to Burlington, including the territory to the south and east (the Mount Holly section). The second includes Burlington, Camden, and Philadelphia, with the back country traversed by the great railway routes to Atlantic City and Cape May. The execution of these maps is in all respects on a level with the high standard of their predecessors.

Prof. G. Stanley Hall of the Johns Hopkins University puts forth a prospectus of a quarterly *American Journal of Psychology*, to be edited by himself. It will contain original contributions of a scientific character; papers from other journals, translated if necessary; digests and reviews of significant books, good and bad. Its main object "will be to record the progress of scientific psychology, and special prominence will be given to methods of research." Remittances and business communications should be addressed to N. Murray, at the University, Baltimore.

The analytical index to the second volume of

54.

* It was the number for January 20, 1887.

the *New Princeton Review* (A. C. Armstrong & Son) is an improvement upon the first, chiefly in the way of multiplying entries of the same topics. Thus, Mormonism is entered in its own proper alphabetical order, under "Origin of a Great Delusion" (its article title), under Public Questions, and under Religion and Morality. This would seem to be enough for the ordinary inquirer, and yet History should not in consistency have been deprived of this topic. The table of contents now plays a very insignificant part—hardly more than that of showing at a glance the authors of the signed articles—and is unduly neglected. Under Criticisms, Notes, and Reviews, for example, it would be easy to display far better than is done in the index the titles of books reviewed.

The second paper in the *Law Quarterly Review* for January is an article by J. H. G. Bergne, entitled 'The International Copyright Union.' Mr. Bergne, who is Superintendent of the Treaty Department of the Foreign Office, was sent as the second delegate to the Berne conference of 1885, and was, together with Sir Francis O. Adams, authorized to sign, on behalf of Great Britain and her colonies, the literary-property treaty entered into at Berne in September last. He first notices, from an Englishman's standpoint, the various attempts to secure some sort of copyright arrangement between England and this country, but nothing which is new to American readers is presented. A mistake is made in charging that Mr. Dorsheimer's bill (presented to the House of Representatives, January 8, 1884) retained the "objectionable feature of compulsory manufacture in the United States." The bill contained no such provision, being simply a reciprocity measure, stipulating only that the foreign author should, for the sake of securing his copyright, do what the domestic law demands of an American citizen, namely, record his claim of copyright, and deposit two copies of his work. The remainder of Mr. Bergne's article, which reviews English legislation concerning international copyright, is valuable. His experience as a delegate to the Berne conferences enables him to explain the (by no means plainly stated) provisions of the international copyright act recently passed by the English Parliament; and he does so at considerable length.

There are no articles in the January *Antiquary* (New York: D. G. Francis) of very conspicuous merit, but several of considerable interest, especially, we should say, Mr. Bickley's "Remains of Old Woking," the continuation of former papers. There is perhaps nothing in the number more generally interesting than the short paragraph, "The Way Stonehenge was Built," containing an extract from the *Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal*, showing how huge monoliths are conveyed by the Nagá Hill people. They "are dragged up in a kind of sledge, formed out of a forked tree, in which the stone is lowered, and then carefully lashed with canes and creepers, and to this the men, sometimes to the number of several hundreds, attach themselves in a long line, and, by means of putting rollers underneath, they pull it along until it has been brought up to the spot where it has been decided to erect it. Here a small hole is then dug to receive the lower end of the stone, and, the sledge being tilted up on end, the lashings are cut adrift, and the stone slides into position."

The *Magazine of American History* makes an excellent beginning of its new volume, the seventeenth. The articles in the numbers for January and February that possess a solid worth are numerous. Mr. S. G. W. Benjamin has two papers, entitled "A Group of Pre-Revolutionary Editors: Beginnings of Journalism in America," and "Notable Editors between 1776 and 1800." Without vouching for their accuracy at all points, we can recommend them as entertaining, and as being profusely illustrated with facsimiles of early newspapers and portraits of editors, many very rare. We notice, by the way, in the Pittsburgh *Commercial Gazette* of January 29, a communication alleging that a portrait of Maj. Ebenezer Denny is made to do duty, in Mr. Benjamin's second paper, for Joseph Dennie, editor of the *United States Gazette*. And when Mr. Benjamin tells of "Master Carter," in Boston, saying to his pupils, "Boys, the war's begun, and you may run!" is he not thinking of Master John Lovell, of the Public Latin School, whose formula of dismissal was—"War's begun and school's done"? From Ottawa, Mr. J. L. Payne sends a contribution of much value, based on the Dominion archives, which shows that before the close of the Revolution the leading Vermonters, including Ethan Allen and his brother, were playing a risky game of bluff with Congress, by intrigues looking to a union with Canada if Vermont's claim to be an independent State should be finally rejected, in the interest of New York. The evidence is new and evidently trustworthy, and curious enough.

Some sensible observations on the teaching of Latin, by Principal Peck of the Providence High School, will be found in the Syracuse *Academy* for January. An extra number of this useful periodical, bearing the same date, contains a translation of the last chapter of Prof. Friedrich Paulsen's 'History of the Higher Education at the German Schools and Universities,' by Mr. Samuel Thurber.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for January contains an interesting paper by Sir Charles Warren on the present condition of Palestine. Though not very hopeful in tone, it asserts that the influx of Europeans is altering the country for the better. There are "places where cultivation has been fostered by societies, and where the whole climate has altered." The plains are in great danger from the vast billows of sand which are gradually rolling inwards from the sea-shore. In the north they are thirty to forty feet high, while in the south "they have reached the height of several hundred feet, and have quite covered up the old Land of Goshen." The peasantry he regards, principally from a survival of the ancient names and the remnant of idolatrous worship, as direct descendants of the original inhabitants who were spared by the Hebrews after their conquest. The number of Jews is slowly but steadily increasing, though the greater part of those who return "only go there to die, when at an advanced age." They are divided into two great sects, the Ashkenasim, who come from Germany, Russia, and Poland, and the Sepherdim, who come from Morocco. These are exiles from Spain, speak the Spanish language, and are agriculturists. They also assert that "they were colonists in Spain at the time of the Crucifixion, and are in no way responsible for the rejection of the Messiah," and some of them at least believe that "the second advent of the Christians will be the coming of the Messiah to the Jews." A paper on the "Clyde Sea-area" is accompanied by a bathy-orographical chart, so colored as to show very clearly the depth of the sea and the height of the adjacent land.

The new volume of the Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society begins with a paper by Mr. Hugh H. Romilly on the "Islands of the New Britain Group." The physical characteristics of the islands are described, as well as the extraordinary currents in the neighboring waters which render navigation extremely difficult. There are several volcanoes, one of which is still partially active, and "at its base the sea-water is so hot for several hundred yards from it that it is impossible to hold the hand in it," while at a little distance there "is a boiling river of strong sulphurous water." The islands are very fertile, and the natives show great skill in cultivation, but are obliged to choose as sites for their gardens almost inaccessible places, such as fissures in rocks on the sides of steep precipices, from fear of their neighbors. It is very difficult to get from the people information in regard to themselves, as they not only dislike to be questioned, but "there are some customs they are absolutely forbidden to talk of, and some words they dare not name." Some account is given of their peculiar marriage laws, and of the strange ceremony of the duk-duk, which Mr. Romilly was fortunate enough to witness. Cannibalism, though he had no personal knowledge of it, he believed to be commonly practised. On this point his opinion was confirmed, in the discussion which followed the reading of the paper, by the Rev. Geo. Brown, for many years a missionary in the islands, as well as upon the singular relations of a man to his mother-in-law. Referring to the statement that she was to be avoided in every possible way, he said "that the most solemn oath a man could take was, 'Sir, if I am not telling the truth, I hope I may shake hands with (or touch the hand of) my mother-in-law.'"

The *Studio* (New York) begins the year with an interesting table of contents, and furnishes two illustrations in the line of its cautious but promising experiments with "process" reproduction. The editor is able to announce that M. Rajon, the eminent French etcher, now in this country, is engaged upon a plate after a drawing made by himself expressly for the *Studio*. This number, by the way, contains some very useful practical remarks by M. Rajon on the subject of his art. The March *Studio* is to contain an etching made for it by Mr. Sidney L. Smith, after a pastel portrait of John Quincy Adams, made at the Hague in 1783, when Adams was in his teens. Of this series we notice that the *Studio* furnishes prints in three forms—ordinary, large-paper, and numbered proofs on India paper.

Thackeray's 'Virginians,' in two volumes, and 'Philip,' in two more, extend the red-backed handy or pocket edition of this writer's works, now publishing in London by Smith, Elder & Co., and in Philadelphia by J. B. Lippincott Co. Owing to the identity of some of the characters in both stories, 'A Shabby Genteel Story'—an unfinished beginning of a novel—is here prefixed to 'Philip.'

The same American house sends us the first six volumes of the Waverley novels issued by them in conjunction with the Messrs. Black of Edinburgh—a library edition—octavo volumes in dark-blue stamped cloth, with typography in greatest possible contrast to the small letter that distinguishes (and depreciates) the Thackeray just mentioned. Here all is bold, open, handsome, a delight to the eye. There are but two illustrations to each volume—a frontispiece and a title-page vignette—engraved on steel, and executed for the edition of 1876; the only thing not new in the appearance of this issue. The six volumes before us comprise 'Waverley,' 'Guy Mannering,' 'The Antiquary,' 'Rob Roy,' 'Old Mortality,' and 'The Black Dwarf, and Legend of Montrose.' The price per volume is very moderate.

The February *Century* announces the hope—perhaps we should say the prospect—that the friends of the American School at Athens will secure as permanent director Dr. Charles Waldstein of the Fitzwilliam Museum, Cambridge, England, a native of New York, as is well known. To this end strenuous efforts are being made to raise a permanent fund of $100,000 to $200,000, and contributions are earnestly solicited. They may be forwarded to Mr. Frederic J. de Peyster, No. 7 East Forty-second Street, or to Messrs.

William Alexander Smith & Co., No. 58 Wall Street, New York.

Dr. Sterrett, whom some would like to see made the Director of the School, is pleasantly thanked, as if already such, for scholarly courtesy, by Mommsen in Part I. of the fifth edition of the 'Fontes Iuris Romani Antiqui,' by Bruns. In a foot-note on p. 150 he says: "Tymandenorum oppidum (hodie Yaztü Veran) in Pisidia situm est tribus horis orientem versus ab Apollonia. Ibi qui titulum repperit *praefectus instituto Atheniensi Americanorum* Sterrett dedit nobis, et ut hoc loco prodiret liberaliter permisit." The italics are ours.

The "Nouvelle Bibliothèque Classique" of the Librairie des Bibliophiles (Paris: Rue Saint-Honoré, 338) now numbers about 50 12mo volumes. It is beautifully printed on excellent paper and is sold at three francs a volume. One of the latest announcements is "Œuvres choisies de Voltaire," which ought to fill at least twelve volumes. The last publication, 'Les Essais de Montaigne,' edited by MM. Motheau and Jouaust, deserves special attention. The text followed, as in the large 8vo edition by the same editors, is that of 1588, the last printed in the author's lifetime; but the great advantage of the present work is that it presents on the same page not only this important text, but also all the additions and new readings of the edition of 1595, the one commonly received and reprinted. Thus for the first time the student of Montaigne can conveniently make a study of the thought and language of this author as modified by him in the manuscript notes which were used by Mlle. de Gournay, his daughter by adoption, when she prepared her text of 1595. The present edition of the essays will be in seven volumes, of which two have already been published. There will be a glossary and an index in the last.

M. Charles Barthélemy's 'Les Quarante Fauteuils de l'Académie Française' (Paris: Gautier; Boston: Schoenhof) may be useful to those who wish to know the sequence of the Academicians from 1634 down to the present time. According to a fiction of speech, every new member is said to occupy the *fauteuil* of his predecessor, so that an uninterrupted succession is established from Victor Hugo, for instance, back to Corneille and Maynard. The succession, however, is not fully agreed upon, for there was a break in the continuity of the French Academy at the time of the Revolution, which gives rise to some confusion. M. Barthélemy ignores this, or rather seems not to know it clearly. Without going far, if he had carefully read the article on the Academy written by Sainte-Beuve for the 'Paris Guide' in 1867, he might have given more trustworthy information. His biographical sketches are very meagre, though for many of the "Immortals" who have no other merit than their academic title, they are long enough.

—The February *Atlantic* is distinguished by Mr. Lowell's long poem in those terse couplets, of the Hudibras style, which lend themselves so readily to satirical wit, and are quite as capable of pathos. There is plenty of the first in this review of the new 'doxies of the age, and there is also a touch of the last in the poet's retrospective attachment to the bass-viols and congregational singing of the old régime. Whittier also contributes some lines, and William Winter represents the poets of middle age with a good many well-turned stanzas; and the predominant tone of belles-lettres that is the characteristic of this magazine is sustained, besides, by a very interesting sketch of the first literary work of Cooper, with some glimpses of his naval and gardening tastes, by Susan Fenimore Cooper. The solid article is by John Fiske, who has come, in his series of American history papers, to the Federal Convention, and analyzes the situation at the start, and the compromises by means of which the delegates established a working basis in the earlier stages of their proceedings. In supporting the plans and the rule of the Federalists in 1789, Mr. Fiske takes occasion to suggest a parallel between the needs of the country then and in 1861, and he remarks that, as it was well for the Jeffersonian policy to succeed that first period of centralization, so "now that, in our own day, the disruptive forces have been even more thoroughly and effectually overcome, it is time for the principles of that party to be re-asserted with fresh emphasis." "An Experience in the Island of Capri" is an incident of the strange trouble that sometimes arises in foreign travel, and contains an instance of rare and touching humanity. We notice that Mr. Crawford's Russian story does not touch Russian soil as yet, but goes on in Constantinople and Germany; and as it is about to be transferred to Persia, so far, at least, it is not yet open to the recent criticism on it of dealing with places and people with which the author has had no means of direct acquaintance.

—*Harper's* comes to us with more than its usual profusion of illustrations, the more prominent being Abbey's and Parsons's designs for Cowley's sentimental poem, "The Wish," Frank Millet's sketches of winter-campaign scenes with the Cossacks, the beautiful views of the Acadian land, and some cuts of moose-hunting. The most attractive contribution is from Mr. Warner's veteran hand, in description of the lagoons for which the Acadians exchanged their short summers and long winters, and where they seem to have continued their patriarchal life in a climate much more fitted to their nature, without any substantial change in their simple character. His account is full of enticement for the unwary tourist, with its atmosphere of a Louisiana April and its landscape of a prairie Venice, while the great salt mine on the singular high island, and the home of Jefferson the actor, give variety to the interest. Sir Edward J. Reed concludes his account of the navies of the Continent in a tone of advice which seems directed to the English, to the effect that their navy should be superior in every calculable point to those of other nations. He shows little faith in the heavily-armed and inadequately protected ships in which Italy, for example, has especially strengthened her navy (though he allows that they were a good "reply" to her antagonists), inasmuch as, unless the fight is short, such vessels will probably sustain such injury as to lose their power of speed, and will then very likely turn bottom up. At the same time he warns the United States against expending her efforts on fast cruisers, which may prey upon commerce, but are of no use to fight with against modern ships of war. Mr. Millet's paper contains several interesting episodes and one scene of brutal flogging. Mr. Howells begins a new novel, which opens at Harvard on class-day.

—In *Scribner's*, Mr. Washburne's Paris reminiscences and the extracts from Gouverneur Morris's diary continue to hold the first place of interest. The story of the siege is told in the former paper principally by means of extracts from Mr. Washburne's diary. The scenes are very vivid, and in particular the changing look of the streets, the gathering and rapid melting away of the revolutionary mobs, and the general orderliness of the city, are admirably sketched, while the entrance of the Prussians is as well described, with a few strokes, as could be wished. The personal anecdotes are comparatively few, and it is rather on the general traits of the siege inside the walls than on special incidents that the writer's eye was fixed. The Gouverneur Morris papers yield in this instalment a more defined picture of the aristocratic society of the first Revolution, and also of the diarist himself, whose sagacity, brilliancy, and perfect possession of himself and his faculties grow more marked; he was a thoroughly facile man. The leading article in point of illustration is a most interesting one by Mr. John C. Ropes, who has made a study of Cæsar's busts and statues, and has reproduced the authentic likenesses and some others from photographs, many of which he had made himself; the order is chronological, and the series, which is slightly and modestly annotated by the collector, is a very impressive one, by virtue of the character the likenesses show and the strong and rapid development of the face in twenty or twenty-five years. "J. S. of Dale" begins a novelette, Mr. Brander Matthews contributes a timely sketch of Coquelin, and Prof. J. R. Soley deals with the whole question of our naval efficiency both in a critical and a constructive spirit. It is to be noted that he protests strongly against promotion by seniority, as one radical evil in the service. In 1861, he says, it gave us seventy-five captains, who, "with perhaps four exceptions, were totally unfit for service."

—The most interesting article in the *Quarterly Journal of Economics* for January is F. W. Taussig's history of the Southwestern strike of 1886, which, though a vivid account of this attempt on the part of organized labor, led by some of its worst advisers, to overawe a powerful corporation, might have taken a livelier coloring if Mr. Hoxie's merits in respect of vigor and resistance had been emphasized; if sharper criticism, too, had been directed against the Knights for their lawless actions in destroying life no less than property. The various points in the struggle, however, between the stationary employees of the Missouri Pacific Road, to whom the strike appears to have been confined, apart from the employees engaged in running the trains, are well brought out, and strengthened by racy quotations from the opinions of the strikers. The article is supplemented by Carroll D. Wright's "Historical Sketch of the Knights of Labor," which treats of the constitution of the order, without expression of criticism, favorable or unfavorable. The Knights are a body that concern us practically by their deeds, more than by their written constitution; but it is useful to have their inside history in language that their leaders approve, as is the case with this contribution. Their general constitution seems still to need formulating in some essential points, as it leaves the declaration of strikes to the local and district assemblies; but in the Missouri strike it is interesting to see the general officers, towards the last, throwing all the weight of the order in favor of the striking district assembly in Missouri. A. B. Hart's "The Disposition of our Public Lands" is a timely article, and will make a good text for collateral reading. The *Journal* also gives a criticism of Marshall's theory of value and distribution, by J. L. Laughlin; some objections to profit-sharing, by Richard Aldrich; and the French text of the progressive property tax of the Canton de Vaud, adopted in 1886.

—The *Bibliothèque Universelle*, commonly designated by its sub-title, *Revue Suisse*, is one of the oldest periodicals. It is published at Lausanne, and has now entered upon its ninety-second year, if we consider it, as we should, the continuation of the *Bibliothèque Britannique*, founded in 1795. It is interesting to go back to the beginning of the journal, in which science occupied a large place. In the first volume we find articles upon the then recent works, Arthur Young's 'Six Months' Tour,' Anne Radcliffe's 'Journey' and 'Mysteries of Udolpho.' After a few years the new review broadened its scope, and in 1816 it became the

Bibliothèque Universelle. A new series was begun in 1836, but it was only in 1858 that the *Bibliothèque de Genève*, as it was then commonly called, was transferred to Lausanne, and took the form and dimensions it now has. Since then it has not ceased to hold a high place in periodical literature. Protestant in its general tone, it is not at all sectarian. It does much more than represent the intellectual life of French Switzerland. Such writers as Marc-Monnier and Eugène Rambert, and in previous days Vinet and Töpffer, are not mere local celebrities. They, and many other contributors of the *Revue Suisse*, can be placed in the first ranks of French writers. Under the able direction of M. Ed. Tallichet, since 1866 the *Bibliothèque Universelle* has become more than ever an excellent organ of general information for readers of French. Like other good periodicals in the same language, it presents a great variety of articles on current questions of general interest—history, political economy, travels, literature, etc. It publishes also continuous novels of high merit. One point that specially marks these is, that they can be placed in the hands of any one, as their moral tone is of the highest and purest character. Another feature of the *Revue* is the space devoted to the *chroniques*—that is, letters from Paris, England, Germany, Russia, etc., giving literary and other news of interest. In this respect it is, perhaps, the best periodical published in any language, and well justifies its title to the epithet of *universelle*. It is published monthly, as is also the *Archives des Sciences*, which may be considered its scientific supplement (Lausanne: Georges Bridel; New York: Christern; Boston: Schoenhof).

—The January number of the new volume of the *Bibliothèque Universelle* opens with an article on the "Vanderbilts and their Fortune." There is also a new serial story in the form of an autobiography signed Wladimir Korolenko. The director devotes twenty-four very interesting pages to his personal recollections of Eugène Rambert, who for nearly twenty years, until shortly before his recent death, was one of the most valuable literary contributors to the *Revue*. There are also the usual *chroniques*, all full of varied information; but the English correspondent is unjust to the editor of the 'Early Letters of Thomas Carlyle.' From all he says, the reader would infer that Prof. Norton had for the first time opened the packet of letters marked "to be burned," whereas some of the letters had already been printed by Mr. Froude. The short notice of the work which appeared in the Paris *Temps* of January 6 is in every way fairer and more intelligent. The same correspondent speaks of the American School at Athens with little knowledge. He says, among other things, speaking of the "munificence of the subscribers": "L'écueil n'est donc rien moins que le manque de fonds." Would that this were true! But it is seldom that the English correspondent deals with matters not English, and the *Chronique anglaise* is generally very good and reliable.

—To the Goethe student the past year was with two-fold reason an anniversary year. In 1786 Goethe entered upon his Italian journey, which marks such an epoch in his career; in the same year the publication of the first edition of his collected works was begun. This anniversary the Goethe Gesellschaft has celebrated by the publication of a handsome volume entitled 'Tagebücher und Briefe Goethes aus Italien an Frau v. Stein und Herder,' edited, with introduction and notes, by Prof. Erich Schmidt, and by the announcement of the coming definitive edition of Goethe's complete works. The volume of 'Diaries and Letters,' compiled from material discovered in the Goethe archives, furnishes us a part of the sources used by the poet in the composition of his 'Italienische Reise,' the three volumes of which appeared respectively in 1816, 1817, and 1829—a part only, for we know that the material for the second and third volumes was destroyed when the work was completed; but a comparison of these sources with the first volume, for which they formed the groundwork, throws many an instructive side-light on Goethe's mode of composition and upon this period of his life, both in the matter of his own development and of his relations to his friends. The myth of the existence of Frau v. Stein's letters to Goethe must collapse—so far at least as the present period is concerned—before Goethe's own statement of February 17, 1787: "Deine Briefe werden alle gleich gebrannt, wie wohl ungern. Doch dein Wille geschehe." The theory, too, which has been advanced by some critics, that Goethe's sudden departure for Italy was the result of a conscious determination on his part to break off his intimacy with Frau v. Stein, is no longer tenable, when we have such utterances as those of December 23, 1786, before us. Goethe is not seeking an estrangement; he fears even the possibility of one.

—In composing from his correspondence an account of these years of his life, Goethe has both added and omitted. Scenes merely outlined in his letters and left for oral communication are elaborated in his published work. The personal element, so largely eliminated in the latter, lends fresh interest to the former. On the road to Trent, he tells us in the 'Italienische Reise,' a poor woman appealed to him to take her child up into the carriage with him, because the hot pavement was scorching its feet. He did so, "but," he adds, "I could get nothing out of the child in any language." The version in his diary will probably accord with many a modern traveller's experience: "I spoke to it in Italian, but it replied that it did not understand German."

WILLIAM HENRY CHANNING.

Memoir of William Henry Channing. By Octavius Brooks Frothingham. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1886.

THERE are several ways of writing good biography. Of late the taste has been for self-effacement on the part of the biographer—the less of him the better; he should content himself with making such extracts from the letters and journals of his subject as will make his book as nearly autobiographic as may be. But this method has not always been the rage. When William Henry Channing's memoir of his uncle, Dr. Channing, appeared in 1848, the London *Spectator* critic objected to its method, which was distinctly that of self-effacement. He said: "The life, or even the mind, of a man is not properly exhibited by quotations from his writings, but by deductions from them. A biographer who acts in this way calls upon the reader to do his business." But Mr. Garrison, reviewing the book in the *Liberator*, said, "Nothing can be more admirable than the manner in which the author has discharged his sacred trust," though he went on to call the book "a life-like delineation of the inner and outward life of Channing as sketched by his own hand." The critics of to-day would generally side with Mr. Garrison. But, in truth, while there are excellent biographies written, as Dr. Channing's was, with zealous self-suppression, and others, such as Carlyle's 'Life of Sterling,' where the commentary is of vastly more importance than the text, there are still others in which comment free and full is united with copious selections from the subject's journals and correspondence and more deliberate intellectual expression. Mr. Frothingham's 'Memoir of William Henry Channing' is one of these. As such, it is much more satisfactory than any volume of mere selections could have been, made never so judiciously. But we could ill spare the selections that are here. They are copious, absolutely, and relatively to the editorial commentary that is made on them and the accompanying narrative which connects them together and which they confirm and illustrate. Little has been chosen that does not bring out the character or explain the fortunes of the man. The part which Mr. Frothingham has added is an immense addition to the interest and value of the book. His style was never happier than it is here. It is generally so full of energy and grace and charm that it seems as if he must have slept and dreamed an evil dream when he compared Channing to "a kite fastened by a cord to human heart-strings and drawing men upwards towards the empyrean." This is suggested as an improvement on Theodore Parker's saying that Channing hit the same nail every time, but never drove it in because the head was down. Mr. Frothingham's may be the truer thought, but certainly his simile is vile. It is so solitary that it startles us like thunder booming from an azure sky.

The matter of his narrative and comment is equally deserving with their manner of the warmest praise. He always keeps his footing. He is never swept away by the impetuous torrent of Channing's idealistic and enthusiastic temper. He is always critical, but he is always kind. The union of the frankest criticism with the liveliest sympathy is something rare, and it is very beautiful. Mr. Frothingham's difference from Channing intellectually and morally is very great. The latter was possessed; the former is self-possessed. The latter was always enthusiastic; the former, never. But it may be doubted whether if Channing could have had a "double" for his biographer, the impression of his excellence would have been so strong as it is now. It is true that now and then Mr. Frothingham cannot resist a smile at moments when Mr. Channing's levitation is the most remarkable. It is true that here and there he allows himself a shade of irony where the contrast of Channing's boundless hopes with his slender means and pitiful results is most apparent. But the smile is always kind and the irony is always touched with sorrow and regret. Mr. Frothingham's arrangement of his material is wholly admirable. After a series of chapters that detail the circumstances of Channing's childhood, youth, and education, the vicissitudes of his maturity, his wanderings to and fro, he has four concluding chapters on "The American," "The Preacher," "The Man of Letters," and "The Person," which summarize and criticise in a comprehensive and effective manner the leading characteristics of the man.

The value of William Henry Channing for the present generation is not isolated and intrinsic. It is representative. The title of Mr. Frothingham's opening chapter gives the proper point of view: "The Age and its Child." Channing was the child of his age, and, being so, he had his mother's features and her voice. It may be doubted whether any other person of the half century from 1830 to 1880 included in himself so many of the characteristic elements of that period of generous hopes, grave disappointments, vague aspirations, and concrete necessities of politics and war. Transcendentalism, socialism, anti-slavery—to each he abandoned himself simultaneously with an ardor and a passion not exceeded by the leaders on these several lines; nay, far exceeding Emerson's and Ripley's, and not less than Garrison's, though seeking channels wastefully apart from his or any great or central stream. It was, perhaps, because Channing was so much that he was never more. But it is like-

lier that it was because, on whatever road he travelled, he always "hitched his wagon to a star," with the result that generally follows from such glorious harnessing—frequent upsetting and sometimes a general smash. A profound and passionate idealist, he was not "rich in saving common sense"; he did not appreciate the economy of secondary causes, the necessity of adapting means to ends. Nevertheless, the wonder grows, as we proceed with the story of his checkered and eventful life, that with so much of genuine power, with such rare and priceless gifts of mind and speech, his accomplishment was not more considerable. Of culture and intelligence, of energy and enthusiasm, there was enough in him to set up a dozen men of large success. His gift of speech was something wonderful. Let him and Phillips speak together and he made the more profound impression—the more profound, but the less definite. He carried you away, but you did not carry much away from him. With all his parts, the elements so mixed in him that he never was to any great extent a leader of men's thought or action. There is something pitiful in the instability and vagrancy of his career. In active life for more than fifty years after his graduation from the Cambridge Divinity School, he was a settled minister for less than half the time, and this in eight or nine different places, including Cincinnati, Rochester, Boston, New York, Washington, Liverpool, and London. For the remainder of the time he was always busy and always planning new adventures. His success was often great, but the desire of Mr. Evarts's office-seeker "to be somewhere else" continually recurred. He had not "staying quality."

His most successful settlement was in Washington during the civil war. There for once there was complete adjustment between the man and his environment. As minister of the Unitarian Church, converting its building into a hospital, as a worker in the Sanitary Commission, as Chaplain of the House of Representatives, his heart was wholly in his work. Seldom has the Chaplaincy of the House been accepted in a spirit so little perfunctory, and maintained in a manner so exalted and inspired. Some of his settlements were of a unique and striking character, little in harmony with the average Unitarian tradition. In Boston, New York, and Brooklyn they involved a free platform, with the usual consequence of garrulous cranks and silent sages. In Boston the church was a "Religious Union of Associationists," with an extremely novel ceremonial: "hands all around," a communion table set with bread, fruits, and a pitcher of water; all this, and the Gospel preached—a mixture of Fourier and Swedenborg, with a strong infusion of Channing's individual thought and feeling. There was always this. He could never be a retail dealer of any system of politics or religion or social reformation. This proof of personal strength was oftentimes a hindrance to his apparent usefulness. He could not go "with the multitude that kept holy day." He was obliged to go alone. In theology he was neither with the old-school Unitarians nor with the new. Greatly admiring Parker, he objected to his theology that his God was merely immanent and not influent. Greatly interested in Fourier and largely influential in converting Brook Farm from its original to a more Fourieristic form, he must add many things to Fourier and leave many out. Always an eager anti-slavery reformer, his scheme of emancipation was the impossible one of coöperation of the North and South in the work of manumission. Mr. Frothingham relates an interesting story of his impassioned advocacy of this darling scheme upon the platform of the Anti-Slavery Society.

Religious socialism was the dream that unified the variety and vagrancy of his experience. Wherever he might be, whatever his ecclesiastical standing, whatever the political situation, this dream was always cherished in his glowing heart. There is something exceedingly pathetic in his hoping against hope for its fulfilment; in his elastic rebound from the most cruel disappointments; in his readiness to hail some sign of its embodiment in this, that, or the other fresh development of the political or social situation. But there were few who were prepared to enter into his ideas. What he cared for most was what others, associated with him, generally cared for least—the sense of Universal Brotherhood; the Fatherhood of God and the fraternal Headship of Jesus being essentially concomitant. With the later developments of Socialism he must have found himself in little sympathy, actuated as they generally were, and are, by a more narrow and exclusive selfishness than the competition of the order they arraign. Channing's sense of human brotherhood was not a merely intellectual matter. His sympathies were exceedingly expansive. He was always seeking for points of agreement rather than points of difference. He took men and systems at their best. His friend James Freeman Clarke found in the other religions of the world so many fragments which all found in Christianity space for mutual adjustment and to spare. So did not he. He found in each and every one of them all of the germs of Christianity in process of development. He was bound to find this order and relation by the sympathy which was inseparable from his personality. But he was not one of those who can sympathize with Brahmans and Buddhists and not with next-door neighbors differing much or little from themselves. All sects and differences of opinion found room to meet and fraternize in his inclusive sympathy.

Here was another limitation of his practical efficiency. His sympathy was interpreted as "a mush of concession." There were fears that he would become a Romanist, or an Episcopalian—reasonable fears: he so idealized the older churches; he so desired to be identified with some great communion. But his critical rationalism, his ability to idealize Unitarianism, and his loyalty to his great uncle's name and fame, were counterbalancing influences, so that he was always a Unitarian, though not without vicissitudes and crises of belief, and a long period in early life when the German critics had "taken away his Lord and he knew not where they had laid him."

Mr. Frothingham's closing chapters are made up of those deductions which the *Spectator* critic missed in the biography of Dr. Channing by his nephew, William Henry. That on "The American" draws out the evidence of Channing's devotion to American interests and ideas. Fifteen times he crossed the Atlantic, always more glad to come this way than to go the other. Only in America was he at home. Before the war he was in a fever of unrest in England, so anxious was he to be in America and take his part in the great struggle. When the war began, he was soon "weary with forbearing and he could not stay." His exaggerated conception of Garfield was but the sign of a political idealism that was always seeking expression. Emerson's praise of him—"the evil time's sole patriot"—was an example of that "superlative" in which the poet occasionally indulged himself while objecting to it upon principle. The truth it overstated was that Channing was a patriot in every fibre of his brain and heart. Mr. Frothingham's chapter on "The Preacher" is both warm and just. Channing's preaching was so generally extemporaneous that the record of it is exceedingly imperfect. But if we had every word in print, it would convey no adequate idea of the effect produced, for it would not give the exaltation of his manner, his rapt and radiant air, the peculiar and impressive qualities of his rich and varied tones. Then, too, the hearer felt the man behind the words, was sure a man was there, and that he meant exactly what he said. After a chapter on his literary work—of which his memoir of his uncle Dr. Channing, his part of Margaret Fuller's memoir, and a memoir of his cousin Perkins, an admirable man, minister-at-large in Cincinnati, were the main features—Mr. Frothingham concludes with a chapter on "The Person." And when we have read this chapter, agreeing as it does with all that goes before, we feel that, whatever failure there was here, there was much of success also. A life so pure and true, so earnest and unselfish, must have had a great and lasting influence upon many of the hundreds with whom it mingled in its course from youth to age. His noble purity is hinted in the wish of Emerson that he should "christen" his children, who were "purer," he had said, "than any minister he knew." His piety was a phenomenon to the most orthodox of his acquaintances. His mind was steeped in mystic literature, and he gave the earliest hours of every day to lonely musing with à Kempis, Tauler, and their spiritual kin. But his morality was as rigid as his piety was fervent. If this memoir could be widely read, it might shame hundreds of men and women into a more unselfish, earnest, and devoted life.

DEAN PLUMPTRE'S TRANSLATION OF THE DIVINE COMEDY.

The Commedia and Canzoniere of Dante Alighieri. A new Translation, with Notes, Essays, and a Biographical Introduction. By E. H. Plumptre, D.D., Dean of Wells. In two volumes. Vol. I. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1887. 8vo, pp. cxxxi, 388.

THE attempt to make a translation of the 'Divine Comedy' in verse with the triple rhyme of the original, like that to square the circle, seems to possess a fascination for minds of a certain order. This is the fourth that has appeared in England in the course of the past five years. "I entered on the task," says Dean Plumptre, "in the hope that I should find the difficulty of reproducing the triple rhyme of the 'Commedia,' without unduly sacrificing faithfulness, not altogether insuperable." "Faithfulness" in this connection is a vague word. It may signify fidelity to the mere form of the poem, and to its literal meaning, or in a higher sense may imply the reproduction of its vital spirit and essential style. The Parthenon might be reproduced in granite with fidelity to its form, but the new structure would bear no resemblance in general effect to the marble building. So with these English versions of the 'Divine Comedy' in triple rhyme: the different nature of the language, the exigencies of the new material, present insuperable difficulties in the attempt at "fidelity"—make it, in a word, impossible to reproduce the quality and effect of Dante's poem. The concise, straightforward diction vanishes; the thought is no longer uttered by the inevitable word in the place ordained for it; the tone of the verse changing with each tone of feeling is lost; and the stroke of rhyme, for which so much is sacrificed, is no longer the pulse of life, but a mere mechanical beat. The voice of the poet comes back on the echo confused, hardly to be recognized.

We open Dean Plumptre's volume at random, and light on the following version of a passage which in the original is distinguished by nobility of style, simplicity and directness of diction, grave dignity of effect:

> "Meantime a voice I heard which sounded so:
> 'Give honor to the poet loftiest;
> His shade returns that left short while ago.'
> After the voice was silent and at rest,
> Four mighty shades I saw towards me move,
> With looks that showed as neither pained nor blest.

Then spake to me the Master whom I love:
'Look thou on him who walks with sword in hand,
Whose place before the three his rank doth prove.
See Homer, sovran poet of our band;
Horace comes next, for biting satire known;
Ovid the third, and Lucan last doth stand.
Because with me they all are so far one,
Sharing the name that one voice uttered clear,
They do me honor; well that deed is done.'"

It is with a sense of the vain effort and wasted ingenuity of the translator that one recalls the original:

"Intanto voce fu per me udita:
Onorate l'altissimo poeta!
L'ombra sua torna, ch'era dipartita.
Poichè la voce fu restata e queta,
Vidi quattro grand' ombre a noi venire:
Semblanza avevano nè trista nè lieta.
Lo buon Maestro cominciò a dire:
Mira colui con quella spada in mano,
Che vien dinanzi a tre, sì come sire.
Quegli è Omero poeta sovrano;
L'altro è Orazio satiro che viene;
Ovidio è il terzo, e l'ultimo è Lucano.
Perocchè ciascun meco si conviene
Nel nome, che sonò la voce sola,
Fannemi onore, e di ciò fanno bene."

Let us translate these verses literally: "Meanwhile a voice was heard by me, 'Honor the loftiest poet! his shade returns that had departed.' When the voice had ceased and was quiet, I saw four great shades coming to us; they had a semblance neither sad nor glad. The good master began to say: 'Look at him with that sword in hand, who comes before the three even as lord;' he is Homer, the sovran poet. The next who comes is Horace the satirist, Ovid is the third, and the last is Lucan. Since each with me is suited with the name that the solitary voice sounded, they do me honor, and in that do well."

Here the order of the words is scarcely changed, for the Italian verse is as direct as the English prose. The subtle interfusion of sound with sense, the effect of rhythm and rhyme in heightening the imaginative impression, are indeed gone from the translation, but in point of essential "fidelity" it comes nearer to the original than any translation can do in which the rhyme is made the rudder of the verse. In spite of the exactions of his rhyme, there is rarely a needless or forced word in Dante's lines, and seldom such an inversion of the natural order of the words as to interfere with the plainness of the diction and the easy flow of meaning. Directness, simplicity, and naturalness are the marked characteristics of Dante's literary style. These qualities give to it distinction and permanence of effect. As a work of literature the 'Divine Comedy' can no more become antiquated than the 'Iliad,' and for the same reason, that its style conforms, not to a transient taste or fashion, but to the nature of things. Even in the highest flights of the imagination, in the vision of divine mysteries, in the relation of supersensual experiences which no words can describe, the style remains direct, plain, natural.

It is a vain hope fully to transfer these qualities into a versified translation; and yet without them there can be no real "fidelity" to the original. In his 'Essay on Translating Homer,' Mr. Arnold selects as a specimen of "the grand style" these verses:

"Lascio lo fele, e vo pei dolci pomi
Promessi a me per lo verace Duca;
Ma fino al centro pria convien ch'io tomi."

"I leave the gall and I go for the apples of sweetness promised unto me by my faithful Guide; but far as the centre it behooves me first to fall." Dr. Plumptre gives these verses as follows, certainly falling in the last of them as far as the centre:

"I leave the gall and seek the pleasant fruit
Which my true Leader promiseth to me,
But first I must plunge down to earth's deep root."

Let us take another instance of the grand style:

"I'aveva già il mio viso nel suo fitto,
Ed ei s'ergea col petto e con la fronte
Come avesse lo inferno in gran dispitto."

"I had already fixed my gaze on his, and he lifted himself up with his breast and with his front as though he had hell in great contempt." Do the following verses render this?

"Already had I on him closely gazed,
And he with breast and neck before me rose
As though in scorn Hell was by him appraised."

But one example is as good as twenty. Dr. Plumptre has failed in an undertaking in which no one could succeed. The adventure will be doubtless tried by others; but it will not be tried by any who know the true nature of Dante's poem, or who justly reverence the loftiest poet.

Dean Plumptre's translation is accompanied by an elaborate life of Dante and by numerous notes to each canto of the poem. Both these portions of his work show diligence, wide reading, and an intelligent use of the leading authorities. The historical comment is generally correct and sufficient; and the notes on difficult and disputed passages and the explanation of the symbolism and allegory of the poem are, for the most part, sensible and moderate. But in both Life and Comment there is a tendency to suggest fanciful hypotheses in regard to matters concerning which nothing is known, that sometimes leads to very questionable conclusions. Thus, for instance, opening the volume again at random, we find on p. 104: "The date of his (Michael Scott's) death *makes it possible* that Dante may have met him." Roger Bacon's opinion "*may have* influenced Dante's judgment." "*Possibly* it had vexed the soul of the poet." On p. 105: "*May we think* of Marco Polo as taking the poet to see" the arsenal of Venice? On p. 106: this grotesqueness was "*probably* reproduced"; the condemnation "was *perhaps* emphasized." And so on very frequently. But to take an instance of somewhat more importance than these incidental *possiblys* and *perhapses*, and one to which Dr. Plumptre more than once recurs, we turn to the passage in the tenth canto of Hell, where Cavalcante Cavalcanti inquires of Dante concerning his son Guido, Dante's chief friend: "'If through this blind prison thou goest through loftiness of genius, my son, where is he? and why is he not with thee?' And I to him, 'By myself I do not come; he who waits yonder leads me through here; whom perchance your Guido held in disdain.'"

The words which Dante puts into the mouth of Cavalcante bear witness to the intimacy of the poet's friendship with Cavalcante's son, and to Dante's high estimate of Guido's genius. The words indicate that their union was such that where Dante is, Cavalcante had a right to expect to see his son, and that if Dante's genius was sufficient to lead him through the blind prison, that of Guido was not unequal to the same difficult task. We have no means for determining the precise significance of Dante's allusion to Guido's lack of regard for Virgil—whether the words are to be interpreted literally as implying that Guido's preference was for other poets, or whether Guido had failed to draw those loftier lessons from the ideal Virgil which served for the guidance of Dante through Hell. Taken in connection with the rest of the passage, they afford no indication that there had been a breach in the friendship of Dante and Guido.

Dr. Plumptre's note on the passage is as follows:

"The mention of Guido identifies the spectre with Cavalcante Cavalcanti, the father of Guido, one of the poet's earliest and dearest associates, the 'first of his friends,' a poet like himself, noble, brave, thoughtful, and refined. The two had been as David and Jonathan. Guido's father wonders at seeing Dante without him. And now the one speaks of the other after his death (Guido died in the autumn of 1300, after the assumed date of the vision, but before any of it was written) in a tone of coldness, and places his father in Hell as an unbeliever. What had caused the breach? If it is impossible to construct a complete *apologia*, we may at least trace the workings of the poet's mind. The father was a materialist, an 'epicurean,' and the son may have seemed to have caught something of the taint. His marriage with Farinata's daughter would tend in the same direction. When Virgil came to be to Dante the guide to a higher life, to a truer theory of the Divine government, Guido, it may be, would none of him, and the breach between the two friends was therefore something more than a quarrel on a point of taste, Guido preferring the Provençal poets to the author of the 'Æneid.' The change has its parallel in the altered feelings, let us say, with which a convert to or from Romanism or Protestantism looks on the friends whom he has left. What adds to the pain with which we read the whole story is that Dante, in the two months in which he held office as one of the Priori in 1300, had felt himself compelled to banish Guido and others, both Neri and Bianchi, as disturbers of the peace of Florence, to Sarzana; that his friend caught a fever there, and died in the autumn of the same year."

The inelegance of the English in which this note is written befits the venturesome character of its inferences and assertion. The banishment of Guido was not an act for which Dante was alone responsible; there is no evidence that he had any share in it, save that he was one of the priors when Guido and a large number of the party to which Guido belonged were—as Villani, the most trustworthy authority in regard to the facts reports—banished to Serrezzano. The leaders of the opposite party, conspirators against the peace of the city, had been fined and banished, and then, *per levare ogni sospetto*, "to remove every suspicion" of unfairness, Guido and his associates were also sent out of the city. The act was one in which Dante may have borne his part without the slightest indifference or wrong to Guido, and without the least break in the friendship between them.

In his Life of Dante, Dean Plumptre changes his inference that the friendship between Guido and Dante had been broken, into the statement of it as a fact. He says: "The two were as David and Jonathan, Orestes and Pylades, in their intimacy, *till they were divided* by their different estimate of Virgil, in itself but as a 'little rift,' but the symbol of a difference in thought, feeling, creed, morals, that went down to the foundations of life, and widened into a chasm." This is surely a hazardous assertion, seeing that the only warrant for it is the phrase "whom perhaps your Guido held in disdain."

The tendency, illustrated by this example, to draw illegitimate inferences from facts, and to turn suppositions into statements of fact, detracts from the value of Dean Plumptre's work, and makes it an unsafe guide for the otherwise uninformed student. Many of his hypotheses are ingenious; some of them may be sound; some of them are extravagant. The critical student, seeking for solid information, is wearied by guesswork. An amusing instance of the Dean's fondness for the pleasing speculations of his fancy occurs in connection with his mention of the fact that the Emperor Henry VII., in 1309, at Constance,

"formally recognized the comparative independence of the three Swiss cantons, Uri, Schwyz, and Unterwalden, as holding immediately from the Emperor, and so released them, as far as his action went, from the tyranny of the House of Hapsburg, against which they had risen under Melchtal, Stauffacher, and Fürst. Such an act was, it need hardly be said, an example of the

'Parcere subjectis et debellare superbos'

of Dante's great instructor (Æn. vi, 854), which he quotes in Mon. ii, 7, as part of his ideal of a righteous ruler. The story of William Tell, which connects itself with that revolt, may be historical or legendary. It will be welcome, I think, to many students of Dante to learn that they may legitimately connect his name with the struggle for freedom with which it* has become the symbol. If Dante, as I conjecture, was at Constance, he may have met there the three great patriot heroes of Switzerland."

It would be difficult to carry pure inference much further than this. Because an Emperor on whom Dante set his hopes for Italy asserted

* "It" must here refer, not to Dante's name, but to the story of Tell; the Dean's English is a little careless.

the rights of the empire over three Swiss cantons which had revolted against the House of Hapsburg, Dante's name may be legitimately connected with the struggle for freedom in Switzerland!

There are questions of more importance than this opened by some of Dr. Plumptre's suppositions—such, for example, as his view that Dante experienced what he calls a "conversion crisis" at Rome, at Easter, in 1300 (Life, pp. lxiv, lxxvii); his insistence on Dante's influence in shaping the Papal policy (Id. lxxiv, lxxx); his argument as to the importance of Dante's relations to the Emperor Henry VII., which concludes with the assertion that "through him [Dante] that life [Henry VII.'s] had been brought to an untimely end" (Id. cix). But to discuss these doubtful matters properly, and to show how preponderant the weight of evidence is, in each instance, against Dean Plumptre's conclusions, would require more space than is here at our disposal.

The reading of Dante is just now more or less the fashion, and Dr. Plumptre's work falls in very well with the occasion. But the serious student of the poet will revert to sounder methods of interpretation, and less ambitious performances.

PRIMITIVE RACES.

Die Naturvölker. Missverständnisse, Missdeutungen und Missbandlungen. Von Dr. Wilhelm Schneider. Paderborn und Munster: Ferdinand Schöningh. 1885.

Dr. Schneider evidently has a fancy for popular subjects and alliterative or taking titles, and with it a talent for making his books successful. His work on 'Modern Spiritualism: its Facts, Fictions, and Fancies' (as we may venture to English the title, 'Der Neuere Geisterglaube: Thatsachen, Täuschungen und Theorien'), has reached its second and much enlarged edition. The same good fortune has attended his volume on 'Recognition in the Future Life' ('Das Wiedersehen im anderen Leben'); and it requires no special gift of prevision to foretell that his latest work on 'The Primitive Peoples,' and the "misconceptions, misrepresentations, and misdealings" of which they have been the victims, will be equally favored. We are not expressly informed in the case of this work, as we are in that concerning future recognition, that the author writes with the approval of his ecclesiastical superiors (*mit kirchlicher Approbation*), but we may take it for granted that, as a faithful son of the Church, he would not do otherwise. The result is, that we have an interesting work which good Catholics, and indeed the orthodox public in general, may read with pleasure and instruction, but which students of science will be apt to pronounce somewhat one-sided and superficial.

The work is in two parts, each being intended to deal with what the writer considers an erroneous theory respecting the primitive or uncivilized races. In the first division of his work, the author undertakes to show, in opposition to the views of Rousseau and his followers, that "the primitive man is not the ideal man," and that the noble savage is a fiction of poetry and benevolent theory. This error can hardly be supposed to exist at the present day; but if it is extant anywhere, the author has certainly disposed of it effectually. He traverses the entire field of research, examines the evidence of historians and observers in every age and country, and brings back from all quarters the same dolorous report. In Australia and New Guinea, in Polynesia, in Mexico, and America generally, throughout Africa and Central Asia, the uncultivated races are everywhere shown to be shockingly cruel, stupid, and sensual. Cannibalism, human sacrifices, infanticide, torture of captives, inhumanity to the aged and the sick, to women and to slaves, barbarous practices enforced by terrors of witchcraft, fetishism and other senseless delusions, polygamy and the grossest sensuality, are the prevalent vices of savage life. The pleasant fables of primitive innocence are dispelled as completely as the stories of giants and pigmies, of Amazons, and of "men whose heads do grow beneath their shoulders," which amused our credulous forefathers.

The second and larger portion of the work deals with the opposite error of the present day, and undertakes to show that "uncivilized man is not an ape-man, not the pristine man (*Urmensch*) of the Development theory." The ingenious explorer now takes what we may call the "back-track." The magician reverses his wand. Hey, presto, change! The shield revolves and shows us its golden side. Once more the author goes over the extensive field, from Australia and the Pacific Islands to Africa, America, and the deepest recesses of Asia, and shows us, by the same indubitable evidence of the most trustworthy observers, that savages are found everywhere who possess all the virtues and intelligence that are deemed by some to be the highest outcome of civilization. They are hospitable, generous, and honest. They display strong domestic affections. They are industrious, intelligent, and wonderfully quick to learn. The author minutely reviews all the accounts which have been collected by Sir John Lubbock and other writers, of barbarous races reported to be totally devoid of religious belief, and shows that the reports are in every instance without good foundation. With equal industry he sifts all the stories which are told of savage tribes living in what is euphemistically described as "communal marriage," or, in other words, in promiscuous intercourse, and finds them everywhere utterly baseless. He shows at the same time that civilized men, in their dealings with savages, have been guilty of cruelties quite as shocking and excesses as vile as any that can be laid to the charge of their victims.

If the apparent inconsistency between the two portions of Dr. Schneider's work seems at first view somewhat whimsical and paradoxical, its purpose and plan, as they become gradually evident, prove to be sufficiently ingenious and effective. His object, of course, is to show that man, in all states of society and stages of culture, is everywhere the same being. The adage of the platitudinous sage, celebrated by Irving, is found to be everywhere true: "Man is a compound of wisdom and folly," of good and evil, as much in New Guinea and Central Africa as in Germany or New England, and neither more nor less. The difference between the savage and civilized races is shown to be mainly a difference in knowledge, and not necessarily a difference either of character or of capacity. On this point, the proof furnished by Dr. Schneider's elaborate treatise may be fairly styled complete; and if the mode of presenting it is odd, and savors somewhat of the bookmaker's artifice, it will doubtless have the effect of making his work more attractive to the majority of readers.

For students of science, the other aim which the author professes to have in view, and through which he doubtless hopes to win ecclesiastical approval of his work, will seem a grave defect, and will raise a question, if not of the author's sincerity, at least of his perspicacity. It is difficult to understand how a writer of Dr. Schneider's intelligence can seriously suppose that by showing the distance between savages and apes to be as great as that which removes civilized man from the same brutal species, he renders the theory of evolution less probable. The true proofs of development are not found in any such casual and external resemblances as Lubbock and other writers of his class have endeavored to trace. Dr. Schneider has had occasion repeatedly to cite the opinion of Darwin himself in opposition to the crude notions of his overhasty followers. But he omits to remark that the real strength of the doctrine is to be sought in very different and far profounder evidences—in the facts of comparative anatomy and in the revelations of embryology. If every human being, from the first appearance of man on the earth, had possessed the intellect of a Plato, the virtues of a St. Bernard, and the form of an Antinous, the belief of those who maintain the doctrine of evolution would be no less decided than it is at present.

In justice to the author's co-religionists, it should be said that the hostility of the Roman Catholic Church to the doctrine of evolution is apparently assumed by him without good grounds. Prof. Mivart, himself a firm Catholic, cites numerous expressions from ecclesiastical authorities of the highest rank—including St. Augustine, St. Thomas Aquinas, and Suarez—which not merely countenance, but in a remarkable manner affirm and advocate, this doctrine. Tyndall himself has not declared and maintained the doctrine of potentiality in creation more distinctly or more decidedly than St. Augustine in his work on Genesis. The mistake of Galileo's persecution was proper to the times, and not to the Church. In all ages, and in every country, ignorance and not religion has been the enemy of science. At this day, hostility to the latest theories is stronger in Protestant Tennessee than in Catholic Austria or Italy. It is to be regretted that a writer so able and enlightened as Dr. Schneider should have allowed the spectre of a defunct bigotry to alarm him to such an extent as seriously to impair the value of his painstaking and, in many respects, admirable work.

The Life of Benjamin F. Wade. By A. G. Riddle. Cleveland, O.: Wm. W. Williams. 1886.

This Life of Wade takes its place beside the equally modest lives of Corwin and of Giddings—all men of whom greatness has been freely predicated, and who yet are exhibited, chronicled, and eulogized by their several admiring biographers in the scanty dimensions of a small duodecimo. In the case of Wade, materials other than Congressional documents were very largely wanting, for he destroyed his own papers ruthlessly, and Mr. Riddle has not essayed the task of abstracting the body of his speeches, or, indeed, giving a strictly orderly account of his political career. He has not even made the book an organic whole. It is composed of a series of papers contributed to the *Magazine of Western History*, republished without editing, and with not a few typographical and other errors. Nor is it a pure biography, consisting largely as it does of a history of the times, or what passes for that in Mr. Riddle's mind. In fact, we have found our interest pretty evenly divided between the subject of this work and the writer of it, who unconsciously portrays himself quite as distinctly as his hero, and perhaps as attractively. The rambling character of Mr. Riddle's narrative—not without its charm—is not, we feel sure, the result of his years, any more than are the strange lapses in his chronology. What he calls the "sketchy thread of the incipient struggle against dominant slavery," *alias* his account of the rise of the anti-slavery movement, is amusing, not to say laughable. We will give a single example. The first anti-slavery speech of Mr. Wade's here reported was made in the winter of 1838-39, in the Ohio Senate. It was not remarkable for radicalism on the question of slavery, however true it may be that "it was a long stride in ad-

vance of public opinion then on the [Western] Reserve." But to say that it became "one of the sources of education, argument, and influence ere the great anti-slavery cause was in the milk" (p. 144), and that "it is to be remembered there was then no source or supply of anti-slavery arguments" (p. 136), is simply amazing. Has Mr. Riddle never heard of the "anti-slavery arguments" issued by the American Anti-Slavery Society in 1835, taken violently from the post-office in Charleston in July of that year, and made a bonfire of—with the approval of Jackson and his Postmaster-General? He mentions the *Liberator* on p. 130; it was launched in 1831, and nobody ever accused it of holding back anti-slavery arguments until after Mr. Wade had made his speech—in a State, by the way, whose organized anti-slavery societies outnumbered those of any other, and in which an anti-slavery revolt among the students of Lane Seminary, Cincinnati, occurred in 1834, with far-reaching results. Lovejoy was thought to have uttered a few arguments on the same side, and he had been hounded to death in 1837. But we must apologize for dwelling on so obvious an error, in which the panegyrist as well as the historian is at fault.

The most notable incident in Mr. Wade's professional career as related by Mr. Riddle is his adhering to his own first decision after it had been overruled by the Supreme Court of Ohio, and had come up before him on mandate. "'But, your Honor, the Supreme Court reversed your former judgment!' exclaimed the now rebeaten counsel. 'Yes, so I have heard. I will give them a chance to get right,' was the quiet reply." And "the Court, instead of attaching him for contempt, reversed itself and affirmed his last judgment." The sole original document of value brought to light by Mr. Riddle is the Memorandum signed by Simon Cameron, B. F. Wade, and Z. Chandler, May 26, 1874, recording a league on the part of these three men, "during the two or three years preceding the outbreak of the slaveholders' rebellion," to challenge their Southern colleagues for any gross abuse of Republicans as such, and "to carry the quarrel into a coffin." Finally, for what concerns Mr. Wade, his pedigree is decidedly interesting. He was a descendant of the Bradstreets, Dudleys, Uphams, and Wigglesworths of Massachusetts, but missed the poetical inheritance of Anne Bradstreet and Michael Wigglesworth as he did the Calvinistic theology of the latter ancestor. In other respects he showed many of the Puritan traits.

Mr. Riddle's style is very individual—rough, not always easy to parse, habitually careless of the predicate; but terse, epigrammatic, picturesque, sometimes tender and almost poetic. Pithy reflections abound, especially in regard to his own and Wade's profession. None, he says (p. 73), is so uncertain as the law. "Of all who study it, 20 per cent. is a fair estimate of those who succeed." He is more than just to his legal brethren when he says (p. 84): "I utterly repudiate Lord Brougham's rule—as do American lawyers generally. A lawyer's first duty, over and above his client, is to the law." Impressive is the statement (p. 104) that—

"During nearly the whole of the late war, the Supreme Court of the United States sat serenely adjudging the old cases involving old and well-established rules, in contemplation of law, oblivious of the new and awful issues discussed and decided in the red forum of battle. They were there settled ere the momentous constitutional and legal issues springing from war reached it, for which there were no rules, no precedents."

The following is also fresh and suggestive (p. 38). It refers to the early part of the century:

"Teaching as an art, an applied science, was unknown in the common schools. . . . One thing was inevitable under this arid, stepmother process. The stupid, dull-minded boys grew up dull, stupid men, with undeveloped rudimentary faculties, and remained such through life. . . . The difference between the naturally endowed would at once be increased and widened, and the better gifted would become, as they were, an intellectual aristocracy. Nothing in our world is so essentially democratic as a real *common* education. Now, men say there are no really great men, while the fact is, the common—the average—is so much elevated that the difference is much less between it and the highest, so that the great men have seemed to disappear."

We should like to quote the whole of a passage concerning the melancholy fascination which Washington life has for those who have passed any considerable time in the midst of it. "Men distinguished in Congress return," says Mr. Riddle, citing instances, "seek subordinate places—haunt the capital, like souls whose bodies are buried but will not depart" (p. 290). And there are some clever portraits or impressionist sketches of public characters—like this, of Sumner (p. 173): "He was always English in his air, and his presence produced a solitude"; or this of Commodore Wilkes (p. 253): "After the war I came to know him well—of large frame, tall, grim, forbidding of aspect, with an aptitude for trouble in business and property matters." But our space admonishes us.

Mural Painting. By Frederic Crowninshield. Illustrated. Boston: Ticknor & Co. Small 4to, pp. 155.

THE papers which make up this book appeared first in the *American Architect*. After an introductory chapter, there are essays on the Encaustic and Tempera of the Ancients, on The Wall (its proper make and preparation for painting); on Modern Encaustic; on Fresco (several chapters, interrupted, as it were, by an episodical account of Byzantine painting of other sorts than fresco); on Oil-Painting, Water-Glass, and "The Education and Qualifications of the Mural Painter." At the end of the volume are notes, in which some thoughts and some citations not admitted to the pages of the journal find their proper place. Twelve full-page illustrations, and twice as many printed with the text, are scattered through the volume, and the former are sometimes placed without especial appropriateness; but a rather full account of them comes at the last of all, and is very readable and very much in place. There is, in the text, a good deal of repetition and a visible lack of careful arrangement. There is no index at all, and at the beginning only a list of chapters, so that it would be difficult to find in haste what one might need the most. These faults, except the absence of the index, are the result of the publication in separate essays in a monthly journal. This is stated in the preface, and it is quaintly assumed that no remodelling of the book, or thorough revision of the matter, was practicable, or, at least, to be expected. And yet that is what the public had a right to expect. A practitioner in decorative art, one who has had, as is notorious, exceptional advantages of study, residence, and observation in Europe, and who for seven or eight years now has been at work at home, has done a good thing in giving us this book of sound doctrine, well-based information, and well-matured advice; it is much to be regretted that he has not considered the form as well as the *fond*, and put his valuable book into available shape.

For the book, in spite of all, is extremely valuable. Those who are made miserable by poor workmanship, walls that settle and yield, and plastering that cracks and peels, and those who would fain have some *painting* done instead of pasting paper over their wall-surfaces, or bothering with costly and inconvenient hangings of silk or stuff, will find the soundest advice about practical matters. Those who are prepared to risk something, and paint in despite of constructional weaknesses and danger of downfall or decay, will find most unmistakably sound views about the artistic questions that come up. Those who are interested in the archæological part of the business, and long for a clear account of the painting done in old times, have clearly expressed statements as to that, in which there is care taken to distinguish between what is known and what is only surmised or inferred.

Thirty years ago it was rather the thing to publish articles and books containing the elementary principles of decoration and its many correlative arts and sciences. Of late that custom has been nearly forgotten. It seems to be assumed that all the general principles have been laid down, all the theories proved or disproved, all the facts ascertained. Now, even were that the case indeed, still each generation needs to have its own lessons taught to it. And not only that, but every truth, no matter how well established, needs to be reiterated. Not only are we to indulge ourselves in the beautiful twice or three times repeated—δὶς καὶ τρὶς τὰ καλὰ λέγειν, as Plato has it—but we are to contemplate and to preach the well-ascertained fact two and three times over, and explain it and develop it and elucidate it, for our own and for others' benefit. This is what Mr. Crowninshield has done; he has taken up again and restated the sound old maxims which this new generation is really in danger of forgetting, so taken-for-granted are they—much as Dr. Holmes's fancied clergyman was suffering for want of theological instruction, having preached twice a day for thirty years or so and never heard a sermon in all that time. But, more than this, Mr. Crowninshield has been able to hold up the old truths in new lights; for the past quarter-century has done wonders in the way of research and comparison, and not an old maxim of them all but takes new meaning and new illustration from the accurate investigation of modern times—from a larger knowledge and a more extended comparison of facts. Success, then, to this edition, and a consequent new edition with new matter, and put into more perfect and permanent shape, is our sincere wish, for the good of the public even more than of the author.

The Standard Oratorios. Their Stories, their Music, and their Composers. By George P. Upton. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

MUSIC-LOVERS are under a new obligation to Mr. Upton for this companion to his 'Standard Operas'—two books which deserve to be placed on the same shelf with Grove's and Riemann's musical dictionaries. In listening to oratorios, a knowledge of the underlying text is not so essential as in opera, because oratorios are more commonly sung in a language familiar to the audience, and because the musical interest largely predominates over the poetic or textual interest. Nevertheless, even an oratorio gives much more satisfaction to those who know and heed its text than to those who look upon it as music alone; and this is true especially of modern oratorio, in which the influence of opera and music-drama is felt in many ways. Mr. Upton's book opens with a brief account of the development of oratorio, from the time when even dancing played a part in it, and the participants introduced all sorts of profane burlesque, such as tying the wings of geese on their shoulders to personate angels, braying donkey-like responses to the intonations of the priests, etc. Then the gradual progress is traced in the works of Italian composers, leading up to the highest stages in the works of Bach and Handel, which are fully and ably analyzed, the author's method being every-

where to point out beauties rather than dwell on shortcomings. Much space is devoted to modern composers and their works, including Berlioz's, Verdi's, and Brahms's Requiems, Dvořák's Stabat Mater, Liszt's "Elizabeth" and "Christus," Rubinstein's "Tower of Babel" and "Paradise Lost," J. K. Paine's "St. Peter," etc. A short biography in each case precedes the analysis of the text, and remarks on the principal musical numbers are interspersed in language as free as possible from technicalities, for the author states that his work "has been prepared for the general public rather than for musicians." In looking over the list of composers and the dates of their sacred compositions, one is struck by the fact that not a few musicians seem to agree with Handel that "sacred music is best suited to a man descending in the vale of years." The last twenty pages contain an historic sketch of sacred music in America, from the jingling tunes of quaint old Billings and the Puritan psalm-singers to the musical conventions and latter-day choral festivals and paid church choirs.

Exposé Sommaire des Théories Transformistes de Lamarck, Darwin et Haeckel. Par Arthur Vianna de Lima. Paris. 1886. Pp. 523.

THIS volume gives a very readable account of evolution from the standpoint of the extreme materialistic school. The first chapter treats at great length of the mechanical and monistic theory of vital phenomena. Living things are treated as matter combined in certain ways and exhibiting certain phenomena. These phenomena, however complex, are held to be due to the matter of which organisms are composed, and hence, as life cannot be supposed to come out of dead matter, all matter is assumed to have life. Other chapters deal with the survival of the fittest, the struggle for existence, the origin of species and their mutability, and the explanation of teleology which the modern views afford. A good summary is given of the chief facts adduced by Darwin, as well as others furnished by recent research, while the explanation of the facts is clearly and forcibly set forth. The book is somewhat diffuse, but the writer is well acquainted with the subject, and, though somewhat dogmatic, is a good representative of the more advanced Continental Darwinian school.

Perry's Saints; or the Fighting Parson's Regiment in the War of the Rebellion. By James M. Nichols. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.

WE have here the regimental history of the Forty-Eighth New York Volunteers. The regiment was stationed along the Carolina coast for the first three years of the war, and saw but little active service; but in 1864 it was transferred to the Army of the Potomac in time to take part in the battle of Cold Harbor and the engagements around Petersburg. It was subsequently moved back to North Carolina, and participated in the assault and capture of Fort Fisher. Its history is not greatly different from that of other regiments, except in the character of its first Colonel, the Rev. James H. Perry. He was a graduate of West Point, who offered his services to the Texan Government just after his graduation. At the battle of San Jacinto he succeeded in killing a Mexican officer whom he thought to be Santa Anna. On finding out his mistake he was overwhelmed with remorse, left the Texan service immediately, and entered the ministry. The news of the bombardment of Fort Sumter caused him to take up his sword again, and to remain in the service until he died of fever contracted in the Southern swamps. His was not the only case of this kind, but it affords another illustration of the moral forces which lay behind the great uprising of the North in 1861.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arawiyah, Al. Tales of the Caliph. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Bentley, Prof. R. Physical Botany: An Abridgment, by Eliza A. Youmans. D. Appleton & Co. $1.40.
Bigelow, J. The Complete Works of Benjamin Franklin. Vol. I. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $5.
Bishop, P. P. American Patriotism: An Essay. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Browning, R. Parleyings with Certain People of Importance in their Day. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Cantacuzène-Altieri, Princess Olga. Irène. Frederick Warne & Co. 35 cents.
Carroll, L. Alice's Adventure Under Ground. Being a *fac-simile* of the Original MS. Book afterwards developed into Alice's Adventures in Wonderland. Illustrated. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Coleridge, C. R. A Near Relation: A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Cooke, Rose Terry. Happy Rodd: or, She Hath Done What She Could. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.50.
Edwards, J. Differential Calculus, with Applications and Numerous Examples. An Elementary Treatise. Macmillan & Co. $2.75.
Fearing, Lillian Blanche. The Sleeping World, and Other Poems. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Feuillet, O. The romance of a Poor Young Man. Wm. S. Gottsberger.
Frémont, J. C. Memoirs of My Life. Together with a Sketch of the Life of Senator Benton, by Jessie Benton Frémont. Illustrated. Vol. I. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Frémont, Jessie Benton. Souvenirs of My Time. Illustrated. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.
Greville, C. C. F. Journal of the Reign of Queen Victoria. Part III. 1852-1860. 2 vols. London: Longmans, Green & Co. New York: Worthington Co. $0.50.
Harte, B. A Millionaire of Rough-and-Ready, and Devil's Ford. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Hoke, J. The Great Invasion of 1863; or, Gen Lee in Pennsylvania. Dayton, O.: W. J. Shuey. $3.
Jewett, Sarah Orne. The Story of the Normans. Told Chiefly in Relation to their Conquest of England. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Kennedy, Prof. A. B. W. The Mechanics of Machinery. Illustrated. Macmillan & Co. $3.50.
Locomotives and Locomotive Building: Together with a History of the Origin and Growth of the Rogers Locomotive and Machine Works, Paterson, N. J., from 1831 to 1886. W. S. Gottsberger.
Lyte, H. C. A History of the University of Oxford, from the Earliest Times to the Year 1530. Macmillan & Co. $5.
Moimari, G. de. Les Lois naturelles de l'Économie Politique. Paris: Librairie Guillaumin et Cie.

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 107

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS 110

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:
"The Labor Problem" 112
Arbitration 113
Virginia Coupon-Killing 113
Rhode Island Politics 114
Linen Paper vs. Cotton Paper 115

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:
Ibsen's "Spectres" 116

CORRESPONDENCE:
The Next Thing in Pensions 117
How to Collect a Library 117
Brazilian River Sources 117

NOTES 118

REVIEWS:
The American School of Evolutionists 121
Recent Novels 123
Tenth Census of the United States 125
The Dragon, Image, and Demon 126
The Mexican Guide 126
The Story of the Saracens 126
The Struggle of the Bulgarians for National Independence under Prince Alexander 127
Goethe's Faust 127

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 128

FINE ARTS:
The Water-Color Exhibition 128
The Etching Club Exhibition 129

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Interest Receipts in 1886	1,617,992 24
Total Receipts during the year	4,648,938 50
Disbursements to Policy holders, and for expenses, taxes, etc.	3,696,252 66
Assets January 1, 1887	31,545,936 77
Total Liabilities	26,196,060 41
Surplus by Ct and Mass. standard	5,349,870 36
Surplus by standard of N. Y.	6,800,000 00
Policies in force January 1, 1887, 63,293, insuring	92,262,969 44
Policies issued in 1886, 6,728, insuring	13,027,993 00

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 10, 1887.

The Week.

THE first debate in the Senate on the Treasury surplus took place on Wednesday while the Sundry Civil Appropriation Bill was under consideration. Senator Morrill of Vermont had made a set speech on this subject a few days after Congress met last December, intending to show that the surplus was all moonshine, and that there was no such thing, but, on the contrary, a deficit of more than $24,000,000, according to the report of the Secretary of the Treasury. Now, Senator Allison, reasoning from the same premises and quoting the same authority, makes out a surplus of $15,000,000, after allowing $5,000,000 for the Mexican Pension Bill and $7,000,000 to $8,000,000 for the Dependent Pension Bill, which had not been passed when Mr. Morrill made his speech—the difference between the two estimates being upwards of $50,000,000. Both included an estimate of $48,000,000 for the Sinking Fund. Senator Allison, however, had the frankness to admit, that the Sinking Fund appropriation had become obsolete, there being no bonds to which it could be applied after the close of the present fiscal year, except by the payment of a high premium. This admission established a surplus of $48,000,000, plus $15,000,000, total $63,000,000, which, Senator Beck said, was $27,000,000 less than the real surplus, as he would take an early occasion to show.

We judge that Mr. Beck is right for once, because the report of the Secretary of the Treasury says in so many words that the excess of ordinary revenue over ordinary expenditure for the past ten years has averaged $100,000,000 per year, which amount has been applied, by the Sinking Fund and by extra bond payments, to the extinguishment of the public debt. Now, the reductions of taxes have not reduced the receipts of the Treasury in any material sense in the past ten years, nor have the expenditures materially increased. The increase in pensions has about balanced the reduction of interest on the public debt up to this time, and the elasticity of the revenue has about balanced the reduction of internal-revenue taxes. The fair presumption is that the future receipts and expenditures, if legislation remains unchanged, will continue to show nearly or quite $100,000,000 of surplus. Allowance must be made for the unknown calls under the Dependent Pension Bill, if that profligate and demoralizing measure becomes a law; but, if we take into account only the present outgo of the Treasury and the present income, there is little doubt that the fiscal year ending June 30, 1888, will show a surplus of about $90,000,000, after making allowance for $24,000,000 for waste upon silver bullion.

No measure for the reduction of taxes having been agreed upon, or seriously considered, since the refusal of the House to take up the Morrison bill, and the session being two-thirds gone, it seems highly probable that the adjournment of Congress will leave the Administration just where it is now, with a swelling revenue and no place to put it after the 30th of June. Even the profligate pension bill, added to an equally profligate fortification bill, would fail to meet the emergency, because these measures could not take effect under a twelvemonth. However great their powers of absorption, they would not begin soon enough. What, then, is the alternative? Secretary Manning intimates pretty plainly what he would do in such a case. He would apply the surplus revenue to the retirement of the only part of the public debt which is payable at par on demand, viz., the greenback debt. Could he do otherwise? Could any other Secretary do otherwise? We do not see what else could be done. A surplus revenue must either be hoarded or used. If there is only one way to use it, then that way is the right way and the lawful way. Who shall gainsay it? Certainly not the class of spouters who have been declaiming against Mr. Manning the past two years for locking up his money in the strong box. He could not under existing law cancel the greenbacks, but he could retire them, and leave Congress to decide affirmatively what disposition should be made of them.

The Senate has taken an unusual step in removing the mask of secrecy from the proceedings in executive session in the Matthews case, and publishing a defence of itself for refusing to confirm a certain person to a certain office. Never did the maxim *Qui s'excuse s'accuse* find an apter illustration. The document given to the public in this remarkable manner is extorted under duress, and in the immediate fear of some serious loss or division of the colored vote, to the harm and detriment of the Republican party. The colored press of the country has espoused the cause of Matthews. Public opinion among the colored people has been profoundly moved by the rejection of a colored man by a nearly unanimous Republican vote in the Senate. In the North this feeling has been pronounced and outspoken. It is no mean political factor in the doubtful States. In New York especially it is potent and menacing. Something must be done to explain and palliate the rejection of Matthews, the colored man, as Recorder of Deeds in the District of Columbia, if the colored vote is to be retained as a solid phalanx in the Republican column. The specific reasons assigned by the Senate for rejecting him are frivolous in the extreme. It is said that Mr. Matthews was not a resident of the District of Columbia, that he was not so distinguished a representative of the colored race as Frederick Douglas, that there is no *official* evidence that he is a colored man at all, and that his reappointment after having been once rejected was an act of disrespect to the Senate. It is a sufficient answer to all these objections to say that if a Republican President had done exactly what Mr. Cleveland has done in the premises, Mr. Matthews would have been confirmed without any delay or cavil. The real objection to Matthews is that he is nominated by a Democratic President, contrary to a cherished theory that all negroes are Republicans by virtue of their color.

We suppose that it was fear of the "soldier vote" which chiefly actuated a bare majority of the Senate, on Thursday, in discharging the Committee on Pensions from further consideration of the bill removing the existing limitation of time within which application for arrears of pensions may be made, so that if a man in 1887 is awarded a pension on account of a wound or disability incurred in 1861, he may draw his monthly allowance for a period covering more than a quarter of a century in a lump sum — which, for a $12 a month pension, would amount to more than $5,000. The bill now is in such shape that it may be brought up for final action at any moment, and the promoters of the scheme apparently mean to try and push it through. We are glad to note that Gen. Hawley of Connecticut voted against the measure, and we hope that this indicates a purpose on his part to fight the scheme in good earnest. More forcibly than any other Senator he could show that the self-respecting soldiers do not approve these wholesale pension grabs, and that the public man who opposes them need have no fear of offending the "soldier vote."

The vetoes of private pension bills which the President sent to the House on Saturday freshly illustrate the utter recklessness with which claims are now urged by what Gen. Bragg calls "the rubbish of the army." Cuthbert Stone was voted a pension by Congress on the ground that he had incurred a pensionable disability during his "long and faithful service" in the army. The records of the War Department, however, show that he enlisted October 25, 1861, and was reported as deserted from December 31, 1861, until November, 1864. He was mustered out with his company January 31, 1865, with no evidence of disability, and he filed no claim for pension until 1881, when he alleged that he contracted a disability in the winter of 1863, although he subsequently changed this date and alleged that the disease was contracted "while he was being carried from place to place as a prisoner, he having been tried by a court-martial in May, 1862, for desertion, and sentenced to imprisonment until the expiration of his term of enlistment." It thus appears, by his own admission, that he spent most of his term in desertion or in imprisonment for desertion, and yet a committee of Congress reported in favor of granting him a pension on account of the "long and faithful service and the high character of the claimant"! The President withholds his assent, on the ground that "the allowance of this claim would, in my opinion, be a travesty upon our whole scheme of pensions, and an insult to every decent veteran soldier."

The letter of Secretary Manning to Chairman Belmont, in reply to the request of the

House Committee on Foreign Affairs for his opinion on the House and Senate retaliation bills, is a very wide-ranging discussion of the whole fishery question. Accordingly it does not seem to us to be a document appropriate to the Treasury Department, but rather to the President of the United States. For once we think that Mr. Manning has overshot the mark. The subject treated relates mainly to the legislation of a foreign Power. It is, therefore, of a diplomatic nature. It concerns the Treasury only so far as it may affect the revenue or the tonnage of the United States. The question whether fishing smacks should have the maritime character of trading vessels engaged in international commerce is hardly a fiscal question. The question whether a British law enacted in 1830 is in the nature of a treaty or compact with us, is not primarily a matter for our Treasury to deal with. We regret, therefore, that Mr. Manning should have given any direction to his reply outside of its purely fiscal bearings. We regret, also, that he should have suggested so extreme a measure as the stopping of A's trade and profits because B has had some trouble with C in a foreign country.

We are not surprised to learn that the impeachment of Secretary Manning, on account of his reply to the House resolution inquiring about the denominations of greenbacks and silver certificates issued by the Treasury Department, has been deferred until the return of Mr. Bland, who is now temporarily absent from Washington. We hope, by the way, that Mr. Bland will be able to give a satisfactory reason for being away at such a crisis. In his absence the laboring oar has fallen to the hand of Gen. Weaver of Iowa, the leader of the Greenback-Labor party, with such small assistance as he can get from Mr. Payson, a Republican member from Illinois. It is most desirable that the impeachment proceedings should be begun under Democratic auspices. It is also important that the grounds for impeachment should be stated so that common people can understand them, a task which might be beyond Gen. Weaver's powers. A careful examination of Secretary Manning's letter throws no light upon the legal basis of the proposed impeachment, although it serves to show just cause for discontent on the part of Weaver and his faction, carrying as it does the lurking suspicion that the movers of the resolution of inquiry were ignorant of divers weighty facts that had already been officially laid before them, and that if they had taken the trouble to examine these facts in the light of existing laws, they would never have asked such questions. We have spent a good deal of time studying the Secretary's letter since the anger of certain persons was aroused by it, but we can find nothing in it that can be regarded as impeachable, except the inference which a logical mind might deduce from it that certain persons are blockheads.

We called attention last summer, when the Sedgwick incident in Mexico was before the public, to the discredit brought on the United States Government by the presence in its service in the City of Mexico of the person who made himself at that time notorious in the newspapers as "Porch, Consul-General." Porch was a backwoods lawyer from Missouri, without a single qualification for his place, ignorant, illiterate, uncouth, and, as it plainly appeared, also an ass. There never was any reason for giving him an office of such importance except that Senator Cockrell had taken a fancy to him and pushed him for it. When Mr. Sedgwick arrived on the scene, Porch took to sending wild and scandalous telegrams about him, and got together a meeting of American waifs and strays at his house to denounce him. He did the same sort of thing afterwards to Mr. Manning. Mr. Bayard ought to have promptly dismissed him when he began telegraphing about Mr. Sedgwick. Why he did not has always been a mystery, but we presume it was because Senator Cockrell fought hard for his ridiculous protégé. We are glad to say that this nuisance and disgrace has at last been abated. "Porch, Consul-General," is a thing of the past. He has been "bounced." His successor, a certain Mr. More, also a Missourian, is said, as far as special knowledge goes, to be as unfit as Porch, but there can hardly be a doubt that he has more common sense and sense of decency.

It seems that the two salesmen whom Judge Bond discharged the other day from an indictment for trading in Virginia without a license after they had offered coupons in payment, were representatives of a Philadelphia and New York house. This is a fact worth noting. It looks very much as if firms in other States had no objection to paying license fees with coupons. It is not impossible, indeed, that they take a positive pleasure in thus retaliating against a State which has, time and time again, by unconstitutional laws, endeavored to discriminate in favor of home salesmen. Now, the State Attorney and Virginian authorities generally base their hopes of non-user of coupons on patriotism more than anything else; but if foreign drummers are thus going to pay license fees at fifty cents on the dollar, it will take a strong dose of patriotism for home merchants to continue to pay their merchants' licenses in gold. Flesh and blood of business men could not stand that. It is safe to say that if the bars to the Treasury are once let down, a stampede will follow. Another straw in this case is that one of the counsel who appeared for the salesmen is a gentleman who has been wont to declare, like State Attorney Ayers, that no power in government can overcome a united people; and yet he has now joined against a united people in the hopeless task of sustaining the Constitution of the United States. This theory, that a united people cannot be made amenable to laws and government, presents a good many difficulties. There are a number of historical facts seemingly irreconcilable with it, and it might be well if the State authorities of Virginia would consult with the Latter-Day Saints of Utah as to why it is that a theory so generally accepted is of such little use to either of them in their present difficulties.

Several canvasses of the New York Legislature have been made recently on the Presidential candidate question, and have all resulted in showing that Blaine is the favorite of the Republican members and Hill of the Democratic, though a large proportion of the members of both political parties are non-committal. As, by universal consent, this is one of the worst Legislatures we have had at Albany in recent years, the preference of its members is a doubtful compliment for any candidate. Here, for example, is the former Hill organ, the *World*, compelled to say of the very men who favor Hill as a candidate, that their action of a day or two before in voting to repeal the civil-service laws was a "gratuitous performance in butting their heads against a stone wall." We call the *World* a former Hill organ because just at present it appears to be in favor of Mr. Conkling as the Democratic candidate in 1888. This disposition has called out a friendly warning from the *Sun*, which may be called the voice of experience. The *Sun*, while doubting the wisdom of the plan, says: "This is all very well. We live in a free country, and one of the rights which our sires fought and bled for is the right of every newspaper to support or oppose a candidate for office as it may deem advisable." The exercise of this right by the *Sun* in 1884 brought to its candidate, Butler, the magnificent total of 3,499 votes in this city, and cost the editor about 45,000 subscribers, or one-third of his entire circulation.

Commissioner Woodman of the Excise Board introduced on Friday the following resolution, which was laid over for consideration:

"Resolved, That on and after February 15, 1887, no license shall be granted to open a new saloon in any Assembly district of this city, unless, and until, the number of licensed saloons in any Assembly district from which such license is applied for shall not exceed in ratio one to every five hundred inhabitants of said district: the census to be based on the registration of voters for the Mayoralty election immediately preceding the date of such application."

This is, we believe, the first attempt at official recognition of the fact that one of the duties of the Excise Commissioners is to keep the number of liquor-stores within reasonable limits. Hitherto all that the public has expected of them, and all that they, in their most respectable moods, professed to care about, was the restriction of the licenses to persons who would not or did not permit their houses to become notorious resorts for bad characters. But the public is no longer content with this. It demands that liquor-dealing, no matter how or by whom conducted, be cut down—that, in other words, liquor be made scarce and harder to get; that the presumption that selling it is a useful and harmless industry be reversed; and that licenses be granted solely on the presumption that it is an evil, even if an inevitable evil, and, therefore, is to be made as small as possible. We hope, whether the High-License Bill passes or not, to see the exercise by the present Board of all the powers they now have in the direction of reducing the appalling number of liquor-stores by which this city is now cursed. The Commissioners may rely on the fullest support from the great bulk of the population, and it will never be so strong, and hearty, and determined as when the liquor-dealers come out in force in defence of their

infernal trade. Nothing is so desirable as that they should let us hear what they have to say in defence of it.

The land question seems to have dropped into a very subordinate position in Mr. Henry George's mind. He is now engaged heart and soul in demolishing the Catholic Church. His paper, the *Standard*, published weekly at five cents, is almost wholly given up to this great enterprise. We presume he thinks the removal of this church is an essential preliminary to the process of making the farmers surrender their farms to the Master Workman. We think he is right in this view. We would, were we in his place, get the church out of the way first, and then enlarge his paper and go for the farmers. He has a magnificent job before him, of the kind an industrious man loves.

Some of the newspapers, both religious and secular, have been trying to persuade themselves that the McGlynn affair may develop into a formidable schism in the Roman Catholic Church. This is but the latest manifestation of a curious delusion that a new Luther may be looked for almost any day. In spite of the fact that several of the most promising Luthers have turned out disappointingly—witness Father Chiniquy, Père Hyacinthe, and "Bishop" McNamara, so assiduously heralded as the coming man in this city seven years ago—many still hold to their belief that the genuine reformer will yet arise. There seems to be no way, in fact, of convincing these visionaries that their hopes are equivalent to looking for 1517 over again. What is of more account, however, is the attempt made by many of our contemporaries to show the surprising tyranny of Dr. McGlynn's ecclesiastical superiors, and to contrast it with the methods of Protestantism. It may safely be affirmed that any Protestant church would act in similar circumstances precisely as the Roman Catholic Church is doing in the case referred to—that is, it would discipline, suspend, or excommunicate any of its clergy who should persist in teaching a doctrine at variance with its standards. The fact that an offending minister's parishioners were all devotedly attached to him, and were strenuous in desiring the continuance of his services, would make no more difference with the decision of one polity than with that of the other.

A good case in point is the action of the Presbytery of Philadelphia in refusing to allow Dr. L. W. Bacon to continue as minister of the Woodland Church. Dr. Bacon was willing to assent to the doctrinal standards of the Presbyterian Church, provided he were allowed to explain in what sense his assent was meant. In private conference with him, a Committee of the Presbytery found and reported that his views were substantially orthodox, and that they were consistent with an acceptance of the Westminster Confession; but because he persisted in thinking that they were not, he was refused installation over a church earnestly desirous that he should be its pastor, on the sole ground, therefore, that he would not stultify himself as the Presbytery wished him to do. Those religious newspapers which are saying that the members of St. Stephen's Church will find it an "educating" experience thus to be deprived of the pastor of their choice, ought to see that the same thing might happen in any Protestant communion. "Ah, but it was not for heresy, only for exercising his rights as an American citizen, that Dr. McGlynn had to suffer." Archbishop Corrigan maintains, it must be remembered, and his published letters bear him out, that the offence was purely that of insubordination and heretical teaching. But granting that the Archbishop does not know or is concealing the truth, and that Henry George is correct, even then the contrast between the Protestant way and the Catholic will not appear to be marked. Surely we are not yet so far from the Presidential election of 1884 as to make it hard to call to mind the cases of Protestant ministers who suffered for refusing to vote for Mr. Blaine. Mr. Bacon of New Haven was forced to resign his pulpit for that reason alone, and the same thing happened to an Episcopal rector of Erie, Pa. In short, it needs but a little reflection to see that ecclesiastical governments, as such, cannot differ very greatly from each other; they all propose substantially the same ends, and vary only in the name and form of the machinery adopted to secure them. Looking to matters of polity alone, Steele's jesting description of the difference between the Catholic Church and the Protestant is not so wide of the truth—that the former claims to be infallible, the latter only that it never makes any mistakes.

"Society" is every day becoming burdened with a heavier load of responsibility. The men who robbed the Jersey City Post-office last week explained to the wife of the Postmaster, after they had tied her down in bed and gagged her husband, "that society had driven them to this, as some had everything and they had nothing." What a very solemn fact this is. We have heard often enough that society is responsible for the tramps who infest the country roads in the summer time, but we were really not prepared to hear that society was now driving men into robbing post-offices. The only quick and sure remedy we can suggest is to place on the pension list every man who says that dissatisfaction with the present division of property impels him to be a robber. We ought not to wait until he actually robs before we do this. We ought to take the poor fellow's word for it in advance, before his soul is stained with crime. Could there be a higher and holier use for the surplus than pensioning those who without pensions would become burglars?

The Boston correspondent of the *Evening Post* gives some account of the attempts which are being made in Massachusetts to deal with the problem of heating and lighting cars in railroad trains, to which the recent tragedy in Vermont has given such horrible significance. It is very disgraceful to the railroad corporations that they should have waited to be forced into improvement on this point by legislation, considering how often accidents have, of late years, been accompanied by the burning alive of human beings, in the presence of the helpless bystanders. One such horror ought to be enough to set every company in the country at work contriving means to get the stove and the kerosene lamp out of the cars. The safe and simple plan of heating by steam from the locomotive has been objected to on the ground that single cars could not be temporarily cut off from the rest of the train, or the train detached from the locomotive, without complete loss of heat. But experiments made in Massachusetts seem to establish the fact that the steam in the pipes will retain its heating power for a full hour, which is as long as it is ever needed in any train or car in the absence of the engine. The one peril which this plan does not provide for is that of being snowed up. This, in some parts of the country, might be now and then serious, but it cannot be compared to the danger of being roasted alive. People can contend against extreme cold, in the shelter of a car, with more or less success. The correspondent's account of the experiments with the electric light is also interesting and important. It is hardly possible that any railroad corporation will venture to delay any longer the attempt to banish both the stove and the lamp, which, in view of these experiments, are "twin relics of barbarism."

There are a good many reasons for believing that the war talk at Berlin is "campaign thunder," intended to affect the elections for the Reichstag, now pending. But this is not as innocuous as it seems, for of course the French will not stand a great deal of threatening, or witness unmoved a great deal even of pretence of getting ready to fight them. It will, of course, suit Boulanger's purpose very well to seem to have his hand forced, and therefore, if he be really as much bent on war as he is accused of being, the war articles in the German press and the German movements of troops must be to his liking. That either the French or German people are anxious for a fight, or see the smallest necessity for fighting, there is not the least sign. If, in fact, the war breaks out, the cause of it will be a secret locked up in the breasts of the high strategists, and it will be as great a discredit to our civilization as any of Louis Fourteenth's. The whole affair illustrates the difficulty of carrying on a parliamentary government based on universal suffrage, while maintaining a large standing army and cultivating the military spirit among the people. If you have a large standing army, you cannot introduce foreign politics into the canvasses before election without running the risk of setting the world in a blaze. Every wild expression of a stump orator or roaring editor sends a shrill of martial ardor through millions of breasts. Here, on the contrary, having neither army nor navy, our orators can hurl defiance to the four corners of the globe without quickening a single pulse.

The revised version of the story of the Italian troubles in Africa is, that the fight in which the Italian troops were worsted was with the Abyssinians and not with the Sudanese after all, which makes the situation more serious, as the Abyssinians are at closer quarters and have a better base of operation than the Arabs. What the use is of Massowah to Italy, does not appear to have been brought out in the debates in Parliament over the despatch of reinforcements.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

WEDNESDAY, February 2, to TUESDAY, February 8, 1887, inclusive.

DOMESTIC.

THE Dependent Pension Bill did not reach the President until Monday night, January 31, and he will have until Friday, February 11, to determine upon his course with respect to it. The Cabinet are earnestly opposed to the measure. Secretary Manning and Assistant-Secretary Fairchild think it is the worst bill that was ever sent to the President. They regard it as extremely dangerous. The President has received private appeals from prominent persons urging him to veto the bill.

The President signed the Electoral Count and Inter-State Commerce bills on Friday. He has not yet selected the five Commissioners under the latter bill.

President Cleveland on Monday nominated E. C. More of Missouri to be Consul-General of Mexico. This is the place held by the officious J. W. Porch.

On Saturday the President sent to the House seven vetoed private pension bills.

The House on Wednesday, by a vote of 115 to 136 (not the necessary two-thirds), refused to overrule the President's veto of the bill granting a pension to Carter W. Tiller. Twenty Democrats voted with 116 Republicans against the President's course.

The House Committee on Invalid Pensions has reported adversely on the Senate bills granting pensions to Mrs Logan and Mrs. Blair, and favorably on the bill to pension Walt Whitman at the rate of $25 per month.

On Thursday the Legislative, Executive, and Judicial Appropriation Bill was reported to the House. The bill makes a total appropriation of $20,286,910, which is less than the appropriation for the current year by $418,545. The estimates aggregated $21,173,000. The number of surveyors-general, which is now fifteen, is reduced by the bill to eleven, and it is provided that on and after July 1, 1888, the office of Surveyor-General shall be abolished, and the records of the offices turned over to the Commissioner of the General Land Office, who is charged with the performance of all the duties now performed by the surveyors-general, under the direction of the Secretary of the Interior. A clause provides that the appropriations for the Civil-Service Commission shall not be available while any rule of that Commission declares persons over forty-five years of age to be ineligible for appointment. The Committee also reduces the appropriation for travelling expenses of the Commission one-half.

In reporting favorably on Tuesday Mr. W. R. Cox's bill to increase the salaries of the Civil-Service Commissioners from $3,500 to $5,000, the House Committee on Civil-Service Reform says that when the act was passed it was regarded as merely tentative, and it was believed that the Commissioners' duties would be comparatively light. Civil-service reform has become, however, one of the fixed institutions of this country. The report continues: "All now agree that 'public office is a public trust,' and should be bestowed and exercised for the public good and not for private ends. Every intelligent man admits that the civil service depends upon the qualifications of the officer for the position he fills, and not the mere political opinions he may entertain. It is not intended to interfere with or destroy parties, all of which are believed to be essential to the faithful and honest administration of the Government. A public servant should be held to a faithful discharge of his public duty, and not held as a henchman to do dirty work. No reformer will dispense with political parties nor with their efficient organization for all legitimate purposes. It is a false assumption to claim that they have no higher aim or object than the mere fruits of office. The British civil service has been freed from partisan control, and yet no more bitter, active, or unrelenting political contest has been witnessed in that kingdom than was seen in their last election. That the public service has been purified and elevated by the efforts of the Civil-Service Commissioners, aided and sustained by the President, cannot be successfully denied. That the clerical service is hereby rendered more and more efficient is universally believed to be true. The Civil-Service Law is the great breakwater of many politicians, who employ it as an excuse for failure to secure positions for friends, and sometimes unjustly attack the law and those who execute it. As this reform has come to stay, it is highly important that the best talent should be placed at the command of the President in order to secure the services of such men as are willing to fill the office for a reasonable compensation, and not accept the position merely through the hope of filling it temporarily as a stepping stone to future preferment."

The Naval Committee of the House on Friday accepted without amendment the bill prepared by the sub committee appropriating $2,450,000 to begin the construction of the new cruisers, four gun-boats, and one torpedo boat for the navy.

The Senate on Wednesday passed, by 34 to 15, the House bill appropriating $10,000 (to be immediately available) for special distribution of seeds in the drought-stricken section of Texas by the Agricultural Department.

In the Senate on Thursday the resolution heretofore offered by Mr. Plumb (Rep., Kan.), calling on the Secretary of the Interior for information as to whether there is any rule of the Pension Office whereby any applicant for pension is denied a hearing by reason of being also a petitioner to Congress, was taken up. The discussion turned somewhat on the question of civil-service reform. On that point Mr. Saulsbury (Dem., Del.) said, that while he would not convert President Cleveland into a public butcher, decapitating every office-holder hostile to him, he would instruct him that it was a duty which he owed to himself, his Administration, the party which elected him, and the country which he served, to purge the departments of the men hostile to his Administration, and unless he did so he would not have a successful Administration.

The Senate passed on Friday, with only one nay, the bill reported from the Finance Committee to refund to the States and Territories the $20,000,000 collected from them under the Direct Tax Act of 1861. The Senate also disposed of the Beck bill in regard to members acting as railroad attorneys. The original Beck resolution was rejected—17 yeas to 36 nays—and the bill was then passed, 39 to 14, in the following shape: "That it shall be unlawful for any member of either house of Congress to accept employment as attorney-at-law, or payment of services of any kind; in opposition to the United States, in any case to which the United States may be a party, or in which its interests may be concerned, or from any railroad company, if such member shall have reasonable cause to believe that measures specially affecting the interests of such company are pending before Congress, or are about to be so pending during his term of office. Any person who violates the provisions of this act shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and may be punished by imprisonment not exceeding one year, or by fine not exceeding $500, or by both, in the discretion of the court." The nays were (Dems. in italics): *Call*, Cameron, Farwell, *Gray, Hampton*, McMillan, Mahone, Mitchell of Oregon, *Payne, Pugh, Ransom*, Sawyer, Stanford, and Teller.

The Senate on Monday, without division, passed the bill "to encourage the manufacture of steel for modern army ordnance, armor, and other army purposes, and to provide heavy ordnance adapted to modern army warfare," and the bill "to encourage the manufacture of steel for modern naval ordnance, armor, shafting, and other naval purposes, and to provide heavy ordnance adapted to modern naval warfare." These bills appropriate more than $21,000,000.

The Senate Committee on the Judiciary have changed the House joint resolution for an investigation of the Pacific Railroad accounts to the form of a bill. It provides for a sweeping investigation, during the progress of which the Funding Bill will not be pressed. It also provides for the protection of the interests of the Government by authorizing the President to redeem any of the first mortgage liens; and provides that, in future, 40 instead of 25 per cent. shall be paid to the Government. Mr. Hoar (Rep., Mass) reported the bill on Friday morning, and asked for immediate consideration. Mr. Hale (Rep., Me.) objected to the immediate consideration of the bill, and it therefore went to the calendar—Mr. Hoar giving notice that he would call it up at the first opportunity.

Secretary Manning has sent to Mr. Belmont, Chairman of the House Committee on Foreign Affairs, a carefully prepared reply to the request of that Committee for his views with regard to the House and Senate retaliation bills, and for any suggestions he may desire to make. The Secretary proposes a bill giving the President power "to close, by a proclamation to that effect, all the ports of the United States against any and every vessel owned wholly or in part by a subject of her Britannic Majesty, and coming or arriving from any port or place in the Dominion of Canada or in the Island of Newfoundland, whether directly or having touched at any other port, excepting such vessel shall be in distress of navigation and of needed repairs or supplies therefor; and every vessel thus excluded from the ports of the United States that shall enter or attempt to enter the same, in violation of this act, shall, with her tackle, apparel, furniture, and all the cargo on board, be seized and forfeited to the United States, or the value thereof, to be recovered of the person or persons making or attempting to make entry." Also, power to forbid the importation of merchandise from Canada.

Treasurer Jordan admitted on Friday that Secretary Manning is to be the President and he (Jordan) is to be the Vice-President of the Western National Bank of the city of New York. The resignations of both officials are in the hands of the President, and will be accepted in due time.

A suit was begun in the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia on Thursday to test the constitutionality of the Civil-Service Law.

In the joint ballot for United States Senator in the Indiana Legislature on Wednesday, Robinson, the Greenback-Labor man, voted for David Turpie (Dem.), giving him seventy-six votes, and he was declared elected. Harrison received seventy-four votes. The Republicans propose to make a contest. Mr. Turpie is a native of Ohio, but has spent the most of his life in Indiana. He has been twice elected to the Legislature, and has been Speaker of the House, Judge of the Common Pleas and Circuit Courts of the State, and filled fifty days of the time of J. D. Bright as United States Senator when the latter was expelled in 1863. Last year he was appointed United States Attorney for Indiana by President Cleveland.

The Supreme Court of Wyoming Territory on Thursday decided that the bill granting suffrage to women is unconstitutional. Women have been voting in the Territory since the act was passed by the Legislature of 1885.

In the New York Assembly on Wednesday the Judiciary Committee reported against the Kenny bill to repeal all the State civil-service laws. Mr. Kenny moved to disagree with the report and send the bill on its way to the Committee of the Whole. All the Democrats who voted, with the exception of Fitch of Green, Reeves of Suffolk, and Sheehan of Erie, voted

against the adverse report, and therefore in favor of repealing the civil-service laws. The Republicans, including the Speaker, who usually refrains from voting, sustained the adverse report and the civil-service laws, the report being approved by a vote of 67 to 30. The Republicans are jubilant, claiming that the vote sustains their charge that Democratic support of civil-service reform has been a deception.

One of the most terrible railroad accidents in the history of this country occurred on the Vermont Central Railroad, not far from White River Junction, on Saturday morning about 2:15 o'clock. The Montreal express left the track on a bridge sixty feet above the river. Two sleepers and two ordinary passenger cars were hurled into the frozen river. Thirty-four are known to be dead, and of these fifteen have been identified, two are missing, and there are thirty-six injured. It is believed that the breaking of an axle of the rear car caused the accident

FOREIGN.

The war scare continued on Thursday. London and Paris markets were depressed almost to a panic. The Russian Government issued an order forbidding the exportation of horses.

The Berlin *North German Gazette* semi-officially said on Thursday, that the panics on the Paris Bourse were due more to local causes and an excess of speculation than to external influences. This is interpreted as an attempt to relieve the German press from the appearance of giving provocation and exciting alarm.

All European markets were stronger on Friday. A despatch from Berlin asserted that Prince Bismarck had assured the Ambassador of a friendly Power that Germany would on no account attack France.

It was credibly reported in London that M. Herbette, the French Ambassador at Berlin, and Count Herbert Bismarck met on Friday and exchanged peaceful assurances. M. Herbette, it is said, asserted that there would be no movements of French troops without the consent of the Council of State, while Count Herbert stated that the 72,000 reserves would return to their homes as soon as they had been drilled; that 20,000 more would be called out, drilled, and sent back to their homes, and that then there would be no more levies.

The European markets continued stronger on Saturday, and on Monday, but on Tuesday closed rather flat, owing to unfavorable news from Berlin.

The Vienna correspondent of a London paper asserts that the German Bundesrath has actually discussed the proposal for a loan of 300,000,000 marks, and says that the fact that the proposal was not submitted to the Landtag shows that the situation has improved.

The main subject of discussion in political circles at Berlin on Saturday was the publication of the much-talked-of manifesto of the Pope in favor of Bismarck's demands from the Reichstag. It appeared in the form of a despatch from Cardinal Jacobini to the Pope's Nuncio at Munich. It is considered in Berlin by members of the Liberal and Centre parties as not likely to benefit the Government much, because, in the first place, it conveys only a desire, and not a command, of the Pope; and, secondly, because the so-called Church question is an issue between Prussia and the Pope, with which the German Empire as such has nothing whatever to do. It is even confidently expected by the Opposition that this direct interference by the Pope in domestic politics will react strongly against the Government.

Dr. Windthorst, the leader of the Centre (Catholic) party in the German Reichstag, in a political address delivered in Cologne on Sunday, took an attitude of opposition to the Pope's recently expressed wish that the Centre party adopt a policy of conciliation on the Septennate Bill in order to enable the Pope to meet the views of Prince Bismarck, and secure improvement in the position of the Papacy. Dr. Windthorst said that the Pope's advocacy of the Septennate Bill was independent of the merits of the measure, and arose from reasons of expediency and from political considerations. If it had been possible to comply with the wishes of his Holiness, Dr. Windthorst said, the Centre party would have done so, but nobody could accomplish the impossible. The Pope would not be displeased with his faithful sons in Germany for their refusal to comply with his political wishes, when he had closely examined into the reasons which impelled them.

The tone of Lord Hartington's Unionist manifesto, delivered on Wednesday night at Newcastle, was not, despite a certain doggedness, calculated to spread much enthusiasm among his followers. "I hoped," he said, "when we went into this struggle that we all counted the cost. If not, I hope we shall count the cost now; for unless we are prepared to maintain our position and continue our sacrifice to carry through our policy to the end, I, for one, say it would be better that we should retire at once than needlessly and fruitlessly to prolong a struggle which we have not the courage and resolution to carry to the end." He hinted to Mr. Chamberlain that the latter was going too fast, and declared his own intention to drop ordinary party questions while the Irish question was unsettled. The first duty of the Government, he said, was to suppress anarchy and contempt of law. Conferring powers upon extended municipalities of the United Kingdom, and emigration and migration, were the only definite measures of relief he suggested.

In the House of Commons on Friday Mr. Cremer, Radical, moved an amendment to the address in reply to the Queen's speech, demanding an immediate recall of all the British forces in Egypt. Sir Wilfrid Lawson, Radical, in seconding the motion, said: "We have raised the funded debt of Egypt from £90,000,000 to £100,000,000, slaughtered many thousands of the natives, crippled the National Chamber, bombarded the principal city of the country under circumstances of the greatest horror, increased taxation, promoted horrible debauchery in the capital, sown dissensions between the Khedive and the people, and crushed out the first little sparks of independence that had been seen in Eastern nations for ages past." W. H. Smith defended the Government's policy. He said the evacuation of Egypt by England would throw that country into a state of anarchy. Mr. Cremer's amendment was rejected by a vote of 263 to 97.

In the House of Commons on Monday night, after moving his amendment, Mr. Parnell made an impressive speech. It is generally admitted that he succeeded in convicting the Government of flagrant inconsistency in the conduct of Gen. Sir Redvers Buller and Judge Curran, who brought pressure to bear on the landlords while prosecuting the Nationalists' own more successful method of the "plan of campaign." "Dynamite," said Mr. Parnell excitedly, shaking his hand over the heads of his followers at the Government bench, "was repeatedly exploding in the crowded streets of your city. Your public buildings were also threatened. Attempts were made to destroy them. Even in this House, Ministers were not safe from violent attacks and attempts at assassination. After all these terrible events, after all this loss of life, some upon the scaffold and many more victims of the wild justice of revenge, after all this peril to your citizens pursuing their lawful occupations in the streets, after all this danger to your most distinguished Ministers, what was the result? The Tory Government came into office and abandoned coercion." This was the most successful point of the speech, and was received by the Liberals and Parnellites with prolonged cheers. Mr. Gladstone promises to support the Parnell amendment

The Parnellites will oppose in Parliament all projects relative to the liquor traffic in Ireland, on the ground that the question should be reserved for an Irish Parliament.

Mr. Chamberlain, in an interview on Monday with delegates from the Scotch crofters, offered, in the event of the Scotch members approving his taking the lead of the party, to introduce a crofter bill in Parliament. The Gladstonian Radicals, jealous of Chamberlain's interference, oppose his assumption of the lead of the Scotch Radicals. Mr. Morley declares in favor of Chamberlain, on the ground that his advocacy of the crofters' cause is a step towards complete reunion of the Liberal party. The Parnellites are incensed. The Scotch members will hold a formal conference before deciding the leadership question.

Lord Randolph Churchill has gone to Algiers with a view to restoring his health. He expects to be absent a month.

The Earl of Dunraven, Under-Secretary for the Colonies, has resigned. This is not of much importance except as one more shot fired at the Tory Government in a critical time.

Peter Rylands (Liberal-Unionist), Member of Parliament for Burnley, is dead. He was born in 1820.

Twenty moonlighters raided the farmhouses near Mill Street, County Cork, on Friday, and seized a number of guns, discharging the weapons to intimidate the farmers. They also sheared the hair off the heads of four girls who had disobeyed the League's order not to speak to policemen.

The determined action of the British Government, in dispensing with the services of the Cunard and White Star Companies unless they would consent to terms having no savor of monopoly about them, has now produced its fruits in the alacrity with which the chief companies have coöperated with the Post-office in devising the new service. In future the White Star Line will take the mails Wednesdays, the Cunard Line Saturdays, the North German Lloyd Thursdays, and the Inman Line for those who wish on Tuesdays. Thus the mail for New York will leave on four days in the week, and the advantages of the Queenstown and Southampton routes will be equally secured.

Henry M. Stanley embarked from Suez on Sunday on the steamer *Navarino* for Zanzibar direct.

The Egyptian Government has raised the blockade of the Sudan, and commerce with that region has been reopened.

There was a sensation in the Italian Chamber of Deputies on February 1, when Premier Depretis announced that three companies of the Italian troops, engaged in the occupation of the region around Massowah, Africa, had been almost annihilated in a fight on January 25 and 26, near Saati. They were attacked by the Abyssinians. The Chamber at once passed a bill appropriating $1,000,000 to send reinforcements to Massowah.

The *République Française* on Thursday published a despatch from Suez which said that the Abyssinians captured all the guns of the Italians; that of the 480 Italians in the fights not more than 50 escaped, and that the Italians have evacuated all their advanced positions, and the Abyssinians have carried the first line of the Italian entrenchments around Massowah.

Prime Minister Depretis of Italy announced to the Chamber of Deputies on Tuesday afternoon that the entire Cabinet had resigned. This was owing to the storm raised by the Massowah massacre of Italian troops, and by the doubtful position of the Cabinet in Parliament. It is believed that M. Depretis will be asked to form a new Ministry. Count di Robilant, Foreign Minister, absolutely refuses to enter it. This is considered a bad augury for the preservation of the peace of Europe.

"THE LABOR PROBLEM."

SOME weeks ago we invited our reforming friends who were interested in the labor problem, to give us some account of the legislation which, in their opinion, would solve it. We were accordingly soon deluged with lists of bills which would put an end to the workingman's discontent. Several of our correspondents relied mainly on a lowering of the tariff, which they said was the workingman's worst grievance. Others recommended bills to shorten the hours of labor, bills to abolish the labor of minors, bills to establish Government savings banks, bills to make employers liable for injuries sustained by employees in the performance of their duty, bills to improve tenement-houses and factories, bills to supply free music, bills to establish free libraries and reading-rooms, bills to make arbitration compulsory in labor disputes, bills to increase the number of holidays, and so on. None of these suggestions, however, so far as we could make out, came from real manual laborers, or, in other words, from the persons who make the labor problem and keep it going, and whose discontent furnishes the text for most of the sermons and articles about labor. They came from amateurs—that is, from people whose minds play round the labor problem, and are frightened by it, and think that if the people who do not work with their hands do not provide a solution speedily, something dreadful will happen—something in the nature of a social cataclysm or earthquake—which will knock our civilization into ruins.

We paid very little attention to these suggestions, because we knew very well that they did not contain or even touch the labor problem as Labor understands it, and that every one of the proposed bills might be passed, not only without diminishing the prevailing discontent of the manual laborers, but without preventing its rapid increase. We had not very long to wait for a confirmation of this view of them. On Saturday last, Labor's head man in this city—that is, the Master Workman of District Assembly 49, who has been directing the strikes—went before the Assembly Committee now sitting here, and described the labor problem as Labor sees it. When asked to explain strikes against employers of whom there was nothing to complain, he said these suspensions of industry were simply intended to "enlighten the public as to the wrongs of the strikers, and bring the pressure of public opinion to bear on the employers," and were not really strikes against individuals, but "against a general system." Being asked how such "a movement was brought about, and who could declare it off," he said it could only be declared off by "the yielding of the companies." Being asked for a more general and radical solution of the labor difficulty, he said—

> "That he believed the Government ought to own all factories, and, ultimately, all great stores for the sale of merchandise; when that time came the farmer would no longer own his land; all land, all property of every kind, would be owned by the Government for the common good and common use.
>
> "Mr. Russell — In other words, the Henry George theory.
>
> "Witness — The Henry George theory improved.
>
> "Mr. Quinn then said, in reply to Mr. Hogeboom, that he believed wealth would be more equitably distributed under the system of Government ownership which he advocated, and that therefore the present friction between labor and capital would disappear."

Now, it makes no difference whether Quinn is simply an ignorant man, or a visionary man, or a knavish man. The important fact for our purpose is, that he is the official head of the organized Labor in this city, and sets on foot and directs such attacks on property and order as the strikes either are from the beginning or speedily become. Consequently, his notion about the labor problem is probably that of the great body of his followers and confederates. In other words, he represents the people whom so many politicians, and ministers, and philanthropists are trying to appease, some by silly and hypocritical talk and legislation, and some by predictions of great calamities in case Labor is not satisfied. We here see that what the Quinns have in their minds when they strike is simply the transformation of American society into a huge labor union, in which the Master Workman and the Walking Delegate would have the key of the general storehouse, and the distribution of the food and clothing, and the assignment of our daily tasks.

Of course we have not so low an opinion of American intelligence as to discuss this man's sociology or political economy seriously. We take it up simply to point out the folly of supposing that the men who are engaged in keeping the labor agitation on foot in this country, will be appeased or silenced by the little palliatives in the way of sanitary legislation which our reformers suggest, or the little bits of quackery with which our political demagogues seek to cajole them. They have a large, passionate, very ignorant, and, through their ignorance, very discontented and uncomfortable constituency, mostly of foreign birth and training. These have in one way or another been persuaded that only manual laborers create anything or do any work, and that everything which sustains human existence and makes it commodious or graceful belongs to them of right; that all who think, or plan, or calculate, or direct, or record, or invent, or discover are mere useless excrescences. They care nothing for political freedom, and, in so far as they can, themselves live under a despotism. They are a small minority of the population, but, by rigid organization and by their power of causing great temporary inconvenience, they deeply impress the imagination of politicians, ministers, philanthropists, and sociological speculators and professors, and cause displays of gross cowardice among business men, whose operations they for brief periods check or interfere with. They have, in fact, succeeded in producing a state of things in some of our cities very like that which was produced at the North before the war by the vigor and audacity of the slaveholders. The slaveholders filled our pulpits and counting-houses with "doughfaces," or "Northern men with Southern principles," who were ready to say anything, believe anything, or submit to anything which would prevent "the South" from getting angry, or make it stay in the Union. But "Labor," like the South, is made only the more turbulent and unreasonable by seeing the fear it inspires and the concessions it can exact.

The duty of intelligent Americans is, however, in no way changed by the follies, or exactions, or delusions of strikers. Good citizens are bound, under all circumstances, and no matter at what sacrifice of comfort, to see that their Government and civilization suffer no damage; that the precious union of liberty and order which has come down to them from former generations as a sacred trust is delivered to posterity without either "shortage" or conversion. It ought not to make any difference to them whether it is assailed by ignorance at home or force from abroad. Their business is to protect it against assaults of every kind from every quarter, and to let it be known from the first minute that they will protect it to the last extremity.

ARBITRATION.

THE Chamber of Commerce last week discussed the pending strikes, but without any better result than a reference of the whole subject to the Executive Committee, with power to call a public meeting or take such action as might seem best. The discussion which preceded this rather lame conclusion was marked by the vagueness which characterizes the utterances of nearly everybody who opens his mouth about the labor question. Mr. Henry wanted prompt arbitration, by the Chamber of Commerce, forgetting that there can be no arbitration unless the parties to the dispute not only agree to submit to arbitration, but agree on the questions on which the arbitrator is to pass. A great many people propose arbitration in all these troubles, as if it was a remedy which could be applied by the first bystander, like brown paper and vinegar, without the assistance or consent of the belligerents. Another proposal was made by Mr. James H. Seymour as a substitute for Mr. Henry's plan, which had really a touch of humor in it. He wanted a public meeting of merchants and manufacturers to discuss the situation, and offered Steinway Hall free of charge for this purpose. When one considers the kind of discussion of any subject which takes place at a public meeting, and remembers how much talk in "halls" has been already expended on the relations of capital and labor, one can hardly read this without a smile.

What makes such talk as this on the part of business men all the more extraordinary is, that the nature and origin of the strikes here and in Jersey City are probably understood more clearly and widely than any other subject of the day. There is probably hardly a man in the community who does not know more about them than he knows about any other matter except his private and personal affairs. The pretence in which so many orators and writers indulge, that there is something mysterious and incomprehensible about the strikes, and that what is needed is investigation and discussion, is really, at this time of day, somewhat lamentable. It would, for instance, be a waste of time to occupy a hall and use a large quantity of gas in examining the causes of the strike on the coal wharves in New Jersey, when we all

know that it was begun by a dispute about wages. On this the men of the Philadelphia and Reading line struck, and the men of the other companies struck in sympathy with them. Now, does any business man in this city deny the right of any employer to offer lower wages if he thinks best? Does anybody deny the right of the employee to refuse the offer and leave his service? Does any business man maintain that an employer ought to be compelled to pay higher wages than he thinks his business will allow, or that an employee ought to be compelled to accept lower wages than he thinks his services are worth? None that we have ever heard of. Would the public meeting in Steinway Hall propose a legal rate of wages to be fixed by some public officers, like the members of the Board of Arbitration? We presume not. Every member of the Chamber of Commerce knows that this would be an impracticable and indeed silly proposal, even if it were not unconstitutional.

What makes the matter still more unfit for public discussion is, that it does not appear that the business of the coal companies would suffer in any way from their course about wages, were it not for the violence of the strikers. It is not the conduct of the companies in lowering or refusing to advance wages which is causing the scarcity of coal in this city. Every member of the Chamber of Commerce knows this well. It is the violence and intimidation practised by the strikers towards the men who seek to take their places on the coal wharves. Nobody disputes the right of the strikers to strike, and to persuade other men in the same calling to strike along with them. Every man has the right to strike; and it is his duty to strike if he thinks his interests will be served by so doing, and to make combinations for striking purposes. It is not these things which the companies are resisting, or which are causing the disturbances from which the trade and industry of the city are suffering. It is the assertion by the strikers of the right to remain in their places on their own terms—that is, the right to be employed at wages fixed by themselves by persons who do not wish for their services on any terms. They not only assert this right, but they assert it by force of arms—that is, by hanging about the premises of their former employers, and attacking or menacing with sticks, and stones, and firearms other workingmen who do not agree with them about wages and do not belong to their combination. Were these attacks and threats abandoned, there would be no labor trouble in this city to-day, no scarcity of coal, and no shutting down of factories, and no need of any meeting in Steinway Hall, except a meeting to encourage the police in defending property and order, and to proclaim anew the right of every American citizen to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. As long as business men, clergymen, professors, and politicians persist in not seeing this aspect of the case, and in making believe that the whole laboring population is engaged in these strikes and riots, when, as everybody knows, it is a minority which carries them on, and it is greedy and worthless adventurers, in nine cases out of ten, who get them up, they will continue to cause grave social perturbation and disorder.

We have for the sake of simplicity assumed in these remarks that all the labor disputes now pending are disputes between employers and persons who have actually been in their employment, about matters arising in the conduct of their common business. All that we have said would of course have been greatly strengthened by a review of the complications the Knights of Labor have introduced into these quarrels by making men employed in one shop, factory, or wharf, who have no grievance at all, strike in aid of other strikers in other shops, factories, or wharves, with whom they have not perhaps a single interest in common. This programme, if successful, would make each employer responsible for the doings or troubles of every other employer in the country, or, in other words, add enormously to those risks of his business—already numerous enough—over which he has not and cannot have any control. Will any member of the Chamber of Commerce say that business could, in this or any other city, be carried on profitably and safely under such a system controlled by men like the "Master Workmen" and "Walking Delegates"? Why, if submitted to, its effects would be very like those of an arrangement for having the city visited at uncertain intervals by two or three Western tornadoes every year. It cannot be submitted to. It must be resisted and overthrown, at whatever present cost. Of course resistance to it causes loss, just as resistance to invasion or riot causes loss; but the cost of resistance will not be one-hundredth part of the cost of submission.

VIRGINIA COUPON-KILLING.

A NEW coupon case which has just been decided in favor of Virginia by its Supreme Court of Appeals, is, of course, magnified by the repudiators into a great victory, although, in fact, it is much more like one of those successful skirmishes which sometimes brighten, to an inordinate degree, the spirits of an army in full retreat. Among the cases of 1885, decided unanimously by the Supreme Court of the United States against the pretensions of the State; was one to the effect that a fee for a business license was a tax, that a tender of coupons in payment of the fee would allow the party to proceed in his business as if he had paid money, and that a punishment by fine was unconstitutional and could not be imposed. To creep around this decision the Assembly passed a law March 4, 1886, that all coupons offered in payment of business licenses must be verified by a jury, and made it an indictable offence to do business without a license.

It is this law which the Virginia Court of Appeals has sustained, and which Judge Bond has just pronounced unconstitutional, and it therefore becomes necessary to consider the decisions in two aspects, first, whether, if the law be sustained by the United States Supreme Court, it will effect its purpose, and, second, whether it is likely to be sustained. It will be noticed that the law is a return to the miserable chicanery of the Riddleberger law of January 14, 1882. The State, in other words, has given up the fight on total repudiation, and has once more fallen under the proud banner of its present Senator. Experience showed that the Riddleberger law was such an ineffective "coupon-killer" that law after law was passed to do the work it failed to do. The truth of the matter is, that although the Riddleberger law does lessen the value of the coupons, it does not benefit the State. Coupons under it are not as valuable as money for paying taxes, because the person who uses them must go through intricate legal proceedings. But ultimately they come to the State at their full face value. Thus both sides lose, the loss accruing partially to the bondholders, who sell the coupons at a low rate, and partially to the State, who must pay lawyers for conducting the suit. Such will be the barren results of the law, if the decision of the State court upholding it be sustained, but it is hard to see how it can be sustained. The State judges evidently suppose that the pretension on the part of the State that the coupons are counterfeit, gives it a right both to require a deposit of money and to compel the taxpayer to await the finding of the jury. This leaves out of sight the common principles of tender. A owes B money. A tenders payment. B avers the money to be counterfeit. Can B force A to give him other money if A chooses to take the risk of its being counterfeit? Is there any magic in calling out fraud and counterfeit? On the contrary, if B believes the money offered to be counterfeit, let him refuse it, proceed against A by suit, and if A pleads tender and produces the money, then the jury can decide upon its genuineness. Or let B accept the money and sue A, and, when A pleads payment, show that the so-called payment was no payment because the money was counterfeit. Judge Bond says flatly that the coupons are as much legal tender as the greenback.

Meanwhile, the Virginia newspapers which advocate repudiation will probably continue to rejoice. But besides the fact that they have been driven back to the principles of the Riddleberger Act, which is ineffective to prevent coupons from flowing into the Treasury, and besides the fact that in all probability the Supreme Court will hold that the taxpayers need not pursue that act if they choose to rest on tender, there are indications in the realm outside of courts that the party of repudiation is losing its grasp. One of the leaders of the Democratic party has come out for compromise, not because of a change of heart, but upon the express ground that the attempts to repudiate are a failure. He accuses the wicked Republicans of using the coupons with the malevolent purpose of bringing the Democratic party into disgrace. He calls attention to the fact that the enemies of the "resistless Democratic party" made last fall a clear gain of five members of Congress, and that three papers of the State, championing the same "resistless party," are openly fighting the Riddleberger law. He says that the county treasurers have disobeyed the plain behests of the State law and received that "cut-worm" of the treasury, the coupon, and reminds the politicians that a cause once believed in by the whole people was, after four long years of struggle, utterly lost.

The *Virginian* of Lynchburg implores him to desist from such ill-timed remarks, and,

imitating the protectionist fling that revenue reformers are recipients of British gold, says that one of the three papers mentioned is, "according to common report," in the interest of English bondholders. The *Virginian* further expresses astonishment that a tried leader of the Democratic party should act except in concert with the leading and directing minds of his party, and a few days later takes occasion to publish what it calls a sterling letter from the State Attorney-General, who says that he regards the situation as much more favorable to the State than at any time during the past year. It is not difficult to disbelieve so partial a witness, and the facts he cites to sustain his opinion may be demurred to. He says that the Virginia juries have refused to give punitive damages against the State officers who have proceeded to distrain for taxes in spite of tender of coupons. But as it seems that the taxpayer has his money refunded finally even if he does not get damages, it is clear that if coupons can be bought at a sufficiently low price, it will pay to use them without hope of damages; and when they get to the State, it should never be forgotten, they are paid in at their full face value, so that the State makes nothing, but only has the pleasure of gouging the bondholders. That these suits will continue upon this basis there can be little doubt. In the first place, they have continued; then it is not in human nature to refuse to make money legally because others cry traitor; and, last of all, the Attorney-General's perfervid appeal to taxpayers not to use coupons must call to mind *Bob Acres's* excited asseveration, "We will not run."

RHODE ISLAND POLITICS.

THE Constitution of Rhode Island differs from that of every other State in the Union in that it provides for a discriminating qualification against American citizens who happen to be of foreign birth. That qualification consists of an ownership of real estate. The Constitution further provides for the payment of a registry tax as a prerequisite to the exercise of the suffrage by any voter who does not pay a tax on personal property. The peculiar legislation upon the statute-books under the latter clause has produced a state of things by which, for many years past, the political control of the State has been in the hands of a plutocracy, which has been annually in the habit of selling the Governorship and the United States Senatorships to those men who have had the means and the willingness to pay the whole of the registry tax due from Republican voters; the remarkable fact being that the registry voter has always, for some reason, deemed himself under an obligation to vote according to the instructions of that person who has paid his tax for him. Possibly the local bosses have seen to it that none but servile voters were duly qualified, or at any rate have seen to it that all persons upon whose votes they could surely rely were duly registered and their taxes paid.

This condition of things has been well known. It culminated two years ago in the nomination of a man whose sole qualification for Governor is that of great wealth, for up to that time he had never held any office in Rhode Island, had not been specially identified with any of its interests, owned no property in it but that which he occupied as a residence in summer, and was not, in fact, in any proper sense a Rhode Islander. Such a selection obviously would not have been made had it not been for the fact that the persons whose purses were available for the purchase of the Republican registry vote, who were actual Rhode Islanders, had been exhausted. At that juncture it happened that no Rhode Island citizen able to afford the necessary sum of money wanted the place, and so it was sold to Mr. G. P. Wetmore of New York, who became Governor of the State in the spring of 1885. The same operation was performed with this gentleman in 1886, and, coincidently with his second election, there was also elected a General Assembly the like of which for corruption and for misconduct of every description has not been seen or known in the State.

On the same day on which the members of this body were elected, the advocates of constitutional prohibition succeeded in capturing the State for an amendment to the Constitution prohibiting the sale of intoxicating liquors. It is quite fair to say that the popular vote in favor of this amendment would not have been secured but for the general feeling that no honest effort had ever been made, in any part of the State, to enforce the laws regulating the sales of liquor which had been previously on the statute-books. The vote was a mere expression of popular discontent with the enforcement of those laws, and the General Assembly thus elected thereupon proceeded to make all the use it possibly could of this fundamental change in the law for its own profit and that of its fellows. It adopted legislation ostensibly for the enforcement of the prohibitory amendment, and by that legislation established the office of Chief Constable to enforce the law. It also organized a large number of district courts throughout the State, the ostensible object of which was to administer the prohibitory law, and thereupon proceeded to fill all the offices thus created either with members of its own body or with persons in active sympathy and coöperation with it. Chas. R. Brayton, who had been Postmaster of the city of Providence and compelled to resign in consequence of serious defalcations in his money accounts with the Government, amounting to some $30,000, and who had been for many years the most corrupt and notorious Republican boss in the State, manipulating the bosses of both parties at will in the Republican interest, was elected to the office of Chief Constable, with a salary of $3,000 a year and all his travelling expenses paid.

Members of the General Assembly were elected by that body to fill almost all the offices of judges and clerks of the district courts, at salaries which, in this small State, are considered very large. There is nothing in the Constitution of Rhode Island which prevents the members of the General Assembly from holding another State office, and therefore these men still continue as members of the General Assembly. This transaction is what has been known as the "Newport May Deal," and it produced an emphatic and weighty protest from a very large wing of the Republican party (by which we mean that portion of it which remained loyal after the nomination of Mr. Blaine), including the Providence *Journal* and other influential Republican newspapers. This wing of the party has continued ever since to wage war upon all those persons who were concerned in the deal, and we think it may be safely assumed that there is but little probability that any amalgamation between the two wings can be effected.

In the meantime the Democrats of the State, combining with another party known as the "Equal Rights" party, formed for the purpose of securing such changes in the Constitution of the State as will place all American citizens on the same footing, without discrimination, and abolish the corruption arising from the manipulation of the registry taxpayers, as above described, has consolidated itself for a grand effort to secure control of the State. Not since 1842 has the party in opposition to Republican rule been so well organized. Its preliminary efforts for the coming spring canvass, in the way of registering its voters and in assisting in the paying up of their registry taxes, have been greater even than in any Presidential year. Complete harmony exists between all sections of the party and also between it and the Equal Rights party.

The Republican leaders, on the other hand, are introducing resolutions in the General Assembly looking to the adoption of amendments to the Constitution having for their object the remedy of the evils complained of; but such amendments under the present Constitution cannot be adopted in a shorter period of time than two years, and will require a majority vote of three-fifths in their favor. The Republican doctrine in the State is, that the Constitution cannot be altered in any way except by the process of amendment. On the other hand, the Democratic and Equal-Rights doctrine is, that remedies can be applied by the calling of a Constitutional Convention, which affords a speedier and shorter method than that which is suggested by Republican leaders, since a constitution framed by a constitutional convention will require the vote of only a majority of the electors of the State, and can be acted upon by a vote of the people in a less period of time than, by the terms of the present Constitution, any amendment can be. The issue, then, in the coming spring campaign is a plain one: Shall the General Assembly call a Constitutional Convention? All Democrats and all Equal Rights men are agreed upon the changes required in the present Constitution. Many Republicans assent to those changes. The question is, then, one simply of method as between these persons. Shall it be done by means of a convention, or shall it be done by amending the Constitution? The large body of the Republican party denies the necessity of any change.

There is no disputing that the spring canvass, which terminates on April 6, on which date a complete State ticket, all the members of both branches of the General Assembly and the Congressman in the Western District, will be elected, will be the most important in the history of the State since 1842. It ought to command national attention, for the questions presented by it are of national interest, far exceeding in importance the size of the State and the influence which it possesses in the body politic. Large numbers of conservative citi-

zens, hitherto opposed to the abolition of the discriminating clause in the Constitution of Rhode Island, will be found either heartily in favor of the changes proposed or else passively submitting to those changes, having discovered that the net result of the existence of these discriminations in the Constitution has not been in favor of political virtue, or the absence of the corruption which exists in many quarters in which no suffrage discrimination is made. For, after all, the best methods of government can be best proved by results. If discriminating suffrage qualifications are productive of corruption equally with a suffrage which does not discriminate, then wherein lies the advantage of the discrimination? It is quite safe to assume that a large mass of voters cannot so readily be purchased as a small one. It is not believed that the canvass will proceed on exactly the same party lines as those upon which the Presidential contest of 1884 did. Some Independents who supported Cleveland will be opposed to the Democratic party, though not many. On the other hand, it is quite certain that all the Democrats who supported Mr. Blaine will be found again in the ranks of their old party, and added to them will be a large section of the Republican party which supported Blaine, and which now realizes that fundamental changes are necessary in order to bring the State to a condition of political honesty. The Democratic party is fully determined to have no one on its ticket in any town or city, or on the State ticket, who is not of reputable character. It will seek to find out its best men as candidates for all offices, and personal interests will in the main yield to the success of the principles which are at stake.

LINEN PAPER VS. COTTON PAPER.

By dint of frequent repetition, the statement that two kinds of paper, distinguished as cotton paper and linen, or, as it is often called, rag paper, were in common use in Europe from a very early period, has gradually come to be generally accepted as true by palæographers and antiquarians. Upon equally good authority it is commonly believed that, while cotton paper was introduced into Europe by the Arabs in the seventh or eighth century, linen (or rag) paper was a European invention of much later date. But the time and place of the invention of linen paper, notwithstanding the long and learned controversies of the last century, have remained shrouded in mystery; nor does there seem to be any immediate prospect of arriving at a definite conclusion concerning these points. In the light of recent discoveries, however, the main question at issue, the comparative antiquity of cotton and linen paper, is in a fair way soon to be solved, if indeed we have not already before us evidence amply sufficient to enable us to reach a final decision, and a decision in direct opposition to the current belief.

The question is one of long standing, and by Mabillon, the founder of the science of palæography, Montfaucon, Tiraboschi, and other scholars, it was earnestly discussed; but inasmuch as no definite rules could be laid down for distinguishing with certainty cotton from linen paper, the discussion, which was characterized by much vehemence of language and a lavish display of learning, seemed likely to be prolonged indefinitely, with little probability of arriving at any satisfactory conclusion. At last, in 1762, prizes were offered by the Royal Society of Göttingen, and by Gerard Meerman of Rotterdam, for the oldest genuine specimens of linen paper, in hope of thus bringing to light some positive evidence as to the date of its invention or introduction. Many specimens of ancient paper manuscripts from Germany, Italy, Spain, etc., were submitted to the committee intrusted with the award. After a long and careful examination of these manuscripts the committee reported, as the result of their investigations, that no evidence had been produced of the use of linen paper before the end of the thirteenth or the beginning of the fourteenth century, while cotton paper appeared to have been used in Europe as early as the beginning of the seventh century, thus deciding the question in favor of cotton paper. Linen paper they held to be a later European invention, but were unable to decide, from the evidence before them, whether it was first manufactured in Italy or in Germany.

It must be borne in mind, however, that the tests upon which the committee relied to distinguish the two varieties of paper were extremely vague and indefinite, being based almost solely upon the external characteristics of the paper, such as softness of surface, flexibility, thickness, color, etc. Indeed, Meerman, who was himself one of the judges, frankly admits that, unless some chemical test can be found by which to determine with certainty the actual constituents of the paper, he has no hope that the time and place of the invention of linen paper will ever be discovered. Bodmann, a later investigator, who made a careful study of the question, also declared that the characteristic differences between cotton and linen papers could not be detected by the unaided senses of sight and touch, and insisted that recourse must be had to the action of fire and water in order to determine the character of the paper with any degree of certainty. Tests of this nature, however, not only proved to be inadequate to the purpose, but were evidently out of the question in the case of valuable and important manuscripts of great antiquity, these being the very ones the character of which it was most desirable to determine. Still, these later investigations, as far as they went, appeared to confirm the conclusions of Meerman and his associates, and, in the absence of any more satisfactory tests which could be applied, these conclusions came to be generally accepted, and since the beginning of this century the question seems to have been looked upon as practically, if not absolutely, settled in favor of the greater antiquity of cotton paper. De Vinne, indeed, in his 'Invention of Printing,' is inclined to doubt the ability of any antiquary to distinguish between cotton and linen paper, and maintains that the peculiarities of the so-called linen and cotton papers are due more to their distinct methods of manufacture than to the material used. In his opinion, the cotton paper of the antiquarians is merely paper the pulp for which was prepared by grinding the raw material, while the linen paper is paper made from pulp which had been beaten by pestles and stamps, and in which the fibres were rather bruised than cut, as they would be if the pulp were ground.

Meanwhile, it had been found that under the microscope the fibres of linen, or flax, are seen to consist of straight, elongated, cylindrical filaments, or tubes, with comparatively thick walls; these filaments are stiff, tough, and elastic, and do not bind or twist together. The fibres of cotton, on the other hand, show themselves in the form of narrow, flat, transparent tubes with thickened edges, twisted several times upon themselves somewhat like a corkscrew, and readily interlacing one with another. Here, then, was the desired test for determining with absolute certainty the composition of any given specimen of paper, but, as Wattenbach remarked in 1871, the question seemed to have entirely lost its interest, and no attempt was made to reopen it until, in 1884, M. Briquet, a Swiss scholar, published an interesting account of some investigations he had been carrying on. He tells us that, in the course of some researches, undertaken for another purpose, among the Swiss archives, he was surprised to find that the oldest documents there preserved, when examined under the microscope, all proved to be on linen paper. He was thus led to doubt the accepted statements concerning the greater antiquity of cotton paper; and, in order to satisfy his doubts, he succeeded in obtaining, not without difficulty, from various Italian, French, and German archives, fragments of ancient paper manuscripts, ranging in date from the eleventh to the thirteenth century. These fragments, which, it must be remembered, were all considered by palæographical authorities as undoubted specimens of cotton paper, were then subjected to microscopical analysis, and it was found that not one of these so-called cotton papers contained cotton fibres. They all proved to be rag-papers consisting of linen or hemp fibres. Having thus found that the oldest specimens of so-called cotton papers which he had been able to procure are in reality linen papers, M. Briquet is of the opinion that there never was such a thing as cotton paper, and holds that the term cotton paper, when used by early writers, is not to be taken in its literal sense as indicating the composition of the paper, but as referring simply to one of its external qualities, its soft or cotton-like surface.

Without accepting all the conclusions reached by M. Briquet, it cannot be denied that he has proved beyond a doubt that linen paper has a much greater antiquity than any one had hitherto ventured to assign to it. And within the last few months additional evidence has been brought to light which not only confirms the statements of M. Briquet, but establishes the use of linen paper long before the eleventh century, the earliest date for which the Swiss scholar could obtain positive evidence of its use. The remarkable find of ancient manuscripts made a few years ago in Fayum is still fresh in the minds of scholars. The greater number of manuscripts then discovered, ranging in date from the first to the tenth century of our era, have since found their way to Vienna, and form what is known as the Archduke Rainer Collection. Though the papyrus manuscripts, which number upwards of 70,000, constitute the bulk of the collection, there are also many specimens of manuscripts on leather, parchment, and paper; of those on paper, 159 more or less complete manuscripts have been discovered. The latest of these dates from the year 953 A. D., while many are of the eighth century, and some, it is thought, will prove to be of still earlier date. The task of determining the composition of these papers by means of microscopical analysis was intrusted to Prof. Julius Wiesner of the Vienna University, who has lately published the results of his examination, and the most important of these may be briefly stated. He finds, contrary to the opinion of palæographers, who were inclined to consider these manuscripts as being on cotton paper, that all the Fayum papers are rag papers, and are composed chiefly of linen rags. Scattered throughout the mass of worn linen fibres, occasional traces of worn cotton fibres are found, indicating that the rags had been carelessly sorted, or perhaps not sorted at all, though it is evident that the raw material must have consisted almost entirely of linen rags; and so far from being an invention of the fourteenth century, it is now conclusively proved that rag or linen paper was known and in common use at least as early as the eighth century, and that in

all probability it is not a European, but an Arabian invention.

The examination of these Fayum papers by Prof. Wiesner has also brought to light some interesting facts concerning the material used for sizing. It is frequently stated that the use of starch as a size for paper is a modern European practice, introduced after paper began to be made by machinery, and that the early papermakers used only a size made from glue or gelatine. But it is now found that, in these Fayum papers of the eighth century, starch was the material used for sizing, though whether it was wheat starch or barley starch has not been positively determined, but the probability is in favor of wheat starch.

IBSEN'S "SPECTRES."

BERLIN, January 22, 1887.

SOME six weeks ago the curiosity of the Berlin public was aroused by the announcement of a performance of Henrik Ibsen's domestic drama, "Spectres." This work of the Norwegian poet has made a deep impression in his native land, and attracted widespread attention in Germany. It has been on the répertoire of the Meiningen company for some time past. Towards the close of 1886 the singular statement appeared that the director of the Residenz Theatre of Berlin had obtained permission from the department of police to put the drama on the stage, on condition that it be given once only and for charitable purposes. This had the charm of the extraordinary about it, and those not acquainted with the piece hastened to inform themselves. It is not yet quite clear why these police precautions and conditions were found necessary, for the character of the play is by no means so alarmingly shocking or so dangerous to public morality as the zealots of the daily press have heated themselves to believing. At all events, the peculiarity of the circumstances helped to make this performance the dramatic event of the season. Cheap copies of the text were displayed in all the book-shops. Bill-posters kept the matter before the public, and the amusement columns bristled with "Spectres in preparation." Berlin was haunted.

An amateur rendering of the play took place on the 21 of January, and caused some comment, but the much anticipated professional performance came off at noon on the second Sunday of this year. It was held with "closed doors," the papers announced mysteriously—a thing usual enough at this season, to prevent draughts. The theatre was crowded. Comparatively few tickets reached the general public, the greater part having been disposed of before the opening of the box-office. The director informed me that some two hundred representatives of the German press were present. The audience was one of critical intelligence, and the presence of Henrik Ibsen himself gave the event still greater interest. His appearance on the stage at the close of the first act was the signal for most enthusiastic applause. After the second act this applause, though still hearty, seemed uneasy; the audience was nervous, and when the curtain fell on the last act, the tokens of approval were comparatively faint. But this very fact was partially a tribute to the dramatist's art. So completely does the deep gloom of the closing scene take possession of mind and mood, that clapping seems almost as much out of place as applause at a funeral, and the hands remain involuntarily at one's side. An outline of the play will make this effect intelligible.

The spectres with which Ibsen deals are not the goblins of Romanticism that flit by night and haunt the churchyard; they are far less innocent. They are, first of all, the spectres by which all society is haunted: the host of traditions, conventionalities, and prejudices, which, in the form of laws, systems of morality, venerable customs, religious and social observances, put restrictions upon each individual in the name of all. Or they are the revenge that society takes upon those who overstep the traditional bounds of what passes for morality. Or they are the sufferings of those who submit to the conventional requirements and struggle in a false cause. They are, last of all, and these the most ghastly of the spectres—they are the sins of the fathers that are visited upon the children. Such spectres haunt the luxurious home of the Alvings. More than twenty years before the opening of the play, Helena, the heroine, was married to the dashing young Lieutenant Alving. Her heart would have had it otherwise, but this was a brilliant match. Her mother was prudent, as the world goes, and had found a man to her turn. This was the first misleading spectre, and Helena's love for Pastor Manders was sacrificed to wealth and position. She was not long in discovering to what manner of man she was wed—a libertine of the lowest order, one that spared not the sanctity of his own home. Mrs. Alving had the choice between two spectres: obedience to the injunctions of established law and religion and a life with a libertine, or flight in defiance of what society enjoined and the pursuit of happiness elsewhere. There would be much to suffer in either case, but she chose the latter course and fled. Society proved too strong. It was to one she loved that she fled, but Pastor Manders was clergyman first and lover only in second degree. He was the representative of all that bore the name of law and order, social, moral, or religious. His brain was haunted by whole troops of these spectres, and, with a self-command of which he was not a little proud, he sermonized in the well-known terms: a wife's place is by her husband's side in prosperity as in adversity, to love, to honor, to obey, and the like. He prevailed. Mrs. Alving returned to her husband, who never learned of this flight.

The spectres of the stronger sort had triumphed, and, as is the case with every finer nature, Mrs. Alving caught the spirit of that noble enthusiasm with which one sacrifices self upon the altar of a high duty, even though the duty be a false one and misunderstood. With the resolution of a strong character, she assumed control of affairs. Her pride assisted her. She resolved that the world should never know that the wealth and luxury of the Alvings' home were the whitening of a sepulchre. She proceeded to build up a structure of deceit wherein her husband's excesses and her own misery were to be concealed. An accident gave her the upper hand over her husband. She discovered an affair of his—with her own waiting-maid. This discovery put the sceptre in Mrs. Alving's hand. She found a husband for her maid, and thus saved the girl's reputation. The daughter that was born passed for the child of the poor cabinet-maker, Engstrand. Some years later Mrs. Alving took this child, her husband's daughter, into her own home and cared for her. Lieutenant Alving, in the meantime, was raised to the position of Chamberlain (*Kammerherr*), but his excesses told upon his health. Mrs. Alving assisted him in his duties; did what his debauchery often rendered him unfit for; made herself the companion of his drinking bouts, that she might keep him at home; cared for him; shielded him. Zealously she watched the family honor and concealed her sufferings. A new incentive was given her, and a new hope. She became the mother of a son, but, with heroic self-sacrifice, sent him away from her when he was still but a child, that he might never suspect the truth about his father. Her letters nourished in him a filial reverence, as for an ideal. So much could love and resolution do. Alving remained unaltered to the end; his excesses caused his death.

After twenty years of married life according to society's prescription, Mrs. Alving is set free. She seems to have accomplished her purpose. The name of Alving is honored in the land, and she resolves to put the final stone to this structure of pious deceit by erecting an asylum to her husband's memory. A second motive moved her to this step. She devotes to this undertaking the whole of the original fortune with which Lieut. Alving had wooed and won her. Nothing but the after accumulations, which were due to her energy alone, shall reach her son. Pastor Manders has been intrusted with the management of the affair, and the asylum, now finished, is to be dedicated on the morrow. This is the situation at the opening of the play. Oswald Alving has returned from his Paris studio. Regine, in the bloom of young womanhood, holds the position her mother once had held. Her supposed father, a rascal of rare hypocrisy, is about to start a "sailors' home," the nature of which is sufficiently indicated by his anxiety to secure the services of a pretty girl like Regine for his enterprise. Regine has quite other hopes and aspirations. Pastor Manders comes to make the final arrangements concerning the asylum. It is his first visit since Alving's death, for this spectre-haunted clergyman has a wholesome regard for what people might say. Mrs. Alving's greeting is cordial and frank. Admirable is the art and tact with which the author now proceeds to develop before us the long story that has gone before. Amid Manders's interjections and occasional homilies, Mrs. Alving relates to him the whole story of her married life. The good man's wonderment has no end; he is especially amazed at the startling conclusions to which her experiences have led her. Their views have drifted wide apart during these years of trial. These scenes of narrative and explanation are all managed with the highest refinement of the dramatist's art. The characters are drawn in clear, unmistakable lines, with that inward contrast which the different life-experiences have made. The heroic liberal cast of Mrs. Alving—with that high calmness without coldness, that resignation without bitterness, with resolute will, and the indescribable patient tenderness of a mother's love—is one of the finest creations the domestic drama has ever produced. And then the good, spectre-haunted pastor, child-like and sincere, but credulous, strict, shrinking from all things new upon which old custom has not set its sacred seal, ever eager to admonish the erring and interpret the will of God—this, too, is masterly character drawing.

From the entrance of young Oswald, a premonitory gloom pervades the play. He is inert; one sees that he is sparing himself. He throws a shadow of dead hopes, that gradually darkens into final night. He has lived among young artists in Paris, and knows the beauty of that free life there, where those who love may love and ask no priest's consent. That brightness and happiness he must exchange for a sunless life in Norwegian mists. The good pastor is beside himself with amazement and indignation, and does vigorous battle for his spectres; he sermonizes *ex officio et ex ignorantia*. But Oswald cannot bear the excitement of animated conversation, and goes into the adjoining room, where Regine is preparing the evening meal. Mrs. Alving listens patiently to the pastor's homilies; she professes complete agreement with the views of her son; she will devote her life to his happiness, and forget all else. The "long comedy" is now at an end. A chair is thrown over in the next room, and in a sharp whisper is heard, "Oswald, are you mad?" Spectres! It is that couple from the years gone by that haunt the house still and

whisper there—children of one father! Manders sees all now. It is a masterpiece of explanation, and thus ends the first act.

The development is now more rapid. It is Mrs. Alving's turn to hear revelations as well as to make them, and this scene is one of torturing intensity. Hesitatingly, despairingly, Oswald discloses to his mother his terrible condition. His mental powers are broken, annihilated, he says; he shall never be able to work again nor take brush in hand; he dare not even think of his art. His physician has told him all; "the old cynic" said that the sins of the fathers would be visited upon the children. He feels this to be a slander on his father's memory, and yet the thought that he is himself to blame is torture. He turns to his mother with the sudden question, "What do you think of Regine? She is my only salvation." It is a trying moment for the mother. She seems to be compelled to a choice between destroying her son's ideal of his father and concealing the parentage of Regine. She feels that the time has come to put her principles resolutely into practice. Regine is summoned; she is expectant, half-triumphant, half-defiant; Oswald feels that a secret is being kept from him; Pastor Manders is petrified—he has a presentiment of the mother's purpose. Suddenly shouts are heard, and a red shimmer lights up the sky. The asylum is in flames. Manders was unwilling to have it insured, because insurance implied a lack of trust in God's gracious Providence. Here, too, a spectre had been at work. The conflagration closes the second act.

All is now ready for the catastrophe; the forces are all in motion. The last act is extremely painful. Oswald's exertions were more than his weak condition could endure. The mutual confessions are made complete. He has softening of the brain; the loss of his reason is imminent; it is the heritage of his father's excesses. This, too, his mother must confirm, and the ideal, which had cost twenty years of self-sacrifice and loving care to nourish, was destroyed with a word. In the presence of both, Mrs. Alving reveals the relationship between Regine and Oswald. The despicable character of the former now shows itself—this, too, perhaps inherited. She sees her hopes are vain, and she departs in wrath, with the expressed intention of taking after her mother. With her, Oswald sees his last hope depart. He had lost his reason once for a brief period, and, once more lost, it would be gone for ever. He carries poison with him; he may not need it for years yet, and life has not lost every charm, but when the moment comes it will come suddenly. Some one must be by to perform the labor of love and cut short the life of hopelessness and helplessness. In this sense Regine would have been his salvation. She would have done this for him from selfish motives, had she become his wife. All this he tells his mother, but it is more than a mother's love can promise. Gradually, in the course of this indescribably painful scene, one sees him sinking into that state of physical and mental helplessness which he describes. His muscles relax; his voice becomes toneless, at last inarticulate, and his face loses expression. His mother bends over him in the agony of despair; she feels convulsively for the phial, hesitates, struggles with herself, and stares at him in speechless suffering. The sun breaks from the clouds that have hitherto shrouded the Norwegian landscape, and "The sun, the sun!" are Oswald's last articulate words. The mother's struggle is left undecided, and the curtain falls upon one of the most harrowing scenes of the modern stage.

The acting of this drama left nothing to be desired. Every character came out with full effect, as Ibsen must have conceived it. Especially the heroic character of Mrs. Alving received all those touches of exalted strength and tenderness that make us understand how she could pass through what she has, and still be what she is. The light in which she is presented during the few hours of her final trials make all that she tells us of her past life credible and natural. It is a glorious creation, to which the critics of the press have done only half-justice.

Long articles appeared in all the papers, the opinions expressed varying all the way from violent condemnation to cautious praise. The most thoughtful and on the whole most favorable criticism appeared in the weekly *Nation*. Mr. Oscar Blumenthal pronounces the drama a very common hospital story, an anatomical study. "Écrasez l'infâme," cries the *Tägliche Rundschau*, and forbears to describe the play out of regard for the fine sensibilities of its female readers—mentioning, however, an easily obtainable edition of the work, so that these same readers may not be wholly disappointed. Others consider the drama an offence against public decency, and brush Ibsen aside as a mere Philistine. The motives in the work are declared to be pathological and not dramatic, and nearly all agree that the drama is not fit for the general stage or for the average audience. The majority of readers will probably acknowledge its unsuitableness for the daily répertoire, but the depth of thought and the consummate skill in the treatment raise the "Spectres" above all violent or contemptuous criticism. It must be admitted that the presentation of the diseased Oswald on the stage, with all that is thereby suggested, makes a disagreeable and almost repulsive impression, and this quite apart from the uproar of objections that is raised by the upholders of sacred institutions. Inherited softening of the brain terminating in puling helplessness may be real enough, but it is not edifying, nor does it seem to be a proper subject for artistic treatment. A timely warning, however, comes from the *Nation* of Berlin against this hasty dogmatizing—art must this, and art must that—and calls attention to the press criticisms of a century ago, when objections were made to the early plays of Schiller very like those now being raised against the work of Ibsen. It will be long before the last word has been spoken, for we have to do with an important creation and a man of genius, and both can afford to wait for the time of clearer and calmer judgment. The wish has been expressed that a book be written concerning the philosophy of the "Spectres"; the material is certainly there, and the dialogue is full of suggestion for interesting speculation, ethical and sociological.

C. H. G.

Correspondence.

THE NEXT THING IN PENSIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A circular from a Washington attorney has come into my hands with the somewhat startling caption: "Mexican soldiers and their widows, over sixty-two years of age, are now entitled to U. S. pensions." Is this prophetic? Why not? The supply of domestic material for the pension roll is fast diminishing, and if we must go abroad to get rid of "the surplus," there are many reasons for beginning with Mexico, unless we can trade off pensions for mackerel privileges with the Kanuckers. * * *

Baltimore, February 4, 1887.

HOW TO COLLECT A LIBRARY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The discovery of a method of collecting a library at absolutely no cost, with the additional advantage of tickling the *amour propre* of the authors by the most delicate of all flatteries, has been reserved to an ingenious Russian. The first step is indicated by his procedure with me in the following letter:

"Chemins de fer
Du Süd-ouest
de la Russie.
—
Direction Centrale.
—
"Kiew, November 20, 1886.

"Dear Sir: May I venture to ask as a great favor that you will be good enough as to send me a copy of your abridged edition of Mill's Principles of Political Economy for translating it into Russian.

"I am forced to solicit this favor by impossibility to obtain this book in this country.

"I am, dear sir,

"Yours most respectfully,

"Roman Plastounoff."

It seemed a little strange that a book supplied with illustrations and facts adapted to American classes should be chosen for translation into Russian. The usual inquiry was made of my publishers, with the result that a copy of the book was forwarded to the would-be translator. This then enabled him to display the second step in the process. Having made sure of the volume, the method adopted to escape from his situation may be recommended as a model of clever impudence. His reply to my note reads:

"Dear Sir: I have received your kind letter of 1th inst., which gave me a great pleasure, but I suppose there is some mistake, as I wrote you asking for a copy of your edition o Mill *without any intentions to translate this work in wholly into Russian*, but for some other purposes. Io will give me a pity if you have understood me wrongly. Were I free to consult my own wishes I would gladly *accept your suggestion* in this respect, but, unfortunately, I am unable to do this at present, although, by your kind permission, in some future it will be practicable for me.

"However it might be, the book (which I hope will reach me in safety), which is valuable in itself, shall be doubly esteemed by me as a *gift from you*.

"Believe me," etc

The beauty of the method is seen by the light in which the author appears, not only as making the suggestion to the translator (the italics are mine), but as urging it upon a hard worked and busy man. Such conduct, on the part of authors, is contemptible. The wickedness of such a course has so weighed on my mind that I am impelled to make a public confession as a warning to others. "It would give me a pity" to find that others were in the same box with me. In fact, the same method, as I found out accidentally, has been already tried on other writers.—Yours truly,

J. Laurence Laughlin.

Cambridge, Mass., January 31, 1887.

BRAZILIAN RIVER SOURCES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: On my return from a long journey into the interior of this country, my eye fell upon a notice in the *Nation* for July 22 of "An interesting account of the 'Physical Geography of Brazil,' given by Mr. James W. Wells, C.E., in the June number of the Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society." In speaking of Mr. Wells's account, you say: "In describing the river systems, he shows that northeastern Brazil is practically an island, the source of branches of the San Francisco and the Pará being in the same lake." You also say that, in the discharge of his professional duties as an engineer, Mr. Wells has travelled extensively in Brazil. It is hardly probable that as an engineer he was called upon to travel into the distant, wild region of country where lies the divide between the San Francisco and the Pará. Unless he did so, and verified his statement by actual observation, I must doubt it.

I do so not at all to discredit Mr. Wells, but to discredit the story which he heard, until it is verified. I am led to do this because I had heard the same story here in Brazil about Lagoa Feia (Ugly Lake), situated near the town of Formesa, in the eastern part of the province of Goyaz. I think I once saw it laid down on a map as the source of two small streams, one running eastward into the San Francisco and the other northward into the Tocantins or Pará. In 1884 I had occasion to visit Formosa; I then saw the lake, and can testify that the story, so far as that lake is concerned, is a mistake. Formosa is 1,225 metres above the sea level. The water from the streets runs southeast into Lagoa Feia, which is about *eight miles distant*. A small stream (Rio Preto) runs from the lake on the south, and finally empties into the San Francisco, which empties into the Atlantic south of Cape St. Roque. A small creek, formed by the waters from the town and country eastward, runs into the lake on the north. About a mile north of the town the rains begin to be drained northward into the Tocantins, which empties into the Pará, or southern mouth of the Amazon, and it is of course several miles north of the town that any creek can be formed. About a mile west of Formosa the waters are drained southward into the La Plata. Formosa is, therefore, an interesting place, because it is situated at the only spot where the three great valleys of the Amazon on the north, the La Plata on the south, and the San Francisco on the east come together. Lagoa Feia does not, however, give rise to branches of the three great rivers (which is the exaggerated form of the story as I had heard it), nor even to two, as Mr. Wells heard; it lies entirely within the San Francisco valley. It is about one mile wide by two in length. There may be another lake northeast of Formosa, along the divide between the San Francisco and the Tocantins, which gives rise to branches of those two rivers. I made inquiries about that region while in Formosa, but heard nothing of such a lake.*

You make another statement, on the authority of Mr. Wells, which I am sure needs to be greatly modified. You say: "One can also go in a canoe from the Orinoco to the Plate with one carry of only a few hundred yards." One can go up the Orinoco to its source, and thence across to the Rio Negro through the Cassiquiare, and down to the Amazon. He can there ascend to the sources of the Plate by the Madeira, the Tapajos, or the Tocantins. But his carry across the country from the sources of these streams to the sources of the Plate (*i. e.*, between streams large enough to navigate loaded canoes), would be very much more than "a few hundred yards." Maury extends the distance to "a few miles" ('Physical Geography,' p. 198). This is true, if by "a few" we may mean about fifty.

There is no man living more competent to speak on this point than Gen. Couto Magalhães. One of the most learned and intelligent men in this country, he has been made President several times of the provinces of Goyaz, Pará, and Matto Grosso. He has frequently ascended the Plate and descended the Madeira, Tapajos, and Tocantins. Not only so: he has repeatedly travelled along the divide which separates the sources of those streams. Being thoroughly acquainted with the Indian language, of a fearless and untiring nature, he has spared himself no fatigue or pains in exploring the river systems along the great divide between the Amazon and the Plate. The towns of Goyaz and Cuybá, capitals of the provinces of Goyaz and Matto Grosso, are both situated on that divide. In the discharge of his duties as President of those provinces, as well as General in the Paraguayan war, he frequently travelled between the two places. In his book, 'O Selvagem' (p. 149), he says that his travels through the interior amount to 4,500 leagues, or 18,000 miles (a Brazilian league is 6,600 metres). He then adds:

"In these journeys I have acquired geographical and topographical knowledge which is not entirely without interest, especially in regard to the divide, whose road [*i. e.*, the road from Goyaz to Cuyabá], being of recent date, has not yet been travelled by any geographer capable of giving a description of that immense territory which separates the two greatest river systems in the world, along latitude 15° and 16° south."

Then follows a description of four routes by which one can go from Montevideo up the Plate, across the divide, and down to the Amazon by any one of its southern tributaries. If he wishes to go down the western confluent (the Madeira), his carry across the divide would be *twenty leagues* (eighty miles). If he should wish to descend the Tapajos, his carry would be *thirty-eight leagues* (152 miles). He could, however, by a carry of *twenty leagues* (eighty miles) cross over from Cuyabá to the Rio Manso, which runs in an easterly direction and empties into the Araguaya (the western branch of the Tocantins) at the great island of Bananal. No one in modern times has travelled on the Rio Manso, but its sources have been discovered near Cuyabá by Gen. Magalhães, and, under his direction, laid down on the official maps of the empire. Its mouth is also known; but it still remains to explore the river, 900 miles in length. In regard to the fourth route, Gen. Magalhães says that while President of Pará he heard from old river men the tradition that in colonial times the Jesuits used to ascend the Tocantins and cross over to the Plate with a portage of only fifteen leagues, and adds:

"I made repeated journeys along the divide, and never could comprehend what streams those energetic fathers followed in order to pass from the Tocantins into the Plate with a carry of only fifteen leagues [sixty miles]. That the waters of the two basins interlace and sometimes confound themselves was well known. [Here he means, of course, the slopes, or rather the flat prairies with their numerous sloughs.] That navigation [by canoes, of course, for the Jesuits went in canoes] in the two systems should approach so near, however, is what I could not understand."

He supposed, therefore, that the tradition was incorrect until June 5, 1871. Being on a journey with others from Goyaz to Cuyabá, their dogs raised a panther, and all followed it until late in the evening, when it was killed. They were then suffering from thirst, and followed down the dry bed of a rivulet, when suddenly and most unexpectedly they came upon a beautiful large stream. Two days afterwards he met a fearless backwoodsman who had explored a part of those solitudes. Then it was, he says, that his eyes were opened, and he understood the route of the Jesuits as clearly as if he himself had been along with those audacious explorers. They would ascend the La Plate to the Paraguay; the Paraguay to the S. Lourenço; the S. L. to the Itiquira; and that small confluent to its source; then cross the divide by a march of *fifteen leagues*, gain the Garças (the stream so unexpectedly found by him), and descend it to the Tocantins and Pará. The shortest carry, therefore, between the Plate and the Amazon confluents would be *sixty miles*, instead of a few hundred yards. Future explorations will no doubt lessen the distance; but in view of Gen. Magalhães's statements it would seem highly improbable, if not impossible, that the carry should be reduced to anything approaching "a few hundred yards."

Yours truly, JOHN BOYLE.

MOGY-MIRIN, PROVINCIA DE S. PAULO,
December, 1886.

* I hope at some future time to travel through that region, and should I see or learn from some reliable source of such a lake, I will communicate the fact to you.

Notes.

SCRIBNER & WELFORD will issue, in connection with the London publishers, a new and cheap edition of Mme. Campan's 'Memoirs of Marie Antoinette.' It will contain more steel portraits than the English edition.

Lee & Shepard, Boston, have nearly ready for publication Prof. A. P. Peabody's 'Moral Philosophy,' being the lectures delivered to his students in Harvard College, and adapted for textbook purposes. There are twelve essays in the series. This same firm announce a new edition of Archbishop Whately's 'English Synonyms,' under the title, 'English Synonyms Discriminated'; a volume, by Thomas Wentworth Higginson, consisting of an article published some years ago in the *Atlantic Monthly*, giving practical advice to contributors to the press, and his recent brief essay, "Hints on Speech-Making," which appeared in *Harper's Magazine;* and 'Danton in the French Revolution,' by Laurence Gronlund, author of 'The Coöperative Commonwealth: an Exposition of Modern Socialism.'

Belford, Clarke & Co., Chicago and New York, will publish by subscription the authorized 'Life of Gen. John A. Logan,' by George Francis Dawson, ex-Librarian of the Senate. The work will be fully illustrated.

'Principles of Art,' by J. C. Van Dyke, at one time editor of the *Studio*, will shortly be issued by Fords, Howard & Hulbert, New York. The work is divided into two parts—the first treating of "Art in History," its causes, nature, development, and different stages of progression; the second treating of (modern) "Art in Theory," its aims, motives, and manner of expression.

The officers of the Minnesota Historical Society give notice that they will soon have ready a report proving the falsity of the claims of Capt. Glazier as discoverer of the headwaters of the Mississippi. This has already been done so effectually that the game hardly seems worth the candle, but it would appear that Capt. Glazier and his friends are active enough to be annoying.

'Alice's Adventures Under Ground: being a facsimile of the original MS. book afterwards developed into "Alice's Adventures in Wonderland," by Lewis Carroll, with thirty-seven illustrations by the author' (Macmillan), is a little volume which needs no recommendation as a curiosity. So far as the text goes, it shows that Mr. Dodgson's second thought was generally sound, so that he improved upon this rough sketch, just as Tenniel improved upon the crude designs from Mr. Dodgson's own pencil, here printed in their proper places. The pious reflections which precede and follow the manuscript facsimile are singular accompaniments of it, being in the nature of a clerical apology for childish mirthfulness as not displeasing to Deity. They throw some light upon the character and limitations of Mr. Dodgson's humor, which has fallen flat except in the two Alice books. The profits of this memorial volume, so to call it, are to go to children's hospitals and convalescent homes.

Bohn's Standard Library (Scribner & Welford) has been enlarged by three volumes of translations from the German—Ranke's 'History of the Latin and Teutonic Nations from 1494 to 1514,' by Philip Ashworth, who has used the third (1885) edition of a work first published in 1824, and who yet had his task committed to him by the veteran author shortly before his death; Hoffman's 'Serapion Brethren,' vol. i, by Maj. Alex. Ewing, who makes the first attempt to present in their proper connection tales which have heretofore been given detached in their English dress; and finally, Heine's 'Travel-Pictures, including

the Tour in the Harz, Norderney, and Book of Ideas, together with the Romantic School,' specimen selections by Francis Storr, who, by translating 'The Romantic School,' makes accessible to English readers the whole of the 'Ueber Deutschland,' of which it forms the second part. To Bohn's Scientific Library is now added a 'Handbook of Historical Geology,' by A. J. Jukes-Browne, of which the first part discusses the laws and application of palæontology, and the second gives an historical account of the rock-groups of the earth's crust beneath the British Islands. The book is freely illustrated.

One of the results of the recent Colonial and Indian Exhibition was the publication of an official handbook entitled 'Her Majesty's Colonies,' edited by A. J. R. Trendell (London: W. Clowes). The introduction, by Prof. J. R. Seeley, treats of the origin and history of the colonies and their relations to the mother country, and is followed by an interesting series of diagrams giving statistics of population and trade. The accounts of the various colonies (in which, it should be noted, India and Burmah are not included) consist of brief historical sketches, with descriptions of soil, climate, productions, resources, government, etc. The most carefully prepared of the longer articles, and, we should judge, the most accurate, is upon Canada. From the very full statistics given it is interesting to note that, while the total foreign trade of the Dominion has increased since 1868 nearly £70,000,000, the trade with England, both the exports and the imports, has decreased during that period. In this respect it differs from the Australian colonies, whose trade with Great Britain was nearly £13,000,000 greater in 1884 than in 1874. The chapters upon this group of colonies are not so well done as the others, and are criticised as tending to give too favorable an impression of the climate and the productiveness of the soil. Many of the accounts of the smaller colonies are signed by their authors, in some cases officials, and give in general a very clear idea of their present condition. The maps are hardly as good as might have been expected in a Government publication, but the absence of an index in a book intended to assist emigration is inexcusable.

'Seven Years among the Fjort,' by R. E. Dennet (London: S. Low), while devoid of literary merit, gives an apparently truthful picture of the life of a trader among the natives of the Congo Basin. His is by no means an easy lot, but is full of anxieties and dangers, to say nothing of privations, arising on the one hand from the character of the people with whom he has to deal, and on the other from the continual interference of European officials, all of whom, whether French, Portuguese, or English, seem to be regarded by the trader as a nuisance. In imitation of Mr. Thomson's sketch of the Masai, Mr. Dennet produces the autobiography of a negro prince who becomes the headman of a factory, describing many native customs and beliefs that might easily escape the notice of an ordinary traveller. Of the coast missionaries and the results of their labors he naturally writes very unfavorably, considering the opinion which they freely express of the trader and his work. Slavery he believes to be on the increase throughout Central Africa, except on the Western Coast. There is also an interesting chapter on the liquor traffic, the chief responsibility for which is laid upon the Hamburg and Bremen merchants, who send nearly seven-eighths of the whole amount of liquor imported into Africa. Speaking for his class in general, the author says: "I am sure most of the traders on the coast would be overjoyed to see this traffic annihilated in Africa." The appearance of the famous French explorer De Brazza, on his return from one of his journeys, is described as follows: "A wretched helmet, a ragged shirt, compasses, chronometers, pedometers, and what not, slung from his neck, shoulders, and waist, and a dirty piece of flannel girded about his loins, completed his toilet." The illustrations of the coast scenery are fairly good, but those of the native life and customs from the author's own sketches had better have been omitted.

Mr E. G. Ravenstein, the cartographer, in connection with the preparation of his great map of Equatorial Africa, the eastern section of which has already been, and the western is about to be, published, has nearly completed a bibliographical handbook of this part of Africa, including Abyssinia, the Nile valley to Khartum, and the adjacent provinces of the Sudan. The introduction will be a history of African exploration, illustrated with maps and diagrams. The bibliography will contain references to all papers contributed to periodicals and scientific societies, as well as books and maps. In addition to these will be given biographical sketches of all persons prominently connected with this part of Africa, both native and foreign, with an account of their work and an estimate of its value. Some idea of the extent and fulness of this part of Mr. Ravenstein's handbook may be formed from the fact that these sketches are already more than 3,300 in number. At the end will be a chronological list of travels, the authorities quoted, and a classified index of names and subjects.

We have received the volume of Proceedings of the American Association for the Advancement of Science at Buffalo in August, 1886, with its usual reports, abstracts, and titles of papers and addresses.

Science announces that it has in preparation a series of original maps of explorations and geographical investigations in various parts of the world, under the direction of Dr. Franz Boas, himself an explorer. The first map will accompany one of the March issues.

An unsigned first article on "John Cleves Symmes, the Theorist," is quite the most striking article in the *Southern Bivouac* for February. It is illustrated by a portrait of Symmes, and by a facsimile of the Supplement to the Cincinnati *Western Spy* of November 6, 1819, containing reprints of Symmes's articles on the hollow globe, "habitable within, and constituted of a number of concentric spheres, the poles of which are open twelve or sixteen degrees." His rude diagrams are likewise reproduced.

Exceptionally full of interest is the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* for January. It opens with a biographical sketch of the late ex-Gov. Hiland Hall of Vermont—a notable figure, in his day, in State and national politics—by his son. Readers will find in it some historical matters of importance. The paper is accompanied by a steel portrait. Two prominent and related families among the intellectual and moral élite of New England, the Wares and the Allens—descendants respectively of Robert Ware of Dedham, Mass., and of the Rev. John Allen, Dedham's first minister—are genealogically illustrated in this number of the *Register*. Mr. Waters's latest "Gleanings in England" introduce us to the Quineys of the John Harvard connection (Shakspere's daughter Judith married a Thomas Quiney of Stratford-on-Avon), to Higginson, Dummer, Kirkland, Davenport, Revere (Revoire), and other well-known families, their friends or relatives. Mr. J. T. Hassam adds fresh items to his former account of Ezekiel Cheever, the famous master of the Boston Latin School, and prints a long and characteristic letter of his written in 1651. A curious early flag of New England (1695–1701) is copied on page 93 from a Dutch sheet of flags of the world issued about that time.

With the February number, now before us, the Syracuse *Academy* enters on its second volume, and makes a permanent enlargement to forty-eight pages. Its prospects ought to be more than "fair," as it says they are, for this journal marks an era in our pedagogical literature. Those who read in the present number Prof. W. G. Hale's comment on Principal Peck's address on the teaching of Latin, will eagerly await the appearance of Prof. Hale's 'Art of Reading Latin,' now in the press of Ginn & Co.

Members of the Shelley Society will be interested to learn that Mr. F. S. Ellis announces in the *Athenæum* the discovery of the lost MS. of the 'Mask of Anarchy,' in the poet's own hand. Forman printed it from a copy of Mrs. Shelley's, and suggested that it was originally dictated to her. The original draft now found bears out Forman's emendations "pretty well," Mr. Ellis says, and he suggests the Society's reproducing the piece in facsimile. With it was a curious and characteristic letter of Mrs. Shelley to Sir John Bowring, February 25, 1826, in which the impression of her romantic life with Shelley is still felt in strong vibrations of feeling.

The Boston *Advertiser*, noticing the approaching abolition of "sale by candle" at the Bremen exchange, recalls the fact that this "method of auction was at one time common throughout England and Scotland," and "still survives in some places north of the Tweed." Pepys, we will add, has a reference to it in his diary for November 6, 1660: "To our office [the Admiralty], where we met all, for the sale of two ships by an inch of candle (the first time that ever I saw any of this kind,) where I observed how they do invite one another, and at last how they all do cry, and we have much to do to tell who did cry last." An American parallel is found in the old plantation license to the slaves to hold their midnight religious song-and-dance meetings, designated as "one-candle shouts," or two-candle, etc., according to the time allowed.

Goldsmith's life is condensed in a long paper in *Le Livre* for January, but we pass it by to remark on the item concerning the great newspaper collection of the Library of the Arsenal. By the law enforcing the legal deposit of journals in this library, it is in constant receipt of about seven hundred current publications. Meantime it is building up collections of the press of the past, especially of the Revolution and thence downwards. These are already vast and invaluable. Colonial journalism has only recently been cared for, but Algeria is now represented at the Arsenal by some hundred journals of all sorts, including several in the Arab tongue, three in Hebrew, and one in Spanish. This number of the *Revue* also contains the French text of the Berne convention for international copyright. On p. 33 we read that M. Gréard, the new Academician, has been "interviewé" by a reporter—the first time that we recollect seeing this participle.

Keble's 'Christian Year,' Dickens's 'Christmas Carol and The Chimes,' Waterton's 'Wanderings in South America' (with a good introductory sketch of this eccentric naturalist), and the 'Life of Lord Herbert of Cherbury,' are the latest issue in "Cassell's National Library."

'The City Government of Philadelphia,' by E. P. Allinson and B. Penrose, and 'The City Government of Boston,' by James M. Bugbee, form Parts i-ii and iii of the fifth series of the Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science. Though much the older settlement, Boston is by far the younger corporation, and these two pamphlets furnish in this and other respects a very instructive contrast. The editor of these Studies announces for publication in March an extra bound volume entitled 'Baltimore and the 19th of April, 1861; A Study of the War,' by George William Brown, Mayor of the city in 1861. Judge Brown's point of view may be inferred from the summary of the second

chapter: "The Compromises of the Constitution in regard to Slavery.—A divided House.—The broken Compact.—The right of Revolution."

The American Economic Association has just published 'Coöperation in New England,' by Edward W. Bemis, Ph.D., following Mr. Shaw's excellent monograph on 'Coöperation in a Western Town,' lately noticed in these columns.

A year ago a subscription was started to present Edward Caird of Glasgow with his portrait, in recognition of his distinguished services as philosopher and teacher. The pleasant project met with a hearty response. A great company of scholars from Scotland, England, and Germany contributed. Twenty subscriptions were sent from this country. George Reid, R.S.A., painted the portrait, which, at Prof. Caird's request, was presented on January 8 to the Senate of Glasgow University. Sir William Thomson presided at the ceremony. Prof. Henry Jones of University College, in speaking for the former pupils of Prof. Caird, called attention to the remarkable fact that "there is not a provincial college in England or in Wales where the teacher of philosophy is not heir to Prof. Caird's thought. In the College of Liverpool, at Manchester, at Cardiff, at Lampeter, at Aberystwith, at Bangor, at Kingston, in the United States and in Australia there are those who, according to their capacity, are witnesses to the truth which they learned from him."

'Short Stories from Modern French Authors' (London: Hachette; Boston: Schoenhof) is an excellent collection of thirty-four extracts from good modern writers, edited by the well-known annotator, M. Jules Bué. The passages selected are all made to serve as material for French conversation by well-directed questions upon the subject-matter, supplemented by grammatical questions which are in some cases very searching. These are not made by the editor, but, as the title-page tells us, by a group of "professors," some of whose names appear probably for the first time in a printed volume. The questions are in general so good that teachers who desire to make their pupils talk French in class will find the volume desirable to use, and very suggestive in the difficult art of asking pertinent questions that pupils can answer.

The third volume of the 'Histoire de la monarchie de Juillet,' by M. Thureau-Dangin (Paris: Plon; Boston: Schoenhof), embraces the period between 1836 and 1839. These comparatively uninteresting years of the reign of Louis-Philippe offer ample material for the author's severity of judgment and disdain. A fervent Catholic and a partisan of parliamentary monarchy, he brings his talents as a polemist to bear upon past events so as to make his work full of allusions to the present. Partisan though it be, M. Thureau-Dangin's history cannot be neglected by any one interested in either the political, literary, social, or religious movement that preceded the revolution of 1848. It is a book full of life, and reliable, if the author's lofty point of view is accepted.

M. Albert Vandal continues his researches on French influences in the Orient. We noticed, when it appeared, his interesting essay on 'Le Pacha Bonneval.' He has now just published a work of much greater scope and importance: 'Une Ambassade française en Orient sous Louis XV.—La Mission du Marquis de Villeneuve' (Paris: Plon; Boston: Schoenhof). This is preceded by a masterly preface, which broadly traces the general tendencies of French policy in the Orient in the eighteenth century, a policy of which Hammer, in his 'History of the Ottoman Empire,' could say that never before nor since "was it felt by results so brilliant." M. Vandal's new book throws a flood of light upon many obscure contemporary questions in regard to Russia and Turkey and the Eastern question generally.

'Les Amours d'un ténor' (Paris: Westhausser) presents itself with its title and its fanciful cover designed by Caran d'Ache as if it were a French novel of the most modern realistic school. Yet it is signed D. Mouravline (Prince Dimitri Gallitzin), and the title-page tells us it is translated from the Russian by Serge Nossoff. But "il y a fagot et fagot," and it will not take many such stories as 'Les Amours d'un ténor' to bring into discredit the phrase *traduit du russe*. The book is full of characters and scenes which have all the disagreeableness of realism without the merit of being true to nature.

The same publisher has recently issued other translations from Slavic writers of a very different order: Sacher-Masoch's 'Nouvelles slaves,' with a preface by Victor Cherbuliez; 'Sans Cœur,' by the celebrated Polish novelist Kraszewski; 'Berlin et Paris; voyage satirique à travers l'Europe,' by one of the most famous of living Russian authors, Saltykoff, or (to give him the name by which he signs all his literary work and by which alone he is known as a writer) Shtchedrin.

—The midwinter number of the *Century* is unusually rich in its text. Better travel-sketching than William C. Church's little paper on the Bahamas, illustrated after Winslow Homer's water-color studies in Nassau, it would be hard to find. One gets from it an all-round view of the islands, their history, the characteristics of the people, notable events, scenery—every phase, in fact, down to the geological claim which our nation might advance to their possession, as a part of the débris of the Mississippi, though this mode of acquiring territorial jurisdiction by a kind of natural earth-right may not be readily admitted by Britishers. The sketch of the oldest church in London, with Pennell's illustrations, is also a brief study, admirably condensed and arranged; and Prof. Lanciani's description of the fate of the Roman bronzes, and of the recovery of the two athletic figures in the Quirinal in 1885, is also a model bit of popular archæological writing. The instalment of Lincoln's Life covers his Congressional career and some years of law practice, and is of less interest because less personal than the previous chapters. One regrets, too, having to say that the analysis of the political situation shows strange defects of comprehension and curious errors of detail. Who would credit that Charles Sumner is called a Democrat? The political grasp is weak here; and in the field of history, it must be acknowledged, the biography does not sustain the hopes of excellence it excited. Mr. Atkinson's paper on the weakness of nations uses the phrases of political economy more freely than did the former one, but he succeeds in making his reasoning about the relations of wages, taxes, and profits tolerably clear to the common mind: or, at least, his conclusions are driven home. His view of the financial future abroad is a dark one, and there is something worth attention for the rigorous social moralist in the mood of mind with which he regards repudiation of dynastic and war debts by the European democracy, and in his views as to the right of one generation to mortgage the labor and spend the substance of the next. He certainly writes very cheerfully of the spoliation which he suggests is coming. The illustrations of the number are largely portraits, among which those of Dr. McCosh and Father Taylor give occasion for articles; of those in the Lincoln paper that of Joshua R. Giddings and that of the Cartwright couple are remarkable, and all are good.

—The January number of the new quarterly *Deutsch-Amerikanisches Magazin* is full of valuable and interesting articles, most of which are from the pen of its editor, Mr. H. A. Ratterman. Although it prints eight or nine poems and a number of miscellaneous papers, it is mainly devoted to the history of the German element in America and the biography of German-Americans, treated in several series of essays continued from number to number. The bound volumes of this review will thus have a permanent value, and constitute an important contribution to American historical literature. If it receives the support to which it is entitled on its merits, its future is secure. No American of German birth or descent can read it without being stimulated at once to greater respect for his ancestors and a warmer attachment to his present home. The biographical department of the present number includes the first instalment of a life of Gen. Augustus Moor, who came to Baltimore in 1833 and served in the Seminole war of 1837 under Maj. Powell; the second part of an account of the youth of Gen. Muhlenberg, relating how, at the age of twenty, he ran away from a grocer in Lübeck, to whom he had been apprenticed, and enlisted in an English regiment bound for America, in order to get back home, to the great chagrin of his pious father, several of whose letters are here printed to the great entertainment of the reader; a first essay concerning Augustine Herrman, or, as known in Dutch and English writings, Heermans, a prominent merchant of New Amsterdam, a member of Peter Stuyvesant's Council of Nine in 1648, and one of the "Proprietors of East Jersey"; and, finally, a second part of the life of Friedrich Kapp, principally consisting, however, of copious quotations from Dr. von Holst's article in the *Preussische Jahrbücher*. A third article is promised, treating of Kapp's literary and historical activity. There are also two interesting historical contributions, one a first chapter of the history of the German-American newspaper press, and the other a continuation from the previous number of the journal of Johann Konrad Döhla, who served as a private in one of the two regiments furnished by the Margrave of Anspach to the British army in 1777 to 1783. There is abundant amusement to be got from this journal, such as the following account of the causes which led to the war:

"England, which must be understood to mean the Parliament, desired to burden the citizens and inhabitants of the thirteen colonies with higher taxes. In addition thereto they sent them tea, which they were to buy, and at high prices, too, so as to draw the more profit and revenue from this country. But as America grows plenty of tea of the best quality, and the inhabitants were abundantly supplied, they refused to receive any from England, and petitioned the King and the Parliament to spare them any further shipments, as they had enough and more. And they sent back the ships and the tea and as much money as the same was worth, etc."

—A few unimportant criticisms of this useful publication suggest themselves. Why should not a German work appearing in this country be printed in Roman characters? Then, also, it would contribute to the convenience of readers if the notes were printed at the foot of each page rather than at the end of each article. A graver fault is that the style is not entirely free from the American corruptions that render the reading of so many German-American newspapers almost painful. It is true there are not many of these. One of them is too comical a literal translation from the English: Authorities are cited in bulk, to which "ein allgemeiner Kredit gegeben wird." The use of the word credit in this sense, quite common in English, but not in German, reminds one of Heine's account of the numerous thrashings he got, as a boy, from his French master, because he persisted in rendering "der Glaube" (faith) as "le crédit," instead of "la religion." "I must confess,"

he adds, "that *le crédit* has been of more use to me throughout life than *la religion*."

—M. Charles Bigot, in the *Revue Bleue* for January 22, continuing his impressions of America as a Bartholdi delegate, thus sings the praises of the national capital:

"C'est une jolie ville, une fort jolie ville que Washington. Elle réjouit singulièrement nos yeux au sortir de New-York. Ici, point de plan géométrique, point de rues tirées au cordeau et qui se coupent implacablement à angle droit. La promenade a de la variété, de la fantaisie et de l'imprévu. Partout des jardins publics et privés, de grands squares plantés de beaux arbres, des arbres aux environs des grandes avenues, la nature mêlée à l'humanité. On habiterait Washington avec plaisir. Les maisons sont de belle apparence, d'un meilleur goût que celles de New York. Les magasins s'étalent spacieusement, sans être trop pressés. Washington n'a pas seulement bon air, il a grand air. Il prend au sérieux son rôle de capitale. Il fait penser à Versailles, mais à un Versailles moins uniforme, moins rectiligne, moins solennel."

With this it is instructive to recall the picture of the same city drawn in 1840–42 by the French Ambassador Bacourt in his home letters ('Souvenirs d'un Diplomate'):

"Nous avons visité la ville, qui ne se compose en réalité que d'une seule rue, nommée l'avenue de Pennsylvanie. . . . L'avenue est plus large de moitié que la rue de la Paix; elle est plantée et garnie de trottoirs en briques; le milieu, macadamisé et jamais arrosé, est un terrible amas de poussière l'été, et un cloaque l'hiver. Les autres rues ne sont pas pavées non plus, mais ont des trottoirs. . . . Les maisons, à un seul étage et toutes en briques rouges, ont une apparence mesquine; elles sont beaucoup trop éparpillées pour les vingt-cinq mille habitants qu'elles contiennent. . . . La prétendue ville de Washington, qui n'est vraiment ni ville ni village; ce sont des maisons jetées à droite et à gauche, sans des alignements fictifs. Tout cela a un air désolé, misérable, qui, même avec de la verdure, fait pitié! Jugez de ce que ce sera par la pluie, la neige et la gelée. . . . Un endroit de désolation et dont le séjour est intolérable."

—On another point our Frenchmen are as closely in accord as they are here (for good reasons) divergent. The view from Greenwood Cemetery impresses both alike. On September 14, 1840, M. Bacourt writes:

"Je suis allé, ce matin, à six milles d'ici voir l'emplacement et les préparatifs d'un nouveau cimetière qui ressemblera à un magnifique parc anglais. . . . Sur le point le plus élevé de ce cimetière . . . se trouve une plate-forme, sur laquelle on se propose de placer un monument à la mémoire du général Washington. La vue que, de cette plate-forme, on a sous les yeux, est certainement la plus belle qui existe dans le monde entier!"

M. Bigot, in the autumn of 1886, is a little more restrained; but if we interpret his last sentence in a broad sense, he thinks the view well worth crossing the Atlantic for:

"Nous montons au point le plus élevé du cimetière. Là se trouve le monument commémoratif en l'honneur des victimes de la guerre de sécession. D'ici la vue est admirable, par cette belle journée d'automne sans nuages. Nous dominons Brooklyn et la grande cité de New-York. Au fond, Jersey City et les collines des rives de l'Hudson ferment l'horizon. Devant nous et à notre gauche s'étend la rade de New-York, semée d'îlots, toute lumineuse, brillante comme un miroir sous le soleil de midi, sur laquelle courent en tous sens des douzaines de grands bateaux à vapeur crachant la fumée par leurs cheminées, faisant siffler et grincer leurs sirènes. N'y eût-il que ce spectacle à chercher ici, il vaudrait la peine de faire le pèlerinage."

—The first volume, of ten, of Mr. John Bigelow's edition of the works of Benjamin Franklin (Putnams) shows that the series will have, typographically, the essential merits of Mr. Lodge's Hamilton. The paper is excellent, the print large, the margins generous. On the other hand, some of the defects we had to point out in the case of the latter series are visible here, and we mention them thus early because there is abundant time to rectify them, even at the sacrifice of absolute uniformity. To begin with, there is no other running title than "The Works of Benjamin Franklin," and yet one-half of the present volume is taken up with the Autobiography, while the shorter pieces which follow could all to equal advantage have been indicated at the top of the page. This is no slight matter. Then care is not always taken to distinguish Franklin's notes from the editor's. Then the table of contents is too perfunctory. "To Sir Hans Sloane," "To Mrs. Jane Macom," "Letter from Antony Afterwit," yield no help to the searcher; whereas nothing would have been easier than to indicate in two lines the subject of the communication or essay. Finally, the proof-reading leaves something to be desired. On page 359, in a foot-note, reference is made to "*supra*, ii., pages 152, 153," as if it were not volume one we had in hand, but some volume later than the second. In fact, the "*supra*" is right, but the "ii." has no meaning that we can discover. In a note on page 23, the date of Mr. Bigelow's 'Life of Franklin' is given as 1884 instead of 1874.

—That this Life should be mentioned only thus obscurely seems odd on Mr. Bigelow's part, since his introduction dwells at so much length on his finding of the original manuscript of the Autobiography, and one who did not read carefully would be led to suppose that it had never before been printed in its integrity. It would have been more natural for him to direct the reader at the outset to the Lippincott edition of 1874 for a particular account of the treasure trove, adding (if he chose) some of the amusing but historically unimportant letters of his agent here given at length. As it is, neither narrative of the circumstances is complete without the other. In making this collection, Mr. Bigelow of course depends in the main on Sparks's edition of the Works, but corrects the mistaken emendations of this too "proper" and adoring historian, arranges his pieces chronologically instead of topically, and adds from three to four hundred new ones derived from the mass of Franklin manuscripts bought of Henry Stevens by our Government, and now in the library of the State Department. In the end, therefore, we shall have an edition not likely to be superseded—and also, let us add, not easy to procure, since only 600 copies have been printed for sale, and from types, not from stereotype plates. Mr. Bigelow reproduces the steel portrait after the pastel by Duplessis, which formed the frontispiece to the Life of 1874. From Parton's Life of Franklin he borrows the summary of *Poor Richard* prefaces. We remark on p. xviii. of his Preface a very exceptional use of the word organ, in the passage which speaks of a letter of William Temple Franklin's printed in an obscure Paris newspaper—"an organ not one *note* of which was likely to reach England or America." This is like calling it a medium not one drop or particle of which, etc.

—In view of the aptitude for numerical calculation which the Hindus are acknowledged to possess in a marked degree, it seems singular that India, in modern days, and especially during the period in which it has been subject to the English, with their free-handed educational encouragement, should have contributed so little to the development of mathematical science. It was not destined, however, that Bhâskarâchârya, Brahmagupta, and their compeers of ages far remote should be wholly without their nineteenth-century successors. Râmachandra, a native of Delhi, besides translating numerous works on mathematics, including the higher, from English into Urdû, produced, a generation ago, at least one work in the same language, distinguished by accredited originality. Reference is here intended to his 'Problems of Maxima and Minima,' the second edition of which, prefaced by the late Prof. De Morgan, was published in London in 1859, under the auspices of the Court of Directors, who signified their appreciation of it by presenting its author with £200, after their liberal fashion. And now we have to announce the appearance, last year, of a kindred treatise, but one of much ampler scope, 'Chalana-kalana,' bearing the alternative title of "A Hindî Treatise on the Differential Calculus." This admirably printed volume, extending to nearly 500 pages, has for its author Pandit Sudhâkara Dvivedin, Librarian of the Sanskrit College at Benares. The learned Pandit, already favorably known as a mathematician by what he has written, in Sanskrit, on the properties of the ellipse, lays claim to the introduction of many new methods, over and above demonstrating the validity of a certain method which had previously been pronounced unsound. In an English preface, abounding with interesting facts and criticisms, he gives it as his opinion that Bhâskarâchârya, who, though he flourished in the twelfth century, is supposed to have been indebted for nothing to European sources, "was in no way inferior to Archimedes, in respect of his methods of differential calculus." As the Pandit expresses himself with perfect clearness in our language, it is due to his reputation that he should render into it those portions of his treatise in which, as he alleges, he has improved on what has been accomplished by his predecessors—Mr. Todhunter and Mr. Hall, in particular.

THE AMERICAN SCHOOL OF EVOLUTIONISTS.

The Origin of the Fittest: Essays on Evolution. By E. D. Cope, A.M., Ph.D. (Heidelberg). D. Appleton & Co. 1887.

WHILE the general doctrine of evolution is nowhere more appreciated than among American naturalists, the same can hardly be said for that particular form of it which is usually known as Darwinism. For many years there has been a tendency among the younger students of nature—those who have grown up under the influence of the new ideas and the new methods of research which have prevailed since the 'Origin of Species' was published—to be dissatisfied with the doctrine of natural selection as an explanation of the forms, structures, and complex relations of organized beings. While admitting the reality and importance of Darwin's great discovery, they urge that it affords at best but a partial explanation of the facts; that it deals with only half, and that the least important half, of the problem. They maintain that the real essence of the problem is to discover the efficient causes of those "variations" which are selected, of those "fittest" modifications of structure which can alone survive; and they believe that the time has come when these great problems may be successfully attacked, and a new light thrown on the inmost recesses of nature's laboratory.

Foremost of this school is Dr. E. D. Cope, the well-known anatomist and palæontologist, who in the work now under notice has collected together the various essays, papers, lectures, and addresses by means of which, during the last eighteen years, he has made known his views on evolution in all its bearings. We find here discussions on the relations of animals and plants, on the influence of mind in nature, and on the origin of consciousness, with others on less recondite problems, such as the causes which have brought about the specialized teeth and feet of the various orders of mammalia, and the general evidences for evolution afforded by the vertebrate animals. Some of these questions are discussed at great length, and in several distinct essays from somewhat different points of view, so

that it is not always easy to get at the author's exact meaning. We will do our best, however, to give our readers a general idea of Mr. Cope's views upon some of the more interesting questions, pointing out where, in our opinion, his arguments or his conclusions are open to criticism.

One of the largest and most important chapters is that on the Origin of Genera, which, it is alleged, is a more distinct subject from the origin of species than has been supposed. Throughout the whole essay it is tacitly assumed that generic characters are of a different nature from specific characters, and are always to be distinguished from them, and hence that "genera" are definite realities in nature quite distinct from mere groups of species. This view is directly opposed to the teaching of Darwin and to the experience of systematists, to whom the successive grades of *sub-genus*, *genus*, and *sub-family* are often uncertain and fluctuating; while the idea seems to have arisen from the author's greater familiarity with the skeletons than with the external structures of animals. Mr. Cope further maintains that allied genera differ from each other by single characters only, and that these characters are rarely adaptations to external needs or forces, but are due to laws of acceleration or retardation of growth which act without any reference to fitness at all. In other chapters this acceleration is said to be due to "growth-force," and to be determined in its direction by use and effort.

It is interesting to note that this leads to an origin of genera quite distinct from that postulated by Darwin, and which has seemed to most naturalists not only to be simple and probable, but to be a logical result of the theory of development. On the theory of natural selection, new species are produced when any change of conditions requires slight modifications either in color, form, or structure to keep up the harmony between the animal and its environment; or when the struggle for existence is so severe that some individuals of a species are driven to adopt a somewhat different mode of life from their fellows and become modified to suit it—as, for example, when allied terrestrial and arboreal species have acquired differently formed feet. Now, if a species which has thus struck out a new course of life becomes gradually modified into more perfect adaptation to it, and then gives rise to a set of varieties or new species each adapted to some specialized form of that new mode of life, this new group of species constitutes a new genus, and is characterized usually by some structural peculiarity—such as differences in the feet or teeth—which is the special adaptation it has needed and acquired. On this view every new genus has originated in some one modified species of an allied genus.

Mr. Cope's view is very different from this. He believes, to use his own words, "that a new genus has been established by the transition of a number of species of a preceding genus, without necessary loss of specific characters"; and he even thinks the same process may have gone on in the transition of a large number of genera into new orders or sub-orders "by the assumption or loss of the character or characters of that to or from which they were transferred, and that without necessary loss of their generic characters." He believes that this explains the similarity of external form which is often found in corresponding species of distinct genera or distinct families, a similarity which Darwinians explain by the influence of similar conditions affecting growth or coloration.

To make the difference of principle clear to readers not familiar with minute generic distinctions, we will take an extreme and imaginary case. Let us suppose that the two great families of the wolves and foxes (Canidæ), on the one hand, and the cats (Felidæ), on the other, were much more alike externally than they really are, differing mainly in the important character of the retractile and non-retractile claws and in the habits corresponding to this difference, and that it is required to explain how the Felidæ had been derived from the Canidæ. According to Darwin, some species of fox-like animal had been driven to climb trees in search of food, and every modification giving increased prehensile power to the claws and increased agility had been preserved by natural selection; while subsequently many modifications of this type had been developed to prey upon different kinds of animals, some of the larger ones again becoming adapted to a terrestrial life, and using their agile bodies and retractile claws to capture antelopes, deer, and other swift and wary creatures. But, according to the theory of Mr. Cope, a number of species of primeval Canidæ each acquired independently the characters of retractile claws and agile limbs, and formed the new group Felidæ, which was thus not derived from any one common ancestor, but from a number of distinct species which, through similar causes, had undergone an almost identical structural change. It must be clearly understood that this is only an illustration, since the two families referred to are too remote and too specialized to have been derived directly the one from the other; but the principle is the same as that which would apply to any two distinct but closely allied groups.

Perhaps the most distinctive feature of the new school is the return to the teaching of Lamarck, that use and effort are the immediate causes of useful variations, and that the individuals which exhibit these are the "fittest" which survive. It is claimed that the "origin of the fittest" can be explained in no other way, and that, until the right variations are produced, no effective selection or useful survival can take place. With regard to the effects of use, Mr. Cope says:

"Another reason for believing in use as a cause of structural change is the manner in which the same useful structures have evidently appeared on totally distinct stems, as an evident adaptation to the same circumstances in which different types have been equally placed. Thus the birds of prey possess the hooked, often toothed, beak appropriate for tearing and destroying animals. Their stock is the same as that of the cuckoos and parrots, and even of the pigeons. The butcher-birds are of the division of songsters, not widely removed from the thrushes, and far enough from the raptores, yet the same hook and dentate bill reappears in them, as adapted to flesh-eating habits. Among the reptiles, which were no doubt originally land animals, and derived from batrachians, we have a large number adapted to swimming in the ocean, and these not all of the same stock. Thus the *Plesiosauri* are crocodilian in relationship, while the *Pythonomorpha* of America were of the same [stock] that produced the snake and lizard. Again, the same modification appears in the Cetaceans, or whale, etc., among mammals, which are primarily a terrestrial division."

To all this the Darwinian would probably reply that no causal connection has been shown to exist between the feeding on flesh instead of insects, and the production of a hook or tooth to the bill. The use of the bill in seizing larger animals might conceivably strengthen the muscles or even enlarge the bill itself, but could have no such effect as causing the tip of the bill to bend downwards, or a definite portion of the margin to grow out into a tooth. On the other hand, any individual variations in the form of the bill tending towards a hook or a tooth (and just such variations occur now whenever large numbers of specimens are examined) would give a slight advantage in seizing the prey, and would therefore be preserved and accumulated by natural selection. So with the tails of marine animals: the action of swimming might strengthen the muscles of the tail and lead to an increase of its size, but how it should lead to its compression and lateral expansion is by no means clear. Any such change of form would, however, undoubtedly improve it as a swimming instrument, and thus every variation in that direction would be preserved.

An equal want of relation between the supposed cause and the result to be explained exists in the case of the rattle of the rattlesnake, where "the habit of violent vibration" is said to tend "to determine an increased amount of nutritive fluid" to the tail. This might increase the muscular power of the tail by the constant use of special muscles, but something more is required to account for the formation of the horny rattles and modified caudal vertebræ of the rattlesnake.

Use, however, implies some organ or part to be used, the variations in which can be preserved by natural selection, and it is urged with some force that the beginnings of new structures or organs cannot be thus accounted for. For this the doctrine of effort is appealed to, as being a power adequate to direct the "growth-force" in a definite direction, and thus initiate a new organ. The power of imagination or desire acting as a stimulus to the secretions is called in to aid and extend the effects of this principle. As one of the best illustrations of the effects of effort, Mr. Cope refers to the production of horns or shields on the heads of so many animals. Toads are said to protect themselves from attack by presenting the top of the head forward and using it as a shield, and the result is seen in the more highly developed forms possessing more completely ossified crania, while some have projecting angles on the head rarely developed into short horns. The phrynosoma, or horned toad of California and Arizona, is really a sluggish lizard which has developed sharp horns on the back of its head for protection. In the case of the Ruminants, it is remarked that they have the habit of defending themselves by bending down the head with the horns forward, and this habit in the primitive hornless ancestors is supposed to have produced the horns by the combined action of the mental effort directing nutriment to that part, and the surface irritation produced by friction whenever the head was used in combat or defence. In support of this view it is pointed out that the generalized group represented by the hog, which were no doubt the genetic predecessors of the Ruminants, also throw the head down in defence in the same way. It is not, however, explained how it is that in this case tusks and not horns have been developed.

Perhaps the most valuable and suggestive of the applications of the theory of use in modifying structure is presented in the short chapter "On the Origin of the Foot-Structures of the Ungulates." The remarkable progressive change of a four or five-toed ancestor into the one-toed horse, and the equally remarkable division of the whole group of ungulate animals into the odd-toed and even-toed divisions, are attempted to be explained by the effects of impact and use among animals which frequented hard or swampy ground respectively. On hard ground it is urged that the long middle toe would be most used and subjected to the greatest strains, and would therefore acquire both strength and development. It would then be still more exclusively used, and the extra nourishment required by it would be drawn from the adjacent less-used toes, which would accordingly diminish in size, till, after a long series of changes, the records of which are so well preserved in our American tertiary rocks, the true one toed horse was developed. In soft or swampy ground, on the other hand, the tendency would be to spread out the foot so that there were two toes on each side. The two middle toes would thus be most used and most subject to strains, and would therefore increase at the expense of the lateral toes. There would be,

no doubt, an advantage in these two functional toes being of equal size so as to prevent twisting of the foot while walking, and variations tending to bring this about would be advantageous and would therefore be preserved. Thus, by a parallel series of changes in another direction adapted to a distinct set of conditions, we should arrive at the symmetrical divided hoofs of our deer and cattle. The fact that sheep and goats are specially mountain and rock loving animals may be explained by their being a later modification, since the divided hoof once formed is evidently well adapted to secure a firm footing on rugged and precipitous ground, although it could hardly have been first developed in such localities. It will be noted, however, that throughout all this series of changes the influence of natural selection would be required to seize upon and preserve each favorable variation as it occurred.

Another interesting chapter is that on "The Evolution of the Vertebrata Progressive and Retrogressive." Many types in all orders of vertebrates present rudimentary organs, as rudimentary digits, feet, or limbs, rudimental fins, teeth, or wings. There is scarcely an organ or part which is not somewhere in a rudimental and more or less useless condition. These cases may be either persistent primitive conditions to be regarded as ancestral types which have survived to the present time, or, on the other hand, they may be the results of a process of degeneration, and therefore comparatively modern. The former interpretation was once the most generally adopted, but of late years so many proofs of degeneration have been discovered that it is seen to have played a very important part in bringing about the existing forms of animal and plant life. Mr. Cope defines degeneracy as a loss of parts without corresponding development of other parts. In determining the grade of development (or what should be termed advancement) in the organic scale, we have often to strike a balance between degeneration and progression according to the importance of the parts implicated. We regard sensibility as the highest of animal functions, and mind as the highest form of sensibility. Therefore development of organs of sensibility and mind constitutes a better claim of progress than development of stomach or of skin. The ruminating animals are said to be much superior to man in the structure of their feet, teeth, and stomach, yet we assign the higher position to the quadrumana and to man, on account of the superior complication of their brain structure.

The earliest reptiles, the theromorpha, were more nearly allied to mammalia than any now living, so that reptiles as a whole may be said to have degenerated. They have, however, become specialized for certain modes of life, and the whole order of snakes have entirely lost the limbs, so that we have here a process of creation by degeneration on a large scale. Some lizards have also lost either the fore or hind limbs, or in some cases all the limbs, thus resembling snakes in outward form though differing from them altogether in structure. The earliest birds probably possessed a long bony tail as well as teeth, both of which they have lost. The whales and manatees among the mammalia have degenerated by the loss of their posterior limbs and the modification of their fore limbs into swimming paddles. The seals have partially degenerated from the carnivorous type, and the sloths and ant-eaters are supposed to have lost the teeth which their ancestors possessed, and thus to have suffered degeneration.

One of the most curious speculations to be found in this volume is the tracing of plant to animal life through a progressive automatism and loss of consciousness. It is urged that all definite motion in organic beings must have been once conscious motion, and that all automatic or unconscious motions or acts were acquired and organized in states of consciousness. All evidence goes to show that actions sufficiently often repeated become automatic, and it is now believed that all the vital actions of the heart, lungs, stomach, and other organs originated in voluntary motions of some lowly organized ancestor. Mr. Cope thus applies this principle to plants:

"Bearing in mind the property of protoplasm to organize machinery which shall work automatically in the absence of consciousness, we can glance at the succession of vegetable forms. The active movements of the primary stages of the Algæ are well known. After swimming actively through the water, they settle down, take root, and assume the rôle of plants. The *Aethalium*, swimming with the movements of a Rhizopod, has been known to take food before establishing itself on the damp piles of the tan-bark, where it speedily becomes a low form of fungus. The approximation of the lower forms of plants to animals is notorious. The fungi, it is said, are the only terrestrial plants which live like animals on organic matter, appropriating the humus of their rich nidus in a state of solution. Now, the palæontology of animals has absolutely established the fact that the predecessors of all characteristic or specialized types have been unspecialized or generalized types. It may then be regarded as almost certain that the ancestors of the present higher types of plants were more animal-like than they; that the forms displaying automatic movements were more numerous, and the difficulty of deciding on the vegetable or animal nature of a living organism greater than it is now. Hence it may be concluded that animal consciousness has from time to time organized its machinery and then disappeared for ever, leaving as a result the permanent form of life which we term vegetable. But it is not to be supposed that all changes of structure cease with the departure of consciousness. Given spontaneous movement (*i. e.*, growth), and surrounding conditions, and the resultant product must be structures adapted to their surroundings, just as the plastic clay be fitted to its mould. And this is essentially the distinguishing character of vegetable teleology as compared with animal. In the average plant we see adaptation to the conditions of unconscious nutrition; in the animal, adaptation to conditions of conscious contact with the world under a great variety of conditions."

Whether this remarkable theory of the relations of plant and animal life be ultimately proved to be true or not, it is certainly very suggestive, and opens up before us illimitable vistas of inquiry into the obscure arcana of nature. Many such intellectual gems may be found in the volume under consideration, but they have to be dug out from a mass of unattractive ore. The great fault of the book is that no attempt has been made to systematize and weld together the material of which it is composed. Hence frequent repetitions and self-quotations, with a considerable amount of purely technical matter, quite unreadable by any one but an experienced anatomist. There is ample proof of the author's ability to write a connected work which should set forth his matured views on the great problems of evolution in an attractive as well as an instructive manner; and it is much to be regretted that the somewhat pretentious title here attached to a mere reprint of his collected papers was not reserved for such a work.

RECENT NOVELS.

The Princess Casamassima. By Henry James. Macmillan & Co.

The Minister's Charge. By W. D. Howells. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

Rankell's Remains. By Barrett Wendell. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

Sir Percival. By J. H. Shorthouse. Macmillan & Co.

A Demigod. Harper & Brothers.

The Bow of Orange Ribbon. By Amelia E. Barr. Dodd, Mead & Co.

Between Two Loves. By Amelia E. Barr. Harper's Handy Series.

'THE PRINCESS CASAMASSIMA' disturbs the conviction that Mr. James is the chief apostle of that restricted realism which ignores extraordinary events and unusual characters, and denies the influence of the apparently accidental on the general current of life, and of exceptional individuals on the history of humanity. It fits an empirical yet generally accepted definition of realistic fiction about as neatly as does 'Aladdin and the Wonderful Lamp.' One hardly stretches a point in drawing a parallel of improbability between the adventures of Aladdin with his Princess and the adventures of Hyacinth, bookbinder of Soho, with his Princess, the "most wonderful woman in Europe." Let it not be supposed that Mr. James has gone over to romance and magic; he has only selected people whom very few of us are likely ever to know, placed them in circumstances best suited to develop them, and dispassionately told the whole truth about them. His persistent desire to see the truth, and his marvellous ability for telling it, whether the case under consideration be special or typical, prove that he has become a "realist" in the only significant or, indeed, intelligent sense of the word. Though, as a rule, the value of a study of types is, of course, greater than that of exceptions, the exceptional, if well chosen, almost certainly gives the author the best chance to show his greatest strength. In this series of studies of exceptions Mr. James shows a versatility and power hardly hinted at in his former work. Such complex and high-strung natures as Hyacinth and the Princess call out reserves of keenness and intellectual refinement unexpected even in him; and in the score of uncommon people temporarily united by common interest in a great question, his wit and sarcasm are agreeably tempered by a tenderness and even intensity of feeling which he has hitherto carefully repressed. The gain to the reader in interest is enormous, for, if a novelist will not give us a dramatic plot or thrilling scenes, and will leave off just when he has prepared us for a splendid finish, we are more than compensated for emotional disappointment by the intellectual pleasure of thought directed towards aims and objects not circumscribed by personal desire or local predisposition and habit. Throughout the novel we are carried far away from the average man and his motives in the ordinary conditions of life, but we are not invited to step outside of humanity; on the contrary, our understanding of humanity and sympathy with it are very materially extended and stimulated.

The Princess is an enigma, brilliant and inscrutable. All her frank and illogical talk, all her eccentric behavior, all the author's analysis, fail to make her comprehensible, but they accomplish his intention to portray a woman beyond shadow of doubt dazzlingly incomprehensible. Her personality smacks as little of the respectable aristocracy as of the middle class or the mob. She is a product of high fashion, of the great world, sick to death of all that goes to produce her. She is irresponsible, elusive, incalculable. She is never in the highest sense spiritual, never basely sensual. Her passions are only caprices, and her caprices have for the moment the active force of a great passion. While we know her, her dominant whim is to identify herself with the people, to clap the great democracy on the back, to imagine herself an intimate counsellor of the darkest conspirators, to believe, as she likes to say, that she is head and shoulders "in it." The Princess, as nearly as we can get at her, is a monument of sincere insincerity, and it was well for poor little Hyacinth, who long supplied her imagination with a concrete representative of her caprice, that the end came before he wholly realized the truth.

Little Hyacinth, born in a slum, bred on a poor dressmaker's charity, doomed to bear the burden of a parentage doubtful in all but its

shame, is the great figure of the book. His organization is most sensitive and exquisite, and in him all the author's intellectual subtlety and distinction find expression. He is no easier to classify or label than the Princess. He is specifically of the unhappy only—the most unhappy, for his case is not so much that of a nature at war with circumstances as of a nature made up of incongruous, irreconcilable elements—a nature for ever arrayed against itself. At his worst, Hyacinth is never sordid or grudging or snobbish; at his best he is aflame with nobility, not heroic, romantic, and impossible, but entirely consistent with modern sentiment and the aspiration that is permissible or possible to us. Always, in his enthusiasms and dejection, in the light, ironical mood which is most frequent, Hyacinth is indefinably sad. The people whose lives touch Hyacinth's are each in his way as exactly and vividly drawn. No English novelist has given us such a Frenchman as Poupin, such a German as Shinkel, such an Italian as Prince Casamassima. The London shop-girl Milicent Henning—who, by the way, is typical—is perfect in her superabundant health and slang, her scrupulous care for her virtue, and her hopeless, unconscious vulgarity.

It is rash to venture any conclusions about the author's personal attitude towards the Socialistic movement which agitates and colors the lives of his characters. He may be accused of using a serious movement simply for literary purposes, of scoffing at its intensity, playing with its passion, treating it often as frivolously as if it were a question of woman's-dress reform. But there is an undertone of earnestness suggesting that he, like Hyacinth after his eyes began to open, sees most clearly, at the bottom of the cry about elevating the people, the "ulcer of envy, the passion of a party hanging together for the purpose of despoiling another to its advantage.

It is hardly fair to leave this novel without a word about its literary manner and style. There is, of course, very little plot, and that little is immaterial. There is a mass of what, from a hasty reading, may be stigmatized as super-subtle analyses, ultra-refined phrases, fine-spun nothings. But a careful reading—and for the dimmest appreciation that is necessary—will pretty surely acquit the author of such sins, and compel the recognition that, putting aside his skill as a novelist, he has written a book remarkable for the precision, elegance, and distinction of its style.

The points of resemblance in the writing of Howells and James, so evident that we naturally couple their names as representatives of a school, are very forcibly present to one reading the 'Minister's Charge' close upon the 'Princess Casamassima.' There is the same facility and apparent delight in laying bare the secret recesses of thought, the same habit of presenting sentiment and what may be called mental tragedy through a medium of light, humorous satire, a similar command of telling and brilliant expression. For downright cruelty and cold-blood in the dissection of the meaner and shabbier part of every man, the one has often proved himself the equal of the other. They have done it so often, at such great length, with such unquestionable fidelity, that, with the mote "realism" in our eye, we have cried in despair, Are the qualities in men that we know to be fine not real? Are trivial baseness, petty viciousness, the only truths? Are we ourselves, in our occasional better impulses and actions, pure hypocrites imposing on stupidity, as our own density is in turn imposed on? At last Mr. James has given us some comfort, but Mr. Howells plunges us the more deeply in gloom. In this novel, as in 'A Modern Instance' and 'Silas Lapham,' he shows himself a masterly realist, laboring under obvious restrictions in his selection and view of character. Accepting the work, with its limitations, it has neither the strength nor value of 'Silas Lapham,' for its most important character, Lemuel Barker, is not so widely representative, and, shorn of Mr. Howells's interpretation, is insignificant. Deduct Howells from Lapham, and Lapham remains a force in his world; deduct Howells from Lemuel Barker, and there remains a dull, conscientious, country boy, the loss of whom his world could bear lightly. The author does not overlook anything there is in Barker. He makes the most of his reticence, his self-consciousness, his pride that scorns to accept a favor, yet, until he has imbibed city notions, feels no shame in menial service; his dogged adherence to a Puritan conception of right. He absolutely invests Barker's career as man-of-all-work, "elevator boy," horse-car conductor, with mild interest, but, as Barker himself would probably have phrased it, "there's not enough to him" to hold people of moderate cultivation through thirty-five chapters. The author seems to have been oppressed by Barker's insufficiency, for he resorts to much padding of a flimsy kind, and, worse still, of a kind with which he has already made us familiar. He provides the Boston spinster of adequate means, and social position, who laughs immoderately and pours out silly impertinences which are uttered and received as specimens of delightfully frank humor. Then he brings on our old friend, now known as Mrs. Sewell, the lady who keeps her husband's conscience, who alternately snaps and gushes, who frequently explodes in question or affirmation which, though apparently irrelevant, really illustrate an unerring intuition. Marching through the pages is the phalanx of men of good disposition but inclined to perpetual ironical mirth, broad or delicate, according to their position in life. These men, distinctively Howells's men, are frequently entertaining, witty, and acute to a degree which partially offsets their hardness and frightfully bad taste. The author has made the world so intimate with them, that a stranger in New England must suffer a shock of surprise should he meet a man who can treat weakness tenderly, sorrow reverently, who is capable of wholly serious thought and direct, unequivocal expression. Mr. Sewell, the minister, who here leads the band devoted in their own peculiar manner to driving dull care away, is a strained and tiresome person. Attributing to such a man continued and extreme feeling of responsibility for Barker is about as grave a departure from probability in character as any romanticist could be guilty of, with nothing picturesque or entrancing to balance the untruth.

From Mr. Howells's later works, the inference is justifiable that he desires impartially and fearlessly to record New England life both in its broad tendencies and its detail. So far he has shown us that there is little variety in the people—that their prominent characteristics are of a mean order and strikingly disagreeable. Nothing but his literary efficiency could induce inhabitants of the remaining quarters of the globe to tolerate the majority of them. It is a matter of history that we owe our national leaven of spirituality and intellectuality to New England, and no one believes that the stream of ennobling influence has dried at its source. Therefore a series of novels delineating only people devoid of spirituality, and meagrely intellectual, is either a suppression of that part of the truth best worth telling, or an indication of the author's unfortunately contracted vision.

If the author of 'Rankell's Remains' had lived two hundred years ago, he would have cast his work in allegorical form, with Rankell as the monster, Mammon. Rankell is an embodiment of the passion for making money, a passion perhaps no more modern than ancient, and always selfish, unscrupulous, and insatiable. In three imperfectly connected episodes, the author depicts a character so detestable as to excite loathing for the man and for all that he represents. There is no pleasure in reading about Rankell. Still, for the healthy after-effect—the detestation of force expended in evil—it is worth while to share the pain his iniquities inflicted on his victims. The methods by which Rankell rose in life so closely resemble those ascribed by common report to many men who have accumulated great fortunes, that it is foolish to say the author had any individual in mind; but the vengeance wreaked on Rankell's remains by a victim who had been impotent to harm him living, is a clear use of a singular and widely known incident. The employment in fiction of circumstances that all the world has recently been talking of is generally in questionable taste—about on a plane with personal journalism; but in this case the aptness and artistic treatment of the incident are sufficient excuse. It is just as easy to particularize the Convention where Rankell's gold was potent, and to put one's finger on the candidates and wire-pullers. At the Convention Rankell reached the climax of infamy, for here he stepped aside from what might be considered legitimate rascality—went out of his way, as the author says, "to play for his own gain any game that would bring money to him, even though it brought dishonor to the country; and he played it by stirring up what was worst in these men about him—their silliness and greed." Detached from the story, the episode of the Convention is a clever bit of political satire, setting forth certain principles which, if taken to the national heart, might inspire hope that such proceedings will speedily become "portion and parcel of the dreadful past." It is a pity that the author confesses even as much tenderness and compassion for Rankell as he does in the preface and last chapter. The evil done by Rankell was of the kind that literally lives after a man, for it blighted other lives and sowed seeds of infinite misery. It was so far-reaching and malignant that no weak sentiment for a woman's memory, nor endowment of a church of fabulous cost and ethereal beauty, could ever nullify or even extenuate it.

In the tale of 'Sir Percival' the author of 'John Inglesant' attempts an impracticable thing—to infuse a religious rhapsody with an appearance of actuality. He seems to have wanted to write a poem exalting the beauty of unassailable religious faith, of pure and unselfish living, and he has hampered himself in every conceivable way. His own mind is full of the legend of Sir Percival of the 'Morte d'Arthur,' but he makes no better use of it than to harass the reader's mind with ineffectual effort to find some sort of a parallel between the all-but-blameless knight and the very faulty modern hero, Sir Percival Massareen. Then he puts his narrative in the mouth of a girl—a very fine figure for a saint, perhaps, but, as a mere human girl, making about as profound appeal to sympathy as does an iceberg. In a number of poetical passages she amplifies the idea that through suffering alone the spirit may reach purity and holiness, but there is nothing except her abstract ecstasy to prove that she suffered at all. She seems to have lived a life of luxurious seclusion and devout reverie exactly to her taste. In crises that must have plunged a real girl in an abyss of despair, she has no trouble in bearing up. She wonders how she can be so happy. When a young man from the Foreign Office comes with news of Sir Percival which is almost surely fatal, she experiences rapture. Her deliberation in waiting to open the young soldier's last letter until she shall have walked a mile or so through the

park, and installed herself in a particular corner of a chapel, would be comical if she had not from the first chilled the sense of humor out of existence. The impression made by the tale is the reverse of that which the author intended. It is a failure not because it is inadequate to the test of probability, but because it is so clumsily managed that the imagination which it ought to delight is severely kept in check by cold reason.

It would be difficult to imagine a more worthless and ridiculous book than 'A Demigod,' impossible to write one with less regard for propriety of form and expression. The Demigod is descended through seven generations from an English physician who, disgusted with the degeneracy of his race, retired to the most inaccessible wilds of the Taygetus Mountains. There he ate no meat, cherished no ambitions, avoided notoriety (a task which, considering his location, was not beset with obstacles), and devoted himself to what the author calls "harmonious self-nurture." He bound his son under oath to do likewise, and the oath was transmitted from father to son down to Hector Vyr the seventh, the Demigod. When a Vyr wanted a wife he sallied forth from his castle—furnished always in the highest taste of the time, without regard for cost—crossed a moat, tossed aside a gigantic oak that served for a bridge, and, single-handed, rescued a party of travellers about to be put to the torture by bandits. A perfectly beautiful woman, thus rescued, always gave her love and life in gratitude to her rescuer. Hector Vyr got his wife in traditional fashion. She was without speck or blemish, her teeth were perfectly sound, and she came from Boston. The place of her nativity and bringing-up suggests that the eccentric Vyr method is not essential to the attainment of absolute physical and mental perfection. A difference between Hector Vyr and other men, as marked as his perfection, is his candor of speech, his ignorance of the art of polite equivocation. He is a combination of the *enfant terrible* and the guileless red man of fiction. The charm of his ingenuousness is much enhanced at first by his childish diction, but the author soon wearies of sustaining that, and, long before the end, his only attractive expression is "whyfor." The book would be beneath comment were it not for a slap-dash pretentiousness, a superficial smartness, which easily pass current for cleverness and remarkable originality.

'The Bow of Orange Ribbon' is a very picturesque story of New York in 1756, all alive with sturdy Dutch men and women, and brilliantly set off with King George's soldiers in splendor of scarlet and gold. The antipathy of certain honest, godly Knickerbockers for the youthful English representatives of the flesh and the devil is discussed with a great deal of humor and vivacity, and the romance of the little Dutch maiden with the giddiest of the offenders is as sweet and natural as tale of true love, not always running smooth, can be. The atmosphere of the story is thoroughly old-time, and, whether the separate pictures are historically accurate or not, they make a pleasant combination. The end is happy, and that is pleasant, too, for to leave such whole-souled, friendly, nice people in permanent unhappiness would be positive grief.

The scene of 'Between Two Loves,' another story by Mrs. Barr, is in an English manufacturing town. Its quality is not so excellent as that of 'The Bow of Orange Ribbon,' but it is nevertheless a very good story. The characters are those which the author wisely selects to write about because she is perfectly in sympathy with them. The men have generally warm hearts, quick tempers, deep prejudices, and the fear of the Lord in their souls. The women are pure of heart and mind, faithful and strong in love, and religiously subservient to Calvinistic theories of duty—good men and women all, in the main, whose petty weaknesses, follies, and occasional vices weigh light in the balance against their integrity and truth.

Tenth Census of the United States. 1880. Vol. XX. Statistics of Wages. Washington.

THE twentieth volume of the final report on the Tenth Census of the United States is devoted chiefly to statistics of wages. With a view to showing what wages will buy, there are added tables of the average retail prices of the necessaries of life. Supplementary reports upon trade societies, and strikes, and lock-outs are also included; but as they do not profess to be at all complete, and are of little interest after the lapse of six years from the date of their compilation, we need not refer to them. As to the statistics of wages, it is evident that great labor has been performed by those having the work in charge, both in the selection and in the arrangement of materials. Returns from fifty-three industries were obtained, and are here displayed in 627 tables, accompanied with explanatory remarks. They constitute, according to the belief of the Superintendent of the Census, "the largest magazine of statistics relating to the wages of labor to be found in any single publication." If size is to be the standard of judgment, this opinion is probably correct, as the tables must contain nearly 150 cubic inches of printed matter. But if they are intended to be used by students of social science, they seem to be in several respects untrustworthy.

The work of the statistician is commonly regarded as of a purely clerical character. Nothing could be more erroneous than this view. No statistical work can have other than accidental value, unless it is carried on by men competent to judge of testimony, to weigh evidence, and to conduct experiments in accordance with scientific principles. To distribute blanks and tabulate returns is not enough; it amounts frequently to nothing more than putting an official stamp upon misstatements. As an illustration of the defects of this method, we may take the answers received by the special agent to his question concerning the cost of the labor employed in making ploughs, of which he is moved to observe: "One works cannot produce at an expense of 12½ per cent. for labor what costs the other 50 per cent." Again, we have the statement that while in New York common brick sold at $7 per thousand, and pressed brick at $15, the labor cost was the same for both, $2.35 per thousand. This is improbable enough, but immediately below we read that in Pennsylvania the price per thousand for common brick is $4.60, and for pressed brick $8, while the labor cost for the former is $4.10, and for the latter $7. In the same connection it is stated that in Ohio the prices of fire brick, according to grade, are $16, $30, and $42; that the cost of labor per thousand is $5.45, and that the percentage of wages to cost is 35 per cent. for the cheapest grade, and 40 per cent. for the two higher grades. This means either that labor cost is a different thing from wages, or that price is a different thing from cost, or else that $5.45 is at the same time 35 per cent. of $16, and 40 per cent. of both $30 and $42.

If we attempt to compare the wages paid in different establishments, it is impossible not to be struck with the extent of the variations. Thus in the boot and shoe manufacture we find that a cutter in an establishment in Massachusetts was paid in 1880, $2.50 a day; in an establishment in New York, $2; in one in Pennsylvania, $1.50 to $1.87. In the same establishments a finisher was paid $1.33, $2.33, and $2.62. In two establishments in Ohio, finishers were paid respectively $3.50 and $2 a day. Moreover, the Massachusetts finisher has had his wages reduced from $3.50 in 1870, while the New York finisher has lost very little, and the Ohio finisher has gained fifty cents since 1876—the limit of the table in this case. It is almost incredible that for the same work there should be paid such different sums as $1.33 and $3.50. But if the work is different, such tables as these are worthless; no averaging of results will correct errors that arise from calling different things by the same name.

Turning to the carpet industry, we learn that in a Massachusetts mill a carder is paid $0.60 a day, while in an establishment in Pennsylvania he receives $1.66. In the same two mills reelers get respectively $0.85 and $1.00, warpers $0.99 and $2.50, spinners $0.71 and $2.00, and so forth. In the cotton manufacture, if we compare two establishments in Connecticut, we find the following rates of wages: Card-strippers $0.76 and $0.91, frame-spinners $0.70 and $0.48, spoolers $0.90 and $0.62, warpers $1.75 and $0.91, and mule-spinners $0.84 and $1.25. Taking two woollen mills in New Hampshire, it appears that spoolers get in one $0.67 a day, in the other from $0.75 to $1.00; spinners respectively $0.66 and $1.50 to $1.75; carders $1.02 and $0.80 to $0.90. It would be surprising to find such different rates of wages in establishments in the same State, even if we could discover some proportion in the variations. But when we find that the first mill pays one class of workmen twice what the second mill pays, and another class only half what the second pays, our surprise changes to scepticism. It is impossible to derive any sound inferences from such data. A protectionist could easily prove from them, *more suo*, that half the factories in the country must at once shut up on account of the pauper labor employed in the remainder.

It is hardly probable that any one wishing to trace the prices of the great staples of consumption would consult this report, since the statistics of the various commercial journals and societies are much more complete than those here given. We find the same uncertainty as to the meaning of terms that detracts from the value of the statistics of wages. To take a single illustration: the price of men's heavy boots per pair at one town in Indiana is stated to be from $2 to $2.75; at another town in the same State it is from $4.50 to $7.50. The only useful inference to be drawn from such statistics is, that when the inhabitants of Terre Haute want to buy heavy boots they had better go to the town of Washington to do it.

It is, however, possible to gather some valuable information from a compilation like this. Certain establishments give returns of the wages that they have paid for many years past, and in these cases we may presume that the nature of the services rendered is indicated with substantial accuracy by the name given to the workman. It is somewhat interesting to observe that the number of establishments in which eight hours constitute a day's work has decreased during a term of years, although upon the whole the working day has been materially shortened. In fact it looks as if from nine to ten hours was the normal period for most classes of factory work. If more hours are worked, the product, although somewhat larger, tends to be of inferior quality; while if the day is shorter, the decrease in quality of production is not made up in any other way. As to the time of payment of wages, about the same number of establishments pay monthly as in former years, while more pay weekly—the difference being explained by the fact that yearly and quarter-yearly payments have practically ceased. But these scattered suggestions are a very small return for the labor that has been expended in the preparation of this volume, and we fear that it must take its place in that innumerable procession of public documents that is always marching from the printer's to the paper-mill.

The Dragon, Image, and Demon. By the Rev. H. C. Du Bose. A. C. Armstrong & Son.

So good a book as Mr. Du Bose has written ought to have been better. In the matter of contents, it is worthy of a place alongside of Dr. Legge's 'Three Religions of China,' for, while the scholarly translator of Confucius gives a view of the three systems from the professor's study, the missionary of Soo-chow shows what these religions are in the daily practice of the people. The student of Christianity does well to see the faith as the Copt, Abyssinian, Greek, Roman, and even the theologians of Peoria or Tübingen, as well Canon Farrar as Gen. Booth, hold it. So it is good, after perusing the savant's monographs read before learned circles, to read the missionary's accounts given from an every-day point of view. Mr. Du Bose, a missionary of fourteen years' experience at Soo-chow, has studied the graphic and artistic symbols at first-hand, and the documents mostly at second-hand. Leaving the genesis and development of the Chinese faiths to be treated by others, he has done a most desirable piece of work in giving us, besides his text, accurate, though rudely drawn and engraved, pictures of objects worshipped. These illustrations number nearly two hundred. He has thus furnished a serviceable handbook of easily recognized divinities in the Chinese pantheon. Lawyers and magistrates on the Pacific Coast and elsewhere, who remember Gibbons's dictum as to the religions of Rome, might easily make this book of Mr. Du Bose's really serviceable.

In literary form, the book is disappointing; and the writer might easily have made it more acceptable if he had followed the best traditions of the craft of book-makers. To say in the preface that "many of the best thoughts in this volume are obtained from the writings of Edkins, Eitel, Legge, and Beal, . . . and other sources," and then to give in the body of the work only quotation-marks, with no reference to author, book, or page, is exasperating. In this the author injures himself, for often the quotation, with context of his own, casts real light upon points left obscure by others. Further, instead of weaving his matter into continuous summaries, his thirty chapters are comminuted into paragraphs with headings in heavy type, like the items of an old-fashioned country newspaper. The author's point of view is, of course, that of an evangelical missionary bent on helping to destroy paganism. He makes much of the Nestorian influence in China, and thinks that some direct modifications of the Buddhist cult are directly traceable to this form of Christianity. For instance, he says (p. 298) that the idea of Amita [Amida] Buddha, and the Western Heaven ["Reformed Buddhism" of Japan] "was borrowed from the Nestorians, whom the Buddhists likely met in Central Asia." In other ways, he perhaps strains the Nestorian theory, and cracks the nuts of nice scholarship too easily. Yet it is certain that this whole subject has as yet not been properly examined. The problem of "Reformed" Buddhism, which has thus far defied the attempts of Max Müller and other Orientalists to solve it, is full of mystery and interest. The Kioto theologians of the Shin-shiu sect shift the sources of the revelation to inaccessible Thibet, and talk of manuscripts and books never as yet seen in Europe. Whether this be the makeshift of ignorance or cunning, or the weakness of ecclesiastics called to face facts that are undermining their system, remains to be seen. Very interesting are the resemblances between Buddhism and the Roman form of Christianity which the author details on page 29. The book abounds with terse statements and epigrammatical generalizations. The author clings to the old view of the traditional trustworthiness of Chinese chronology, giving Confucianism a life of four thousand years, despite the fact that the researches of Mayer and La Couperie show the contrary.

The Mexican Guide. By Thomas A. Janvier. New edition. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1887. Pp. 523.

THIS is a great improvement on the 'Guide' of 1886. Much of the material of the first edition has been thoroughly recast and brought up to date, while additions of over 200 pages have been made. The principal new matter is a chapter on Language and Literature; one giving an Historical Summary; and a much-needed part, 150 pages long, on Provincial Mexico. The revision and enlargement thus effected enable us to give an even more unqualified commendation of the work than that expressed in our review of the former edition. Plan and execution are alike highly successful.

The announcement that the 'Guide' is to be an annual publication, invites criticism on a few details which ought to receive attention in the next issue. Passing over several misprints and occasional infelicitous translations—"the religious," for example, better Spanish than English—we would suggest to Mr. Janvier the need of fuller and better historical authorities than the Mexican "school histories" upon which he relies. We do not mean that his summary of Mexican history is inaccurate, to any extent, but simply that he falls into some errors almost inevitable in a condensation of a condensation. Thus, he repeats the curiously inveterate misstatement that Cortes "burned" his ships (p. 44), wrongly says that the real Remedios image was once in the great *teocalli* of Tenochtitlan (p. 448), and implies that Cortes had no priests with him until after the fall of the capital city, overlooking Juan Diaz and Father Olmedo, not to mention Aguilar, the deacon (p. 20). The statement is made too unguardedly (p. 46) that the first press was established and the first American book printed in 1535, by Juan Pablos. It is true that trustworthy writers assert that the 'Escala Espiritual' was published in the year mentioned, but it should have been added, we think, that no fragment of it is known to have survived, and that it is extremely doubtful if Pablos could have published it, since his date is usually given 1548–60. Prior to him was Juan Cromberger, 1540-54, and from the latter's press came the first American book any part of which is certainly in existence—the 'Manual de Adultos,' two leaves of which are still preserved. Clavigero, Veytia, and Gama should have been placed, of course, in the eighteenth, not the seventeenth century (p. 36). On p. 75, for 1864 read 1861. In the account of Protestant missions (p. 31), no mention is made of the work of the Congregationalists or of the Southern Methodists. Mr. Janvier is more sanguine than the Mexicans themselves as to the decreased extent of illiteracy. He thinks that "probably the majority" (p. 32) can now read and write, but a careful estimate made in 1885 (careful for Mexico, that is—we sympathize with Mr. Janvier's despair at Mexican statistics) placed the total at 2,500,000, or less than one-third. "The Standing Committee of Congress" (p. 18) is perhaps an adequate translation of "Comision Permanente," but it conveys a very inadequate idea of the nature and functions of that body. The ground should have been more clearly stated upon which Gen. Díaz, in the Plan of Tuxtepec, "denied the rights of the existing Government" (p. 74)—the claim, that is, that reëlection was unconstitutional. When Mr. Janvier wrote it, it was true that the "pleasing pastime of bull-fighting is prohibited within the Federal District," but it is so no longer, unfortunately. Perhaps by the time this is printed, the first "funcion" will have been given in the new Plaza de Toros in the capital, the last Congress having repealed the prohibitory law.

With the improvement to be expected in such minor matters as we have enumerated, and with a fuller treatment of provincial Mexico, still a desideratum, it may reasonably be anticipated that the forthcoming editions of this 'Guide' will make all other writings of the kind superfluous.

The Story of the Saracens, from the Earliest Times to the Fall of Bagdad. ["The Story of the Nations" series.] By Arthur Gilman, M.A. With maps, many illustrations, a chronological table, and a list of books treating the subject. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1887.

MR. GILMAN'S 'Story' is a decided improvement upon most of the preceding volumes in the collection to which it belongs. It is of all, perhaps, the best embodiment of the plan expressed by the leading word in all the titles, and at the same time, by its fulness and measured diction, the nearest approach to a real history. Boys will read it with pleasure, and readers well posted in the wide domains of the past will find in it—thanks to the author's use of the latest and best authorities on the subject—much that is new and fresh. The book would be more valuable had more attention been bestowed upon geographical and ethnic conditions and intellectual and social developments, and less space given to personal actions and chiefly warlike exploits—often of little importance and great sameness; but, even as it is, the traits of the Saracenic people and rulers have been vividly and characteristically brought out in their various shades and alternations of native fierceness and heroic and religious exaltation, and the Oriental background has been kept in relief. Free from Christian prejudice in dealing with the Prophet of Allah and the fanatics who carried his evangel, at the point of the lance, from Medina to Poitiers and from Medina to Samarcand, the author is just as little inclined to spread a halo of romantic greatness over characters and scenes in which the sublime so nearly bordered on the barbarous.

Careless proof-reading—a general and grievous defect of the series—is responsible for a large number of misprints. We may instance "*sharq*," for *sharq*, in the first paragraph of the preface; "to called" (p. 28); "to dispose Kalid" (p. 232); "Antioch, lying directly *east* from Aleppo" (p. 243); "632," for 622, as the year of the Hegira (p. 260); "Emessa" (p. 297); "Semiramus" (p. 356); a succession of blunders on page 340: "Vienna [e], . . . Maçon, Chalons," "the Verres [es] and the Catilines"; and many disfigured German titles in the bibliographical list, which is otherwise very valuable. The author's own haste—a necessary consequence, we suppose, of the rapidity with which the volumes of the series are brought out in succession—is responsible for some loose expressions and some slips. The word "Roman" is very often used instead of *Byzantine* in a way which must be incomprehensible or misleading to most readers; we even read of "the navy of Rome" (p. 278), when the Byzantine is meant. "In the year 660, forty years after the emigration of the Prophet from Mecca"—which took place in 622—is correct only according to the Moslem calendar, which has shorter years than ours, and with reference to the more precise dates of the occurrences (p. 284). "Southeast of Nineveh and Mosul" (p. 351) is not correct, Mosul being on the site of Nineveh. Nor is "Sus, the royal Shushan of ancient Median memories" (p. 256), "Median" standing for *Persian*. The worst slip is "Nineveh on the Euphrates" (p. 4).

The Struggle of the Bulgarians for National Independence under Prince Alexander. A Military and Political History of the War between Bulgaria and Servia in 1885. Translated from the German of Major A. von Huhn. London: Murray. 1886.

In a little more than three hundred pages, Major A. von Huhn has narrated what he describes as the "Military and Political History of the War between Bulgaria and Servia in 1885." That the book is readable throughout no one will deny; but a very unequal value attaches to the military and political parts of the narrative. The former is a record of occurrences which passed before the eyes of the writer, and can, therefore, be accepted as an authentic account, by a thoroughly competent eye-witness, of a struggle which the critical condition of Southeastern Europe invested with a European interest. The political narrative is simply an excessive glorification of Prince Alexander and all his doings, and is largely composed, as it seems to us, out of the gossip of political *quidnuncs*—an abundant species, we suppose, in Bulgaria, as in every other country.

Prince Alexander, unquestionably, showed himself to be a brave and able commander in the brief war against Servia, but it cannot be denied, also, that he failed conspicuously in the first duty of a Prince of Bulgaria at the present time. That duty was to maintain cordial relations with the Czar and the Government of Russia. There is little doubt that for Russia the wisest as well as most generous policy would have been to leave the Bulgarians to the unfettered enjoyment of the freedom which Russian soldiers had won for them. By so doing she would have grappled them to her by hooks of steel. But there are few governments which, in a choice of policies, make selection of the wisest and most generous; and, having regard to the gigantic sacrifices incurred by Russia in the cause of Bulgarian independence, it was only natural that she should be excessively jealous of the intrusion of other influences into the new principality. The Czar and his advisers were all the more jealous and suspicious because they knew that whatever could be done for the destruction of their influence, without actually provoking a breach of the peace, would be attempted by the Austro-Hungarian Government, and not in any way discouraged by the British Ministry and the British Houses of Parliament. It might well appear to Russian eyes that the question at stake was not whether Bulgaria should be free or Russianized, but whether the Russian should be ousted from the province in order to give place to the German and the Magyar. Prince Alexander, in proportion to his ability to rule as an independent sovereign, must have chafed under the sense of tutelage; but he ought to have recognized that it was the condition of his ruling at all. This he did not recognize, and the loss of his crown and the present critical condition of united Bulgaria are the consequences of his want of perception.

Maj. A. von Huhn will admit nothing of this. He attributes the distrust with which Prince Alexander inspired the Russian Government to the general depravity of the Russian character. He touches lightly, however, upon this part of his hero's Bulgarian career. It is as a ruler of the Bulgarian people that he makes him the subject of his glorification. According to the Major, the achievements of the Prince, in this character, are nothing short of miraculous. Not only has he, single-handed, civilized the Bulgarians, but—a miracle, we believe, without precedent in the history of mankind—he has, by the inspiring influence of his single personality, animated the entire people with a spirit of religious toleration. The great adversary with whom he has had to contend is, of course, the Russian "agent." We confess to a feeling of despair whenever, in a book purporting to be historical, we come across this Russian "agent." The ubiquitousness of this agency is only to be paralleled by its complete inefficiency. According to Maj. A. von Huhn, Russian "agents" had been freely sprinkled over Eastern Rumelia ever since the close of the Russo-Turkish war. Yet these gentry had no idea that the design to unite the two Bulgarias was hatching until it had taken shape and action. In Bulgaria the Russian "agent" appears to have devoted his sagacious mind to the invention and circulation of scandalous gossip about Prince Alexander, with the view, we presume, of rousing the austere morality of the Bulgarian people into revolt.

The real cause of the animosity of the Russian Government against the Prince is not to be found in the silly proceedings of these intangible agents, but in a very simple and sufficient reason. Three days before the revolution broke out in Philippopolis which deposed the Turkish Governor, the Prince, in a personal interview, had assured M. de Giers that he did not believe a movement for the unification of the two provinces was likely to break out within a measurable space of time, and that, in any case, he personally would undertake nothing in that direction. When, close upon the heels of this declaration, the movement occurred, and the Prince, without a moment's hesitation, placed himself at the head of it, the Czar naturally felt that he had been deceived and insulted. Maj. A. von Huhn declares that the Prince was himself as deceived and unprepared as the Czar; and this may possibly be so. But it is hard to believe this, and if hard for an indifferent outsider, it is not strange that it was altogether incredible to the Czar.

The main facts of the war between Servia and Bulgaria are well known. The greatest danger to Bulgaria was occasioned by the fact that when the Servian army crossed the frontier, three parts of the Bulgarian troops were far away from the scene, being collected on the road to Adrianople to oppose a Turkish advance on Philippopolis. This danger was enormously increased by the order of the Czar recalling the Russian officers who were serving with the Bulgarian troops. There did not remain in consequence a single officer with Prince Alexander above the rank of captain, or one who had seen more than eight years' service. But the enthusiasm of all classes wrought marvels. The troops were transferred from the Rumelian frontier to that of Bulgaria with astonishing speed, considering the almost total lack of proper machinery for effecting the transfer. The young captains, promoted to the command of brigades and divisions, developed unexpected talents for command. The Servians, when they thought that Sophia, the Bulgarian capital, was already in their possession, were repulsed with heavy loss, after two days' severe fighting at Slivnitza. The Bulgarians then assumed the offensive. The Servians were driven back, in a demoralized condition, across the frontier. They endeavored to make a stand in the town of Pirot. But by this time the fight had been pretty well knocked out of them, and the Bulgarians had little difficulty in occupying the town. The Servian kingdom now lay open to the victors. The Servian army was mutinous, and would have disbanded itself if at all hard pressed. At this supreme moment, however, Austria stepped in, and saved its wretched tool, King Milan, from the fate to which it had exposed him. Under a threat of war, the Austrian envoy constrained Prince Alexander to stay his advance. An armistice was arranged, which was followed by a peace.

All this is told by Maj. A. von Huhn in a very lively and interesting manner. Interesting, too, for military readers, are his remarks on the causes of the Bulgarian victories. The Servian troops were, he says, a militia embodied for the purpose of the invasion, while the greater part of the Bulgarian army consisted of regiments which (as Maj. A. von Huhn sorrowfully acknowledges) had been admirably trained and disciplined by their Russian instructors. They fought, in consequence, with a unity and tenacity that did not exist among their opponents. Then the young Bulgarian officers exhibited a dash and readiness of resource, an aptitude for military command, which were really amazing. A general in command, as the Major points out, is liable to be over-cautious because he has a reputation to lose. If he wins a battle, it is no more than is expected of him; but if he loses, he loses also all that he has hitherto achieved. But a young captain suddenly placed in the position of a general has everything to gain, and risks nothing. If he fails, the worst that can be urged against him is that the experiences of a regimental officer do not suffice for the duties of a general; but if he wins, he mounts up, as it were, by a single step, into that most select class of "heaven-born generals." The main cause, however, of the Bulgarian victories was the patriotic spirit which animated the rank and file of the army.

Maj. A. von Huhn, who appears never to have heard of the Bulgarian massacres and other notorious incidents of Turkish rule, would have us believe that the Bulgarians had little to complain of at the hands of the Turkish Pashas and their underlings. But the zeal for their national existence displayed equally by Moslems and Christians, the sacrifices made by all classes of the population, belie his fanciful picture of Turkish rule. It was a war in which every Bulgarian soldier felt that he had a direct personal interest. They fought not only for freedom, but to compel an indifferent and unbelieving Europe to acknowledge that here was a people which had fairly won its right to be free. The Servians, on the other hand, were without any such animating influences, and appear to have been most inefficiently commanded as well. The handling of their artillery was particularly bad. There is a superstition in the Servian army that a special disgrace attaches to the loss of artillery; the consequence of which was that the Servians used them only at long ranges, and left their infantry unsupported by artillery fire just when these stood most in need of it. Only upon one occasion, in the succession of encounters between Slivnitza and Pirot, was a Servian battery handled with courage and thorough effectiveness, and Maj. A. von Huhn records, with pardonable pride, that this was commanded by a Prussian officer. He had been trained in a school not favorable to the growth of idle superstitions.

Goethe's Faust. A Commentary upon the Literary Bibles of the Occident. By Denton J. Snider. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 1886. 2 vols.

In one of the interesting essays of the late Wilhelm Scherer are to be found some amusing comments upon the fact that in these days every man has his own Goethe. "I know a Goethe," says Scherer, "who, when he wrote the lines,

> 'Warte nur, balde
> Ruhest du auch,'

was thinking something like this: 'How tired I am with climbing the Kickelhahn; but at any rate the wind, which is usually so disagreeable here, is quiet, and, God be praised, I shall soon be in bed.'" Mr. Snider's Goethe is not of this sort, but of its polar opposite. He is a poet who wrote the First Part of "Faust" in accordance

with the following "structural outline," which we quote literally from vol. i, pp. 105-106:

"I. The internal movement, which shows the struggle in Faust between Intelligence, which denies Truth, and Aspiration which affirms Truth. This is theoretical denial out of which Mephisto is generated. From the 'First Soliloquy' to 'Auerbach's Cellar.'

"II. The external movement, which shows Faust's struggle with the Perverted World, into which he is conducted by Mephisto. This is practical denial, realized not only in the action of a man, but in an institution, a world. From 'Auerbach's Cellar' to the scene called 'Gloomy Day.'

"III. The struggle in which Faust subordinates Mephisto and compels him to aid in rescuing Margaret, who, however, refuses the external rescue, but obtains forgiveness, the inner reconciliation. To the end."

Number II. of this scheme is mapped out in the table of contents thus:

"I. Auerbach's Cellar, or the Perverted Tavern.
II. The Domestic Perversion.
(1.) The Witch's Kitchen, or the Perverted Family.
(2.) The Story of Margaret, or the True Family Perverted.
III. The Social Perversion.
(1.) Walpurgis Night, or Perverted Society.
(2.) Walpurgis Night's Dream — Literary Brocken."

Mr. Snider has evidently anticipated difficulty in getting his views promptly accepted by the world. Here and there he takes his readers into his confidence, and warns them to put no faith in what the silly critics may say of him. Thus, alluding to his propensity for schematization, he says, p. 105:

"The lofty critic, we know, is on his perch, and is ready to pounce down upon these harmless diagrams, declaring that they are evolved from the writer's inner consciousness and not from the poem; for has not he, the intellectual giant and infallible critical pope, read the poem himself and found no such thing there? So he will say, because he is always saying so, having little else to say in any matter but No. Reader, do not regard him, I beg thee, he is a denier, really his brain leaves off where this *Faust* begins, and has never entered it, cannot enter it, in his present unregenerate condition. Test the scheme by the fact; if it is wrong, make another and better; but beware of any one who puts a zero into thy soul, lest he end by putting thy soul into a zero."

It can do no harm to admit that the raptorial instinct did begin to stir within us faintly at sight of such a prey, and if it were a simple question of putting a zero into some one's soul, we might make the pounce even now and jump the consequences. But the bare thought of incurring the awful responsibility of putting some one's soul into a zero is surely enough to make one shrink back in dismay and consternation. We keep our perch.

In other words, we pass in voiceless wonder from the outline to see what the filling-in may be. Concerning the familiar opening monologue of "Faust," this commentator discourses thus, page 145:

"Herewith, too, is derived the present form of the poem: it springs from the innermost nature and essence of the theme. The form is that of a soliloquy, of one man talking to himself and unfolding in himself. Still it is a drama, though it be a drama of the soul holding its dialogue and acting its parts all within itself. To Faust, another man with whom he might talk, can have no veritable reality, if there be, as he thinks, no veritable reality; indeed, the entire world outside of him is a high-walled, smoothed-stoned fortress, which no knowledge can scale For the present, therefore, he has only himself to talk with, hence the monologue. But out of himself he will generate certain shapes with which he may hold converse hereafter," etc., etc.

Here we must call a halt. When a man deliberately puts it down in black and white that a dramatic poem begins with a soliloquy because, in virtue of philosophic necessity, there is no one for the speaker to talk with, and because any other characters have first to be "generated" from the mind of the soliloquist, we cannot undertake to follow his lucubrations further. It is not that we are of a savage and exacting temperament. Notwithstanding Mr. Snider's poor opinion of the whole critic tribe, the writer of these lines is a person of suave and teachable disposition, with whom it is a veritable bobby to keep his mind open to the light from all quarters. He would be the last one in the world to make excessive demands upon the writer of books. But really it seems reasonable to draw the line between sense and nonsense.

We would not, however, seem too peremptory in this matter. There is much that is good in Mr. Snider's work, but we hold that its method is radically vicious. And this opinion springs from no shallow contempt for philosophy, from no lack of an organ for philosophic thought. Beyond doubt philosophy has much to say in the interpretation of "Faust," and there is much to be learned from the philosophic commentator. But there is little indeed to be learned from one who deals largely in abstractions such as found no lodgment in the mind of Goethe. This is what Mr. Snider does. To be sure, he denounces others, his predecessors, for doing the same thing, but that is ultimately because their interpretation differed greatly from his. What we say is, that if the araneous method of spinning cobwebs from one's own interior is to be adopted at all, it is a comparatively unimportant matter what particular sort of web is spun. This method we call wrong, and we call it so not simply out of prejudice for another method, but because it has been tried and found wanting. For thirty or forty years after the death of Goethe, the expounders of "Faust" nearly all went at their work in the manner of Mr. Snider. They had the field to themselves, and what they made of the poem is well known. They made of it either a Serbonian bog, or a nightmare, or a joke, according to the temper of the person who tried to read it in the light of their explanation. But now a better era has arrived. Of late the drama has been extensively studied and expounded in accordance with the principles of common sense and sound philology. The result is, that we now see the beginning of a better *entente* between the modern intellectual world and the great poem of its great poet. Multitudes of people have learned to read "Faust" and enjoy it. But if the poem were what Mr. Snider makes it out to be, the great majority of these people would turn from it with aversion. It would appeal to no one, except, perhaps, the small class of austere philosophers to which he himself belongs. If it were necessary, for example, to read the story of *Margaret* as he reads it, to put his construction upon it and to think about it as he does, the story would become to nearly all those who now read it with delight an insufferable bore, from which a tale of Zola would be a welcome relief. For they would say, Here at least is life.

We are, therefore, compelled to do substantially what the author has himself more than once surmised that all the blear-eyed, shallow-pated critics would do—namely, warn the public that the volumes before us are an exposition, not of Goethe's "Faust," but of Denton J. Snider's. As an exemplification of the araneous process, they are good—the best, perhaps, in the market. If, therefore, one admires that process; if he enjoys having a discursive philosopher between himself and his author; if he is fond of tossing on a sea of abstractions, and takes delight in a never-ending chase after world-embracing symbolisms; if he wants a guide who will always try to persuade him that every hole in the ground leads down to the roots of Ygdrasil; if, moreover, he enjoys a literary style which is surcharged with the worst mannerisms of Carlyle; if his soul is awed by capital initials, and his taste revels in grandiose rhetoric apropos of little or nothing; if he finds pleasure in sustained and highly wrought apostrophes, in astonishing figures and forms of expression, and in transcendental jerkiness generally; if, in short, a person likes that sort of thing, Mr. Snider's commentary will be just about the sort of thing he will like.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allaire, Etienne. La Bruyère dans la maison de Condé. Études biographiques et historiques sur la fin du XVIIe siècle. 8vo. T. I and ii. Boston: Schoenhof.
Bernard, J. Retrospections of America. 1797-1811. Edited from the MS By Mrs. Bayle Bernard. With an introduction, Notes, and Index by Laurence Hutton and Brander Mathews. Illustrated. Harper & Brothers.
Bowne, Prof. B. P. Introduction to Psychological Theory. Harper & Brothers.
Carey, Rosa Nouchette. Uncle Max. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 50 cents.
Chapman, Elizabeth Rachel. A Comtist Lover, and Other Studies. Scribner & Welford.
Delzant, Alidor. Paul de Saint-Victor. Boston: Schoenhof.
Heine, H. Travel-Pictures; including the Tour in the Harz, Norderney, and Book of Ideas, together with the Romantic School. Scribner & Welford.
Kingsley, C. Yeast: A Problem. Harper's Handy Series, 25 cents.
Meriwether, L. A Tramp Trip How to See Europe on Fifty Cents a Day. Harper & Brothers.
O'Connor—McWade. Gladstone, Parnell, and the Great Irish Struggle. General Introduction by Charles Stewart Parnell, M. P. Illustrated. Philadelphia: Hubbard Brothers.
Ohnet, Georges. Noir et Rose. New York: Christern.
Ohnet, G. Edmée. Les Dames de Croix Mort. Frederick Warne & Co. 25 cents.
Oliver—Walt—Jones, Profs. A Treatise on Algebra. Ithaca: Dudley F. Finch.
O'Reilly, Dr. B. Novissima; or, Where Do Our Departed Go? The Baltimore Publishing Co.
Pougin, A. Verdi: an Anecdotic History of his Works. Scribner & Welford.
Rees, J. R. The Diversions of a Book-Worm. George J. Coombes $1.25.
Roosevelt, T. Life of Thomas H. Benton. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Scott, Sir W. The Lay of the Last Minstrel. Edited with Notes by W. J. Rolfe. Illustrated. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 75 cents.
Scott, Sir W. The Waverley Novels. Vols. i.-vi. Philadelphia. J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.75 per volume.
Scrivener, F. H. A. Novum Testamentum Textus Stephanici, A. D. 1550. London: Geo. Bell & Sons.
Sons and Daughters. By the Author of 'The Story of Margaret Kent.' Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.50
Spear, J. W. Out of the Gulf. Philips & Hunt. $1.25.
Stack, E. L. Grammar and Language. An Attempt at the Introduction of Logic into Grammar. Boston: W. B. Clarke & Carruth. $2.50.
Tennyson, Lord A. Locksley Hall, Sixty Years After, etc. Harper's Handy Series. 25 cents.
Thackeray, W. M. The Virginians. Handy Edition. 2 vols. London: Smith, Elder & Co.
The Campaign of Fredericksburg. November-December, 1862. A Study for Officers of Volunteers. By a Line Officer. Scribner & Welford.
Thomas, Miss Bertha. Elizabeth's Fortune: A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Thseau, L. de. Hélène. Frederick Warne & Co. 25 cents.
Towle, G. M. The Nation in a Nutshell; a Rapid outline of American History. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.
Towle, G. M. Young People's History of Ireland. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Vaschalde, Henry. Olivier de Serres, sa vie et ses travaux. 8vo Boston: Schoenhof.
Von Ranke, L. History of the Latin and Teutonic Nations, from 1494 to 1514. Scribner & Welford.
Von Reber, Dr. F. History of Mediæval Art. Translated by Joseph Thacher Clarke. Illustrated. Harper & Brothers.
Warfield, Prof. B. B. An Introduction to the Textual Criticism of the New Testament. London: Hodder & Stoughton.

Fine Arts.

THE WATER-COLOR EXHIBITION.

THE twentieth annual exhibition of the American Water-Color Society at the Academy of Design comprises 656 pictures. This is a smaller number than was hung last year, but the present exhibition shows a better average quality than its immediate predecessors. While the average is good and there are fewer offensively bad pictures than have been seen in former years, it is noticeable that this exhibition is unmarked by any single conspicuously fine work; in short, there is no "sensation picture," or what the French call, in their expressive art parlance, a "*clou*." Mr. Abbey, to whom we have been accustomed to look for such a work, is absent, and Mr. Winslow Homer, who has at other times overtopped his contemporaries at these exhibitions, this year only sends some unimportant and not particularly attractive sketches in Florida. Mr. J. Alden Weir's picture, "Consolation," No. 335, is hung in the place of honor of the exhibition, that is, in the middle of the south wall of the south gallery. It is in many respects an ex-

cellent work. Its greatest merits are an agreeable general tone and a good quality of atmosphere; its great defects are insufficient drawing of the figures and a somewhat eccentric perspective. As it is, it is one of the best things in the exhibition, but it does not rise far enough above the other pictures to be a real *clou*.

"Russian Tea," No. 384, by Miss Kathleen H. Greatorex, hung at one end of the same gallery, is an important work. It shows a thorough knowledge of the medium, and, being a composition of still life, it possesses one quality that every still life should have, to claim a reason for being—beauty of color. That it is insubstantial and flimsy, that the brass urn and kettle, the china cups, and the bouquet of flowers should all be of the same texture, is unfortunate, for, had more care been taken in painting to give to each of these objects a distinctive texture, the picture would have gained a great deal. It is quite a large picture, painted in pure water color, and has the distinction of having been awarded an honorable mention at the Salon of 1886. At the other end of the south gallery is hung a picture by T. de Thulstrup, "Horse Artillery Going into Action," No. 299. The composition is striking and the figures are drawn with a certain dash and spirit, but it lacks the quality of color. Truth of color in detail is sacrificed to a general scheme of dusty reddish brown, and to such an extent that the picture is almost a monochrome. It is, however, cleverly done, and far more successful as a picture of horses and soldiers than we are wont to see from the hands of American artists. Mr. de Thulstrup's facility as an illustrator stands him in good stead in undertaking such a subject as this one, for he is accustomed to look out for general effect. We are apt to find in his pictures a completeness that is lacking in pictures made by more timid hands. "A January Thaw," No. 336, by F. Hopkinson Smith, a large picture of Madison Square looking south, remarkable for a general aspect of outdoors and the realization of an effect of New York atmosphere on a muggy day in winter; "A Tramp," No. 418, by Hamilton Hamilton, a bright effect of sunshine in a door-yard with figures; "The Scarlet Letter," No. 396, by Rhoda Holmes Nicholls, much more successful in the treatment of the landscape than in the figures of Hester Prynne and the villagers in the street of the old town where the scene is laid; and "They're Coming," No. 352, by James Symington, an interior with two figures of young women at work spinning wool, are other pictures hung in prominent places in the south gallery. We find here also a large study by Meissonier, No. 443, lent by Mr. John Jacob Astor, a single figure of a soldier of the time of Henri II., no more remarkable than what might be done by any first-rate figure painter. Though rather brutally handled, it is a good, vigorous drawing, and the pose of the soldier sturdily planted is spirited. "A Portrait," No. 431, good in character and attractive by its unaffected boyishness and good-humored expression, is by J. Alden Weir; and No. 456, "The First Snow," is an interior possessing some of the fine qualities of color of the "Consolation," but careless in drawing and hard in texture, by the same artist. "A Sea Witch," No. 329, is a handsome piece of color by George W. Maynard. It is thoroughly artistic, and impresses at once as being something quite out of the common. The half-submerged figure of the Sea Witch is a little confused in drawing, but its exceptional qualities of color make this work of Mr. Maynard's one of the most interesting pictures of the exhibition.

Seven water colors by Robert Blum are scattered about the exhibition. They are all quite small and are sketchy bits of Dutch scenes. There is not much of them, but what there is is of an excellent sort. "Costume Study," No. 199, is a small figure of a Dutch woman in white cap and apron, charmingly drawn and delightful in sentiment. Of Mr. Blum's other pictures, "On the Dunes," No. 198, and "House Duties," No. 454, may be picked out for particular mention. W. H. Lippincott, always a prominent contributor to the water-color exhibitions, and one of those who best know how to manage the fickle medium, is well represented this year. "The Approaching Storm, Crécy-en-Brie," No. 363, shows him at his best in landscape, and "The Last Rose," No. 27, although somewhat artificial, is a cleverly painted head. "Gentlemen of the XVIIIth Century," No. 271, by Léon Moran, a brilliantly handled little study; "The Country Boarder," No. 248, by F. Childe Hassam, a quietly painted light interior with a single figure; "Julius Cæsar and his Grandmother," No. 98, a negro character sketch by Alfred Kappes; "The Fortune Teller," No. 593, by Francis Miller, an unequal work, good in drawing, but crude in color; "The Favorite Print," No. 51, a delicate bit of painting by F. C. Jones; "The Student," No. 57, an ambitious work by Wm. Magrath, possessing good qualities of color and some excellent painting in the accessories, but rather weak in the drawing of the figures; "The Letter," No. 21, a dainty little composition by Percy Moran, and the half dozen pictures by Irving R. Wiles, including "Study in Sunlight," No. 187, and "Head," No. 372, are among other notable contributions from figure painters.

The landscapes in the exhibition are, as usual, numerous and of varying degrees of excellence. It is a great temptation to the tyro in water-color painting to sketch a landscape, it seems so easy. There are fewer of the meaningless daubs resulting from such attempts than in former exhibitions, and there are happily each succeeding year fewer artists and critics ready to find imaginary beauties in them. Of serious landscape work, we find some here that is really excellent. In "Moncour," No. 293, by Emil Carlsen, a picturesque French motive is admirably treated. It is fresh and true in color. D. W. Tryon, who usually sends four or five pictures, has but one this year, "Morning," No. 322, a strong realistic effect broadly washed in over a grayish-paper ground. Two pictures, suggestions rather than pictures, with a charm of their own, are by A. H. Wyant, "Pat Rooney's Farm," No. 106, and "Forenoon in Kerry," No. 278. Several crisply-handled winter scenes, such as "A Winter Piece," No. 426, and cleanly painted bits of field and sky, such as "Long Island Study," No. 298, by Bruce Crane; such pretty color schemes as the landscapes by Charles M. Dewey, "Dark Days," No. 59, and "The Autumn Light," No. 412, or those by J. Francis Murphy, "November Gray," No. 58, and "On the Lowlands," No. 388; such bright colored studies as R. W. Van Boskerck's "White Birches, Saddle River," No. 29, or "On the Edge of the Pond," No. 234; such cool and refreshing forest scenes as "Woodland Path," No. 406, by R. M. Shurtleff; such richly toned impressions as "A Harvest Moonrise," No. 83, by F. Childe Hassam, go to make up a very creditable showing in landscape.

Horatio Walker shows two good animal pictures, "Landscape and Calves," No. 34, and a flock of sheep in "Evening," No. 70. "Dutch Farmyard," by Ter Meulen, No. 377, is a fine piece of subdued color, showing a shepherd with his flock and his sheep dog at the doorway of a fold. J. A. S. Monks is represented by half-a-dozen of his characteristic studies of sheep. "Late Afternoon, Winter," No. 16, and "Repose," No. 219, perhaps best exemplify him. When we add that Henry Farrer, F. W. Freer, Edward Moran, C. Harry Eaton, Charles Warren Eaton, Matilda Brown, W. V. Birney, W. H. Drake, Perceval De Luce, Frances Richards, C. C. Curran, Rosina Emmet, W. H. Gibson, F. S. Church, Alice Hirschberg, John La Farge, H. Bolton Jones, J. C. Nicoll, F. D. Millet, Homer Martin, George H. McCord, H. W. Ranger, Henry Muhrman, F. K. M. Rehn, R. F. Zogbaum, W. J. Whittemore, C. Y. Turner, George H. Smillie, and James D. Smillie, whose work is familiar to regular visitors to the water-color exhibitions, are represented here by from one to as many as ten examples each—a fair idea of the character of the exhibition may be obtained.

It is plain that there has been a good deal of weeding out this year, since but half the works sent in to the jury for examination were hung; and while no doubt some good pictures have had the misfortune to be left out, the exhibition has gained greatly in that it presents a much more complete and good all-around appearance than heretofore. This is progress. Still, more progress may be made, and of a kind, too, that will tell immensely on the character of the exhibitions, if the artists will take more pains to find subjects peculiarly fitted for illustrations in the medium of water-color. Without being hypercritical, it may be said that the greater part of the pictures in the present exhibition might better have been painted in oil; there is so little of the true water-color quality about them. Mr. Blum's "Costume Study," or Mr. Percy Moran's "Gentlemen of the Eighteenth Century," or some of Mr. W. H. Drake's landscape motives, or Miss Greatorex's "Russian Tea," are good examples of fit subjects aptly treated in the main; and more of the sort of work shown in them, if it were to be found generally throughout the galleries, would give a distinctive character to the exhibitions which they do not at present possess in a sufficient degree.

THE ETCHING CLUB EXHIBITION.

THE New York Etching Club holds its regular exhibition this year as usual in connection with the Water Color Society, and the west gallery is entirely given up to the exhibition of etchings. There are 234 numbers in all. Such an exhibition of etchings by American artists as this one is would have been impossible a few years ago. There is great progress shown, and some half-dozen etchers have produced plates this year which would hold their own in any company. That there is still a considerable quantity of the old-fashioned trash that passed for etching in New York years ago is undeniable, but there is such a large amount of really meritorious work here to overbalance it that its effect on the general character of the exhibition is insignificant.

As a fair example of the genuine progress which has been made by our etchers, the collection of reproductive etchings made from pictures in the A. T. Stewart collection, and intended for the catalogue of that exhibition about to be published, may be cited. The plates are all small, but some of them are of great merit. "Cattle" (after Troyon), No. 11, by Wm. M. Chase, admirably suggests the rich quality of the original painting, while as an etching *per se* it is bold and sure in execution. "A Misty Morning" (after Michetti), No. 76, by Hamilton Hamilton, is singularly charming from its purity of tone and the delicate gradations in its subtle values. "The Month of May" (after Daubigny), No 136, by Thomas Moran, and "Landscape and Cattle" (after Troyon), No. 67, by R. Swain Gifford, remarkable for the fidelity with which the respective painters' styles are preserved in the reproduction, and the skill with which the effect is obtained; "Reminiscence of the Franco-Prussian War" (after Meissonier), No 165, by F. Raubicheck; "La Marquise" (after Madra-

20), No. 78, by W. St. John Harper; "After the Ball" (after Alfred Stevens), No. 93, by J. S. King; and two little bits of "Objects of Art," Nos. 210 and 211, by Sidney L. Smith, all of the best sort of modern work, are among the other things in this Stewart collection that are so well done as to call for special praise. It must be remembered that reproductive work permits of less liberty of treatment than is possible in an original etching. It is a question of faithfully copying an original and at the same time attempting to render, in a form of art presenting many trying technical difficulties, the spirit of this original, which in the case of oil painting has been done in a medium capable of much more than can be obtained with the simple line and tone of etching. That the reproductive etchings just mentioned are so successful is a gratifying proof that some of our etchers have reached a high degree of technical excellence. In the same field we find a large etching by Hamilton Hamilton. "The Communicants" (after Jules Breton), No. 75. Mr. Hamilton occupies a well-earned place in the front rank of American etchers. He has done nothing better than this plate. He is not afraid to use frank, vigorous lines, there is no trace of tricks in printing, and his work is an exceptional example of completeness among the large etchings in the exhibition. Mr. Hamilton also exhibits a large etching, "The Hanging of the Crane" (after F. C. Jones), No. 72, which, though it is marked by a fine breadth of effect and well-understood management of large masses of light and shadow, is a coarser kind of work, and does not show in any part of it such delicacy as we find in the treatment of the children's white robes, for instance, in "The Communicants."

"When the Harbor Bar is Moaning," No. 85, by Thomas Hovenden, a large etching showing a fisherman's hut and two figures of women at the doorway, is the same composition as his picture exhibited at an Academy exhibition a year or two ago. It is an important figure work, serious in conception and strong in execution. It is preeminent in work of its class in the exhibition. "Boy with Kettle" (after Murillo), No. 220, and "Portrait of a Man" (after Rembrandt), No. 221, by C. Y. Turner, are of the best figure work here. "The Portrait" is especially successful, and is etched with great vigor and sureness.

"The Fog Whistle," No. 16, and "The Narrows," No. 17, by Reginald Cleveland Coxe, are two original etchings that call for special notice. Mr Coxe has been known in New York for three or four years as a painter of marine subjects, whose pictures, while sometimes impressive for an evident truth of observation, often showed such a hesitating and insufficient execution as to prevent their sincerity of intention being taken for all it was worth. This was notably so in the case of a picture exhibited three years ago by Mr. Coxe, called "Hells Rock," which provoked generally the most adverse criticism, while a few held that if not in itself a completely successful work, it was at least a very original one, and that the artist's future work would prove his quality. Whether Mr. Coxe can be said to have since fulfilled the expectations of his supporters in his pictures in oil or not, he has made his début as an etcher with two of the most interesting things in the present exhibition. "The Fog Whistle" shows a sloop yacht riding over the heavy ocean swell in a thick fog, the bowsprit rising high in the air as the stanch little craft is lifted by the rolling mass of water. The feeling of salt-water atmosphere and the dampness of the fog is exceedingly well rendered. "The Narrows," an ocean steamer slowly ploughing up the bay in the distance, and a small rowboat with two men in it in the foreground, is remarkable for the same quality of atmosphere. Both are deliciously suggestive of the sea. If these etchings do not show such a simplicity of technique as is to be found in what we consider standard work, the execution, though somewhat timid and uncertain, suffices to express the artist's idea. It is refreshing to find something out of the beaten track in art, and Mr. Coxe's etchings are well worth looking at because they are both novel and good.

"Shades of Night," No. 99, is one of a number of good landscapes contributed by W. L. Lathrop, and possesses a charming quality of atmosphere. The sky is simply done and is light and full of air. Charles A. Platt, one of the most productive of American etchers, and one whose works recommend themselves to lovers of the art on account of their genuine feeling for the picturesque and a simple and direct manner of putting down facts, exhibits a characteristic piece called "Goldsmith's Bridge," No. 158. Other new landscapes are "Canal in Holland" (after R. W. Van Boskerck), No. 203, by W. H. Shelton; "Tromsöe, Norway," No. 156, by T. C. Parrish; "Cannes—The Harbor," No. 149, by Stephen Parrish; "A Winter Morning," No. 141, by J. C. Nicoll; "An October Evening," No. 198, by H. Pruett Share; and some picturesque bits by Blanche Dillaye, "Hill and Sky," No. 20, "On the Maas," No. 23, and "A Corner in Dort," No. 21.

The Etching Club publishes a catalogue illustrated with eight etchings by Samuel Colman, F. W. Freer, R. Swain Gifford, W. St. John Harper, J. A. S. Monks, Thomas Moran, W. H. Shelton, and C. Y. Turner. It is neatly got up and is valuable as a record of the club's excellent work.

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 131

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS 134

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:
The Veto 136
The Duty of the Assembly Committee 136
The Pope's Interference in Germany 137

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:
The Late Lord Iddesleigh 138
Another View of the Daily Press in Italy 139
Dumas's "Francillon" 139

CORRESPONDENCE:
"Influential" 140
Ways and Means 142
A Question for Katheder Socialists 142
"American" Architecture 142
How to Collect a Library 142
The Soldier's Patriotism 142

NOTES 143

REVIEWS:
Dowden's Shelley 146
Recent Novels 147
Walker's Second Army Corps 149
The Mammalia in their Relation to Primeval Times 149
Cannibals and Convicts 150
Sketches from English History 151
The Two Spies 151

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 151

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The Nation.

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The Week.

THE reception of President Cleveland's pension veto by the Republican press is an interesting subject of study. The New York *Tribune*, as the chief Blaine organ in the country, attempted to turn the message off with a sneer, and sought to rally the "soldier vote" against a President who had done his duty at the risk of losing popularity. But the *Tribune* finds no response from the leading Republican newspapers of the country. "President Cleveland's reasons are sound and sufficient," says the Worcester (Mass.) *Spy*. "The country is to be congratulated on his act," says the Boston *Traveller*. "The Democratic President proved a more watchful agent of the people than either the Democratic Representatives or the Republican Senators," says the Buffalo *Express*. "He deserves credit, and it will be freely extended to him on every hand," says the Troy *Times*. "Many of the President's criticisms to the bill are well founded," says the Philadelphia *Press*. The bill "opened the door for vast abuses," and "the way these could come to pass is strongly stated by the President," says the Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette*. These are a few samples of the comments made upon this act of a Democratic President by thorough-going Republican newspapers in all parts of the country.

The House Committee on Pensions, which originally produced the bill, has reported back the veto message, with a recommendation that the bill pass, notwithstanding the President's objection. This is only human nature, for it would be extremely humiliating for the Committee to confess, "under fire" from the White House, that it advised Congress in the first instance to pass a bill which was utterly devoid of merit. But Representatives generally will not feel equally bound to stand their ground, and enough Democrats who supported the measure without knowing anything about it, will now vote the other way to leave little doubt that the veto will be sustained by Democratic votes, even without any Republican help. The Republican Congressmen generally appear disposed to assume an attitude of blind opposition to the veto, simply because the measure is one which was supported on its original passage by every Republican in each branch, and because the veto is the work of a Democratic President. But clear-sighted Republican newspapers see that it is going to look very badly for the Republican side of the House to sustain a measure which the Republican press of the country is substantially unanimous in condemning as without justification or excuse. The interesting spectacle is thus presented of Republican newspapers warning Republican Congressmen that they cannot afford to do anything else than sustain the veto by a Democratic President of a Republican measure. "Republicans who yield this loosely drawn and dangerous bill demagogic support will need much better reasons than they have yet made public to justify themselves before the people," says the Chicago *Tribune* in the West; while in the East the Providence *Journal* concludes a long appeal for Republican support of Mr. Cleveland with these words: "The fewer Republican votes that are cast in favor of passing the bill over the veto, the more correctly will the Republicans in Congress represent the real feelings of their party throughout the country. No desire to make political capital against the President should interfere with the manly amendment of a rash mistake."

The House of Representatives has passed the Trade-Dollar Bill, with an amendment providing that the recoinage of the trade dollars into standard silver dollars shall not count as part of the monthly coinage of silver now prescribed by law, but shall be in addition thereto. The Senate having passed the bill with an express proviso that the bullion resulting from the trade dollars should be reckoned as a part of the monthly coinage, there is reason to hope that the House amendment will not be agreed to. In case, however, the Senate should recede from its amendment, the President will have another opportunity for interposing a righteous veto against a most mischievous piece of legislation. And to this he would be committed much more strongly than he was to the disapproval of the Dependent Pension Bill. The Trade Dollar Bill, as it now stands, is a new Bland bill, just as distinct and vicious as the original measure. Any argument which can be advanced for the House amendment can be advanced for a new Bland bill. If it be said that the Government owes something to the holders of the trade dollars—a point which has never been clearly made out—it does not owe anything to the silver-mine owners, for whose sole benefit the House amendment stands.

The Belmont Retaliation Bill, agreed to by the sub-committee on Foreign Affairs, goes further in the way of interference with trade with Canada than the Senate bill; further, indeed, than the fishing fraternity desire or approve. The latter would be content, apparently, with entire exclusion of Canadian fish from our markets. A monopoly more or less complete of the fish trade is what they have been striving for. As no monopoly could be more complete than prohibition, they appear not to favor the drastic measure proposed by the House Committee, the operation of which would, whenever put in force, produce a vociferous outcry all along the border, from Passamaquoddy Bay to Puget Sound. The sudden stoppage of a traffic amounting to more than $70,000,000 per year in order to secure justice respecting a few codfish, would be like firing a columbiad gun to kill a mosquito. The recoil would be far more destructive than the discharge. Is it possible that we have so far forgotten the lessons of the *Alabama* claims that we cannot submit this little difficulty to arbitration? But, it is said, we were cheated out of our money by the Halifax award. If that is true, was not England cheated by the Geneva award? What has become of the overplus left from the $15,000,000 after paying the *Alabama* claims? Was this overplus greater or less than the $5,500,000 paid by us in consequence of the Halifax award? If it was greater, we paid the Halifax award with "British gold," and had something left over to assuage our feelings.

The appointment and confirmation by the Senate of Mr. W. R. Lewis as Consul to Tangier, and the consequent removal of Mr. Mathews, gives the State Department the opportunity to correct the abuses which under Mathews disgraced the American name. We have no trade to speak of with Morocco—not enough to furnish a separate item in our trade reports. Nor are there any Americans resident in that empire except invalids or tourists. Consequently there is no need for the "protections" which Consul Mathews furnished to some say 50, but others say 150, Levantine Jews, Greeks, and what not, so that they might get his assistance in enforcing claims against native Moors, through imprisonment and torture. Mathews had the amazing impudence to declare that as long as the claims were good it was no affair of ours in what manner the Moorish authorities enforced them—a monstrous doctrine, which Mr. Bayard, we are sure, would not sanction for a moment. We have no doubt Mr. Lewis will be instructed to cancel all these "protections," and to protect nobody but bona-fide American citizens, and to enforce no claims through the machinery of Moorish justice. There is no harm in giving notice to American traders that they may trust Moors if they please, but that they must not rely on the American Consul to get their debtors locked up in Moorish dungeons.

The report of the Secretary of State, recently transmitted to the Senate, contains a full statement of the claim of Antonio Pelletier against the Republic of Hayti. It will, perhaps, be remembered that this Pelletier, who, by the way, like others of whom we have lately spoken, declared himself a naturalized American citizen as soon as he saw that something could be gained by it, was arrested in 1861 on a charge of attempting to enslave Haytian citizens in Haytian waters, tried by the Haytian courts, convicted, and sentenced to five years' imprisonment. Mr. Seward, then Secretary of State, had his attention called to this trial, but, after a prolonged correspondence with our consular officers in Hayti concerning it, positively refused to interfere with the action of Hayti. But Pelletier escaped from imprisonment in 1864, and straightway began with great earnestness to bring his "claims" against Hayti. These were again and again either ignored or rejected by the Department of State and by Congressional committees. But at last a Mr. O'Connor, who was the Examiner of Claims in the Department, decided, after perusing a series

of ex-parte statements furnished by Pelletier, that there was ground for a call on Hayti for redress. Thereupon pressure was brought to bear which eventually wrung from Hayti a consent to an arbitration. Ex-Justice Strong of the Supreme Court was selected as arbitrator, and, after an examination of all the evidence, which was very voluminous, he decided that Pelletier was entitled to damages, which he placed at $57,250 for imprisonment and other injuries inflicted by Hayti as a punishment for attempted slave trading.

It is this decision which Mr. Bayard vigorously attacks in the report mentioned. He first reminds the Senate that the agreement for arbitration had never become a law of the land, because it had not been submitted to the Senate for sanction, and that the arbitrator had not, therefore, become vested with any distinctively judicial prerogatives. But, going further than this, he intimates that it would be the duty of the Executive "to refuse to enforce this award, which, notwithstanding the unimpeachable character of the arbitrator, turns out to have been inequitable or unconscionable." Mr. Bayard then maintains, and, we think, proves, that Pelletier visited Hayti in 1861 for the purpose of abducting and enslaving Haytian citizens, and, when in Haytian territorial waters, made such preparations for carrying out this plan as would have ended, had it not been for his arrest, in such abduction and enslavement; that this constituted, both by our common law and by the French law in force in Hayti, a criminal attempt, subject to public prosecution; that this crime was within Haytian jurisdiction, and that Pelletier's trial was fair, and the punishment imposed singularly lenient. He concludes by declaring that if it be conceded that the arbitrator is right in denying Haytian jurisdiction, yet Pelletier's claim should be immediately dropped, because it is so saturated with turpitude and infamy that on it no action, judicial or diplomatic, can be based.

Although the strike is to all intents and purposes at an end, and most of those engaged in it are either back at work or trying to get back, there can be no doubt that there will be strikers for a good while to come. After every large disturbance a considerable number of the strikers remain on strike as long as any money is forthcoming from assessments. That is to say, their "strike" has really no relation to the employment they have quitted. The employer whom they struck against may have filled their places, and may be going on with his business in complete forgetfulness of their existence, but they still continue in what may be called an abstract strike—a strike not against any particular capitalist, but against capital in general. Strikers of this class are apt to be peculiarly obstinate and irreconcilable. They are the Jacobites of the labor movement. Nothing but absolute famine breaks down their courage. As long as the people who are at work are willing to support them, they display the utmost determination in remaining idle. For weeks after the Third Avenue Railroad had filled the places of its strikers last spring, strikers of this class could be found in tenement-houses all along the line, bravely living on the contributions of other poor people, and determined to uphold the cause of labor as long as the money came in.

If the performances of Quinn and "Putnam," in the late strikes, should have the result of reviving, and strengthening, and improving the trades-unions, and putting an end to the preposterous Powderly scheme of making "the injury of one the concern of all"—that is, of disorganizing the whole industry of the country every time one laborer gets into a row with his employers—it will be a great gain for the whole community. Trades-unions managed on business principles, with ordinary respect for the rules of morality and fair dealing, are and have been most useful organizations. Trades-unions, on the other hand, acting in a way which would make an individual infamous, are simply a curse both to employer and employed. To strike without direct cause and without notice, and without full discussion, or to strike at a time chosen with the view of inflicting the greatest possible damage on an employer who has been guilty of no greater wrong than refusing to accept a business offer; to attempt to make the strike effective by injuries to property, or by threats or violence, against other men who are willing to take the strikers' places, or by denunciations and abuse of those who save and thus create a fund for the employment of labor, are all acts which would mark out an individual man as either a scoundrel or a crank. They do not become respectable by being the acts of an organization. Trades-unions will have to imitate the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers and become sober-minded, considerate, law-abiding, and rational from the business point of view, in order to become real powers in the State. They will have, moreover, to make some provision in their rules for the encouragement of talent and industry, and for raising the standard of character among their members, before they can claim any legitimate place in modern civilization. At present a large number of them are managed as if they were mobs of barbarians, without any comprehension of the social organization in which they are bred, and for which manual laborers are just as much bound to care as anybody else.

A new National Labor party is getting itself organized for political action at Indianapolis, in opposition to the Henry George fragment in New York. This outcome was inevitable, not so much because the George party had put itself on the platform of land confiscation, as because it allowed "capital" other than landed estate to gorge and pamper itself to its heart's content. Mr. George's philosophy, as committed to writing, is extremely lenient to millionaires, provided they do not own land. His stump speeches have been somewhat erratic upon this point, but it is quite natural that people at a distance should pass judgment upon him and his party by the light of his publications, and not by his fragmentary sayings, which may be misreported by the newspapers. The Indianapolis movement proposes to take contrary ground, affirming the inviolability of land-ownership, and attacking capital as the common enemy of the farmer and the workingman. We venture to predict that the Indianapolis movement will outrun the Henry George movement in the next national election by a large majority.

Section 2 of the Inter-State Commerce Act prohibits every railroad company subject to its provisions from charging any person or persons more or less for passenger or freight service than is charged to any other person or persons. It cannot be doubted that this clause of the act cuts off the "deadhead" system as to all railroads not wholly within the limits of a single State. Mr. Adams, the President of the Union Pacific, has already issued a notice that, when the law goes into effect, free passes will be stopped except to the company's employees travelling on the company's business. If the law puts an end to this disgraceful and pernicious system, it will have served one good purpose at least. We can think of no place for beginning work under the law more suitable than the existing discrimination in charges for passenger service, by virtue of which it has come about that the only persons who pay their fare on the cars are those who can scarcely afford to do so. All very rich people now expect to ride free. All large shippers, and nearly all legislators, editors, directors of railroads and of steamship lines, Government officers, and their near relatives and particular friends, expect to "have their hats chalked" as regularly as the seasons come around. It is a woful showing for a republic of equal rights.

The bill introduced in the Legislature by Senator Vedder to tax "short" sales of stocks, petroleum, etc., by brokers is understood to be intended as a measure for yielding revenue to the State, and not merely to discourage speculation on the bear side of the market. If this is its purpose, we must point out to the supporters of the bill that it will fail to accomplish this object in its present shape. It provides that all brokers' sales shall be taxed one-fiftieth of one per cent. unless, in the case of stocks, a bill of sale is delivered by the seller to the buyer on the day of sale, specifying the date and number of the certificates, and delivery of the same certificates is made on the following day. Brokers' sales of petroleum, cotton, and produce are to be taxed at the same rate unless a bill of sale identifying and conveying the property is made on the day of sale. Omitting for the present the expediency of a tax on brokers' sales by any kind of a law, we can perceive nothing in this bill but an interference with the customs of trade. If a tax of one-fiftieth of one per cent. is sufficient to make it worth while to evade the payment, the "street" will alter its methods accordingly. Short sellers will borrow the stocks they expect to require one day earlier than they do now, or obtain from the lenders the numbers of the certificates they intend to borrow. This would be an annoyance and would involve some extra clerical labor, but would not necessarily bring any revenue to the State.

The dinner of the "Republican Club" at Delmonico's on Saturday evening has very much the appearance of being the initial step in a movement to carry the New York delegation in the next national Republican Convention for Senator Sherman. It is quite certain that some design not exactly avowed was behind the "spread" of that bountiful table. Such costly entertainments are not usually prepared merely to celebrate the history and past exploits of a party. Nor do Governors of States commonly assemble at great distances from their Governorships merely to partake of a good dinner. The birthday of Abraham Lincoln has not become a saint's day in our calendar, although it may well become such. The whole affair has the appearance of being a "boom" for somebody. We are not inclined to make light of it for that reason. On the contrary, it is entitled all the more to serious treatment if it was a "concerted piece" and not a haphazard medley of national airs. We infer that the dinner was not conceived in the interests of Mr. Blaine, because the leading speakers, with the exception, perhaps, of Mr. Depew, are not Blaine men. Gen. Hawley turned a very cold shoulder upon Mr. Blaine when he spoke of "the Mugwump who boasts of his departure from his old brethren upon a difference concerning *one man*." Equally pointed is that clause in Senator Sherman's letter where the Republican defeat in the last national election is ascribed to "the division of the Republicans in New York." The Blaine theory is, that there was no division among the Republicans of New York, but only an accidental scattering of votes caused by Dr. Burchard's allusion to Rum, Romanism, and Rebellion.

The only discourse pronounced at the dinner which had the semblance of a political platform was the letter of Senator Sherman himself. If the gathering was designed to promote Mr. Sherman's prospects for a Presidential nomination, it was fitting that the speakers should restrict themselves mainly to the glories of the war and emancipation, and leave platform-making to the candidate. Mr. Sherman's principles are set forth in these words, which we reprint for general information rather than for present criticism:

"Surely the time has arrived when the Republican party should assume again its great mission. The time is opportune. Under the operation of laws placed upon the statute-book by Republican Administrations, taxes are so levied as to produce overflowing revenue without a serious burden upon the people. We are at liberty to choose between reducing our revenues or expending our surplus in great and beneficent objects of natural desire. We can combine the two lines of public policy. We could readily reduce the tax on sugar, while giving encouragement to domestic production in the form of bounty. We could repeal or reduce all taxes that do not tend to encourage and protect domestic production. We could commence and establish a system of coast defences that will guard the great arteries of our commerce. We could place our navy again in a condition to be respected and renew our participation in foreign commerce. We could authorize our citizens to build new routes of communication across the continent and protect them in their rights. We could, with our added strength and wealth, give assistance and encouragement to all the American republics founded upon our example. We could make suitable commercial arrangements with our neighbor, the Dominion of Canada, and thus avoid all future controversies about the rights of our people to fish in American waters, and in this way, by gradual measures, knit and mould the interests and desires of our neighbors with our own."

The principal and leading idea here is, that our flourishing financial condition enables us to launch into expenditures which have not hitherto been admissible. We can spend money freely for a great variety of things—fortifications, navy, inter-oceanic canals, internal improvements, bounties, etc. We can reduce taxes if we like, but Mr. Sherman does not see much advantage in reducing taxes that are not felt. The suggestion is very plain that, having paid off all of our debt that is now payable, we can have a good time with our money—in our view a most sinister and demoralizing thought, captivating to speculators and the "governing classes," no doubt, but socialistic in its tendency, since it points to a use of the taxing power for other purposes than the support of government economically administered.

In his eulogy of Gen. Logan on Wednesday, his colleague, Mr. Cullom, said, according to the *Tribune's* report: "Wealth could not tempt him to soil his spotless name. He never used the opportunities of his official position as a means of obtaining gold. He died as he lived, a poor man." Mr. Cullom said further, that "in the last Presidential campaign no ghost of dishonor in his past had risen up and stood in his path." The implication of these remarks would seem to be that there is some man who had "used the opportunities of his official position as a means of obtaining gold," and who found "in the last Presidential campaign" that a "ghost of dishonor in his past had risen up and stood in his path."

The fate of one White, who was shot on Sunday in West Virginia by a man whom he was trying to lynch, was very curious. White was summoned from his home to his brother's at some distance by a telegram announcing the death of his mother. When he reached the house, however, he found a lynching party was being organized to lynch a certain Miller for adultery. It does not appear that White knew either Miller or his paramour, but his interest in the maintenance of domestic purity seems to have been so strong that he forgot his grief for his deceased parent, in his desire to punish Miller, and joined the lynchers. Miller had, however, been forewarned and was forearmed, and, when the lynchers appeared at his door, brought a double-barrelled shot-gun to bear on them and requested them to desist. White, however, still suppressing his grief for his mother, gallantly urged them to the charge, and was shot dead in the advance, a martyr, if ever there was one, to the cause of the family. The other lynchers are searching for Miller with the view of hanging him, but he keeps out of the way, while poor White is to be buried beside his mother.

The Prudential Committee of the American Board of Foreign Missions have reached a very curious settlement of their difficulty with Mr. Hume, the missionary whom they did not wish to employ again because he believed there would be a future state of probation for the heathen. They have decided to send him back to his work, on the understanding "that he avoid the preaching or teaching of any speculation in favor of future probation." That is to say, Mr. Hume may hold this doctrine if he pleases, but he is not to let the heathen know about it. Now, we would ask in all seriousness, is this religion or is it "politics"? What will a heathen convert think, both of Mr. Hume and the Prudential Committee, if he should ever discover that they had entered into an agreement to conceal from him a doctrine which, if true, would be to him of stupendous importance? Is it possible that Mr. Hume will undertake, in virtue of "a deal," to let the heathen suppose that he believes that final judgment will be passed on them at their death, when in reality he believes, or is strongly of opinion, that final judgment will not be passed on them until long after their death, and that in the interval they will have a chance of atoning for past sins by good behavior, or be fitted for a higher state of existence by a process of purgation?

Mr. Hume has published a "Memorandum," in which he denies that he has given any pledge not to teach the doctrine of future probation. He simply admits that he has no "certain knowledge" on this subject, but holds himself free to consider as legitimate "such opinions about it not contrary to Scripture as are entertained among evangelical ministers." As we understand the situation, however, the Committee does not now object to his holding these opinions, but seems to rely on his "loyalty" to the Board to prevent his communicating them to the heathen. What gave these opinions their value to Mr. Hume in the first instance was, however, their comforting influence on the heathen, who were greatly disturbed by the probable fate of their savage ancestors under the doctrine of final judgment at death. Mr. Hume can hardly intend now, after fighting his fight, to cut off such converts as he may make hereafter from this consolation. If he thinks, as he evidently does, that there is a fair probability of a period of probation after this life, he is bound in good faith to let the heathen know his views. In fact, if he were to restrict his teaching to matters of which he had "certain knowledge," he would put them on very short allowance. But there is a curious want of candor about the whole affair on all sides.

The Parnell amendment to the usual address to the Queen has been defeated by the expected majority, that is, 106, of which the greater part is contributed by the Liberal-Unionists. The debate was most uninteresting, being simply a dreary repetition of the old commonplaces, charges, and counter-charges about Ireland. The prospect, as opened up by Sir Michael Hicks-Beach's speech on behalf of the Ministry, is most hopeless, consisting mainly of legislation of very doubtful value, which there is but little chance of carrying. Lord Hartington's was the gloomiest speech of all, for he had nothing to propose except the buying out of the landlords and a large exportation of the tenants to the colonies.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, February 9, to TUESDAY, February 15, 1887, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND on Friday afternoon vetoed the Dependent Pension Bill in a vigorous document, which is summarized elsewhere in this issue. Inasmuch as a change of only ten votes would deprive the bill of a two-thirds majority in the House, there is no reasonable doubt that the veto will be sustained. The vote on the passage of the measure was 180 yeas to 76 nays, the affirmatives consisting of 115 Republicans and 65 Democrats, while the negative votes were all those of Democrats, and, with three exceptions, of Southern Democrats. Several Southern Democrats voted for the bill who may now be counted upon the other side, and the same is true of a number of Northern Democrats, while, in view of the condemnation of the scheme by so many Republican newspapers, it is by no means certain that the Republican vote would be solid for it upon a reconsideration. Even if, by any possibility, the bill should get through the House over the veto, the Senate would unquestionably sustain the veto. There was no division in the upper branch on the passage of the bill, and nothing was said in support of the bill by any Democrat, so that all the Democratic Senators could vote to sustain the veto without the slightest inconsistency, and such a vote would leave the bill far short of the requisite two-thirds. The veto has been generally approved by the intelligent sentiment of the country.

The President has allowed the act appropriating $400,000 a year to provide arms and equipments for the militia to become a law without his signature.

The President is carefully considering the eligibility of the persons who have been named as Inter-State Commerce Commissioners. It is believed that the position of the President of the Commission has been tendered to Allen G. Thurman of Ohio, and doubts are expressed as to the accuracy of the rumor which represents Mr. Thurman as having declined.

The Senate on Wednesday agreed to the House substitute for the Chinese Indemnity Bill. The bill prohibiting off-shore mackerel fishing during spawning season was passed, 34 to 11.

The Senate has entered upon the consideration of the Naval Bill reported by Senator Cameron, and following that will be submitted the bill of Mr. Hale. The aggregate amounts which it is proposed to take from the Treasury by naval bills now pending are large. The following is a summary of the leading propositions: The Hawley bill, with the Dolph amendment, $21,000,000; Senator Cameron's ten-cruiser bill, $21,800,000; Senator Hale's heavy-armored vessel bill, $10,400,000; Senator Stanford's big guns and mortars bill, $40,000,000; total, $98,200,000. Of these bills the one of Senator Cameron and the one of Senator Hale have both received the unanimous support of the Committee on Naval Affairs, and are considered as a part of a general plan for the building of a new navy. They together call for $37,200,000, which the Senate Committee on Naval Affairs, without distinction of party, has agreed to recommend.

An effort was made in the House of Representatives on Wednesday to secure immediate consideration of the coast-defence bills, but Mr. Holman objected. No day was set for their consideration. It is feared that the House will kill the bills.

The conferees on the Anti-Polygamy Bill reached an agreement on Friday on the points of difference between the two houses. The section of the Senate bill which provides for the appointment of a board of trustees to administer on the property of the Mormon Church, is omitted. The provisions of the House bill authorizing the administration of an oath to the legal wife to sustain charges of polygamy is included, as is the provision eliminating polygamists from the registration lists.

The Senate Trade-Dollar Bill came before the House on Saturday with the amendment of the Committee on Banking and Currency, which has been rejected by the Senate Committee, the House voting 142 to 101 to take it up.

Secretary Manning handed his resignation to President Cleveland on Monday, to take effect not later than March 4.

Commander-in-Chief Fairchild of the Grand Army of the Republic has issued an address to posts and members of this organization, requesting them immediately to inform members of Congress of their approval or disapproval of the principles involved in the vetoed Dependent Pension Bill.

Both branches of the Legislature of Tennessee have adopted a resolution to submit to popular vote an amendment to the State Constitution prohibiting the making or selling of intoxicants.

The big 'longshore strike in this city, as well as the coal-handlers' strike, was on Friday night declared off by the Executive Board of District Assembly 49. This confession of defeat is set forth by the Executive Board as the announcement of a victory. They alleged that President Corbin of the Reading Road had made some important concessions to them. The men were ordered back to work. This did not, however, affect the condition of the men to any great extent. Their places have been filled, and the orders of the Union will not be respected by the former employers of the strikers. The coal companies unite in saying that they have all the men they want, and certainly will not discharge the new men they have hired. There is, however, a probability that the companies will, as vacancies occur, fill them with the best men they can get, whether they are union men or not. It is the universal opinion among the coal men that the Knights have used the agreement of Mr. Corbin as a loophole for them to crawl out of, after having suffered an ignominious defeat.

The Prudential Committee of the American Board have agreed to the return of the Rev. Mr. Hume to his mission in India. They have published a statement in which they say: "The Committee understands that, under the action of the Board at its last annual meeting, it has no option but to decline to send out as a missionary any person who has committed himself to the acceptance of the hypothesis of a probation after death. That action was in the following terms: 'The Board is constrained to look with grave apprehension upon certain tendencies of the doctrine of a probation after death, which has been recently broached and diligently propagated, that seem divisive and perversive and dangerous to the churches at home and abroad. In view of those tendencies they do heartily approve of the action of the Prudential Committee in carefully guarding the Board from any committal to the approval of that doctrine, and advise a continuance of that caution in time to come.' In the case of Rev. R. A. Hume, embarrassment and consequent delay have arisen from doubt as to his exact position on the subject. After several interviews and much correspondence, it appears that Mr. Hume regards the hypothesis in question as not forbidden by the Scriptures, and that some considerations favor it, while on the other hand he affirms that he has not in his past utterances committed himself, and that he does not now commit himself, to the acceptance of the hypothesis. It has been a question with the Committee how far sympathy with this hypothesis, even where it is not accepted, would control one's thought and action; but it has not been unmindful of the fact that Mr. Hume is not a new applicant for missionary appointment. He has for eleven years rendered good service in the mission field, and the record of that service as well as his recent statements give reasonable assurance that he will work, in the future as in the past, as a loyal representative of the American Board, and in harmony with the wishes of his mission as expressed in their letter of October 28, 1886, 'that he avoid the preaching or teaching of any speculation in favor of a future probation.' The Committee therefore assents to the return of Mr. Hume to his cherished work in the Maratha Mission."

The average of the temperature about Fort Keogh, M. T., has recently been lower than for fifteen years, and the loss of cattle on the ranches is very great.

Ex-Alderman John O'Neil was on Friday sentenced to Sing Sing for four years and six months, and ordered to pay a fine of $2,000, for bribery in the Broadway Railroad case. This is lighter than the sentence of Jaehne or McQuade. The Judge said: "The Court finds some grounds for clemency in your case, among which may be cited your hitherto blameless life, which was testified to on the trial."

Herr Anton Seidl, of the Metropolitan Opera-house in this city, has accepted a call to the position of conductor at the Royal Opera at Berlin. He will remain here to the end of the opera season.

The Right Rev. William Mercer Green, for forty-eight years Bishop of the Diocese of Mississippi, is dead.

George M. Weston, Librarian for the Senate, aged seventy-four, died in Washington on Thursday night after a brief illness. He was an original anti-slavery leader, and long an editor in Maine. For many years he has been a writer on the silver question.

FOREIGN.

The text of Cardinal Jacobini's letter to the Nuncio at Munich is published. The Cardinal says that in view of the impending revision of the Church Laws, the Pope desires the Centre to support the Septennate Bill in every possible way, and concludes: "It is well known that the Government attaches the greatest importance to the passage of the bill. If by its adoption it should be found possible to avert the danger of war in the near future, the Centre would render a great service to the fatherland and to the cause of humanity in Europe by supporting the bill. In the contrary case, the hostile attitude of the Centre would be considered unpatriotic, and the dissolution of the Reichstag would cause embarrassments and uncertainties to the Centre party." Cardinal Jacobini instructs the Nuncio to urge the leaders of the Centre to influence their colleagues in favor of the Septennate, and to assure them that such a course would greatly satisfy the Holy Father.

Cardinal Jacobini's letter seems to have even less influence than was at first expected, for all the leading Catholic journals in Berlin again advocate the reëlection of the former Deputies.

It is expected that Cardinal Jacobini's letter to the Nuncio at Munich will lead to a lively debate in the Italian Chamber of Deputies. The letter is thought to cover a hope of the Vatican that Germany will exert pressure on Italy to yield to the Vatican's wishes.

The Cologne *Gazette* says: "It is nonsense to suppose that Germany would lift a finger to restore the temporal power of the Pope. Cardinal Jacobini only meant to intimate that a reconciliation between the Pope and King Humbert might be effected by the mediation of Germany."

The Government of Greece has given to France, through the French Minister at Athens, permission to excavate at Delphi for remains of the Temple.

The Prussian Ministerial Council has decided to postpone the submission of the Church Bill to the Landtag until after the Reichstag elections. The extent of the revision of the May laws depends upon the pliability of the Centre.

The lower house of the Prussian Diet was quietly adjourned on Saturday until after the elections for the Reichstag. This proves the rumor that Bismarck would again make a strong speech against the Liberals in that body to have been a Conservative election manœuvre.

In answer to an inquiry made by a member of the Landtag on Monday, whether or not war was probable, Prince Bismarck is reported to have said: "You know quite as much as I do. We live in a state of peace. But look at the French preparations—at the building of barracks, at the position of Gen. Boulanger, at the constant outcry of the French Patriotic League during sixteen years—and then consider what we have to fear from France." On the same day a despatch from St. Petersburg declared that the German Ambassador to Russia recently sounded the Czar as to whether he would remain neutral in the event of war between Germany and France, and that the Czar refused to commit himself.

The *Berliner Nachrichten* says it has authentic information that Gen. Boulanger, the French Minister of War, is preparing a movement of troops to the eastern frontier. Four battalions in Algiers have been ordered to France. Gen. Boulanger has instructed the Military Railway Committee to remain in permanent session.

Ominous fears of a European war prevail in St. Petersburg. It is announced that German colonists in the Caucasus have been notified to hold themselves in readiness to return to Germany and join the reserves.

A Nihilistic conspiracy was discovered last week in St. Petersburg which extended through the whole of Russia. Accomplices have been found in Kiev, Kharkov, and Odessa.

The Belgian Ministry will probably make the adoption of obligatory military service a Cabinet question. It is announced that all the forts in Belgium along the frontier of France have received a complete war armament. The preparations have been even carried to the extent of mobilizing the troops. King Leopold will be Commander-in-Chief of the Belgian forces, with Gen. Brialmont as Chief of Staff.

The French Chamber of Deputies on Thursday, by a vote of 286 to 238, adopted a motion requesting the Government to introduce a bill imposing an income tax. The adjectives "uniform progressive" were stricken out of the original resolution.

Charles Wehlé, the distinguished composer and pianist, is dead. He was born at Prague in 1825, and in early life made a commercial tour to Paris. There Thalberg discovered his musical gifts and gave him a letter of introduction, with which he went to Leipzig and studied under Moscheles and Richter. Returning to Paris he soon became known as virtuoso and composer. Then he undertook a musical tour which included America, Australia, Egypt, and Asia, and was rich in curious adventures.

François Laurent, the Belgian historian and publicist, is dead. He was seventy-six years old. He was born at Luxembourg and studied law at Liége, where he was graduated in 1832. Five years later he became professor of civil law at the University of Ghent. The Clerical party detested him on account of the anti-papal tendency of his writings. He was author of a vast work in eighteen volumes, called 'Études sur l'histoire de l'humanite'; of the 'Principes de droit civil français,' in thirty-two volumes, for which he received a prize from the Royal Academy of Belgium; 'Passion des Catholiques pour la liberté,' etc.

Ferdinand von Miller, the celebrated Bavarian founder, is dead. He was born in 1813, studied in Munich and Paris, and subsequently became Director of the Royal Foundry Works at the Bavarian capital, where he has cast over 200 statues. He was also a member of the Reichstag, and in 1876 he arranged the great international art exhibition in Munich.

Mrs. Henry Wood, the British novelist, is dead. She was about sixty-seven years of age. Her father was Thomas Price, a leading glove manufacturer of Worcester. She began her literary career as a contributor to the magazines. 'Danebury House,' her first complete novel, was published in 1860. It was followed the next year by 'East Lynne,' which achieved a remarkable success. Among her other works are 'Roland Yorke' (1869), 'Dene Hollow' (1871), 'Johnny Ludlow' (1880). She was editor of the *Argosy*.

Philip Bourke Marston, the English poet and essayist, died in London on Monday in his thirty-sixth year. His father, Dr. Westland Marston, was a man of considerable literary activity, and the son was very early in life thrown into the companionship of literary people. He became more widely known by his critical and poetical contributions to the British and American magazines than by his books. By an accident in his childhood his eyesight was impaired, and during the latter years of his life he was blind and epileptic.

The fourth Duke of Leinster is dead at the age of sixty-eight. He was Colonel of the Kildare militia, and a Commissioner of National Education in Ireland. His family has been in Ireland for 700 years.

In outlining the Irish party's policy for this session, Mr. Parnell says that there will be no obstruction this year, that is, no deliberate organized obstructive measures. In general it is the intention of the Irish party to discuss the procedure fully and fairly, as they have done the questions already introduced; but nothing more.

Mr. Parnell is drafting a bill to extend the benefits of the Land Act to glebe tenants and holders in town parks as well as leaseholders.

In the House of Commons on Thursday night, in the debate on Mr. Parnell's amendment, the Marquis of Hartington made a speech in which he substantially said: "Admitting that the relations between landlords and tenants in Ireland were far from satisfactory, it was no remedy to suspend, or reduce, or abolish the payment of rent. Such a plan would be found to be no boon to the poor tenants. The real remedies for the agrarian crisis were to be found in providing larger productive employment for the people, or involuntary emigration conducted and supported by the local authorities. Still, where landlords existed the land laws must be enforced. It would never be possible to get rid of the ultimate resort of eviction. The course of the Government in prosecuting the authors of the plan of campaign was right and straightforward. It was the duty of the Government to attack men engaged in an illegal conspiracy and prevent their leading astray tenants who were their dupes. Mr. Gladstone had declared that the plan of campaign resulted from the policy of the Government in refusing to adopt the Suspension of Evictions Bill. Could Parliament hold that, as a legitimate consequence, the rejection of any measure left the people morally entitled to take the law into their own hands and do what Parliament had refused to do? If the plan of campaign was not illegal, if its enforcement was not stopped, there would be an end to all relations between landlord and tenant. It would cause an internecine war, and result in the total destruction of the power of the landlord to obtain any rent excepting what the tenant chose to pay. The suppression of the plan was a necessity if order was to be preserved. Mr. Parnell had referred to the probable recurrence of dynamite outrages. He admitted that Mr. Parnell was not in a position to control dynamite crimes, but he was in a position to disown them. They were not disowned. Mr. Parnell contented himself with warning Parliament that if a certain course were pursued the dynamiters might resume operations. As to home rule, there remained a steadfast, solid barrier of 100 votes against Mr. Gladstone's scheme. It was idle and useless for the Home-Rulers to present a vague resolution to the House on the ground that they had the confidence of the Irish people, knowing that they must secure the approval of the British nation."

Mr. John Morley, speaking at Newcastle on Wednesday night, said the Conservative-Liberal union was crumbling away. There had been no recoil of popular opinion on the Irish question; the home-rule tide was flowing slowly but steadily. Lord Hartington's latest speech, he continued, revealed complete impotence in the face of a difficult problem. The question was, "What are we waiting for?" Ireland was admittedly orderly in many parts, and surely the time was opportune to satisfy her wants. Even if Parliament adopted the Canadian scheme for Ireland, such a course would not be less liberal than that of Mr. Gladstone.

Mr. Parnell's amendment to the address in reply to the Queen's speech was rejected on Friday by a vote of 352 to 246. The majority against the amendment is an accurate index of the prospects of Irish legislation in the present Parliament. Although no whip had been issued for the Liberals, only six were unaccounted for. All the leading Unionists voted with the Government.

Mr. Gladstone has written a letter which apparently frankly concedes the point of the retention of the Irish members at Westminster.

The Tories among the students have torn up by the roots and destroyed the tree planted at Cambridge University a fortnight ago by Mr. Gladstone. The Liberal students threaten reprisals.

Mr. G. J. Goschen, Chancellor of the Exchequer, was on Wednesday returned to Parliament from St. George's, Hanover Square. The Liberals made little opposition.

The British blue book on the affairs of Bulgaria and Eastern Rumelia shows Salisbury's Government during last autumn in a very bad light. It confirms the statements that have been made about intrigues on behalf of Prince Alexander, in which the Queen herself has taken part. Indeed, the British agent at Sofia telegraphed that at last the Prince "expressed in the strongest terms his gratitude to the Queen and her Majesty's Government for the kindness they had invariably shown him, and hoped they would not add to the difficulty of his very painful position by urging him to remain in Bulgaria." Salisbury applied in turn to most of the European cabinets for assistance in supporting Prince Alexander, but was snubbed all round. It was practically the English Government which brought the Prince back, but he abdicated at the moment Salisbury believed him most firmly reëstablished.

It was reported from Rome on Monday that Signor Depretis had undertaken to form a Cabinet conjointly with Count di Robilant.

The volcano of Mauna Loa, in Hawaii Island, is again active. The eruption began on January 15th, the lava flowing down the south slope. Earthquake shocks have been frequent, without serious consequences, however.

Great distress is reported to prevail among the people in the northern part of Newfoundland. The Government has already sent thousands of barrels of flour to keep them from starving, but the supply is inadequate. The ports are now frozen in, and it is impossible to send supplies there in time to save many of the sufferers.

THE VETO.

THE President's action in returning to the House without his approval the Dependent Pension Bill is the most striking event of his Administration. His message has undoubtedly killed the measure, and the measure was the most important, the most far-reaching, and the most demoralizing which Congress has sent to the White House since Mr. Cleveland was inaugurated. The veto thus presents him in the character of a careful, wise, and courageous Executive, who, by the exercise of a great constitutional prerogative, has defeated an outrageous scheme which was hastily passed by Congress in a characteristic fit of carelessness, folly, and cowardice.

The message itself is a merciless exposure of what, according to that veteran Republican correspondent, Gen. Boynton, "most of those who supported it are now convinced is a scheme engineered in the main by pension attorneys." Mr. Cleveland shows with the utmost clearness that the bill is so loosely drawn as to put a premium upon fraud on the part of new applicants, and to tempt pensioners receiving less than $12 a month, who are now partially supporting themselves, to stop working and claim the larger allowance. He points out that the advocates of the bill in the two houses differed widely as to its meaning and consequences. He says that he "cannot believe that the vast peaceful army of Union soldiers who, having contentedly resumed their places in the ordinary avocations of life, cherish as sacred the memory of patriotic service, or who, having been disabled by the casualties of war, justly regard the present pension roll, on which appear their names, as a roll of honor, desire at this time and in the present exigency to be confounded with those who, through such a bill as this, are willing to be objects of simple charity, and to gain a place upon the pension roll through alleged dependence." He enforces the consideration, "sad but nevertheless true," with which the examination of private pension bills has impressed him, "that already in the matter of procuring pensions there exists a widespread disregard of truth and good faith, stimulated by those who, as agents, undertake to establish claims for pensions, heedlessly entered upon by the expectant beneficiary, and encouraged, or at least not condemned, by those unwilling to obstruct a neighbor's plans." He declares that "the race after the pensions offered by this bill would not only stimulate weakness and pretended incapacity for labor, but would be a further premium on dishonesty and mendacity." He shows, by a reference to the consequences of the Arrears Act, how startling is the effect of new invitations to apply for pensions; and, by a reference to the history of the Dependent Pension Bill for Revolutionary soldiers, how ridiculously far below the actual expenditure all Congressional estimates have inevitably fallen. Finally, he refers to the fact that while it has been a cause of pride and congratulation to the American citizen that his country is not put to the charge of maintaining a large standing army in time of peace, yet we are still living under a system of war taxation, which ought to be reduced, but which cannot be reduced if this bill becomes a law, "with its tremendous addition to our previous obligations."

There has seldom been a more signal illustration of the wisdom of the fathers in investing the President with the veto power. Here is a bill which was whisked through Congress almost without consideration, on the pretence that it involved only the trifling expenditure of less than $5,000,000 a year, and in the belief on the part of its supporters that favoring it would insure them the "soldier vote' without offending any other class of voters. If the passage of a measure through each branch of Congress made it a law, there would have been no escape from the demoralizing and long-continued consequences of this piece of demagogism. But the Constitution gives the President ten days to consider every act sent to him by Congress, and makes his veto of a bill effectual unless overruled by a two-thirds vote in each branch. Ten days sufficed for so thorough an overhauling of this measure by the press as conclusively demonstrated that it never ought to have been passed, and for so unanimous a condemnation of its Congressional supporters by public sentiment as to insure the defeat of the scheme upon a reconsideration. The possession of the veto power by a President who is not afraid to use it, thus rescues the nation from the otherwise inevitable consequences of a piece of hasty legislation.

From the standpoint of current politics the veto is hardly less noteworthy than from that of political economy. The Pauper Pension Bill went through both branches of Congress without a word of protest, or even a single negative vote, from all the representatives of the Republican party. Everybody in the country knows that, if the Republican candidate in the last Presidential campaign had been elected, a bill thus supported by the Republican party in Congress would have been signed without a moment's hesitation. But for the last ten days Republican newspapers in all parts of the country have been denouncing the measure in the most scathing terms, and appealing to a Democratic President to save the country from this "extravagant, foolish, and demagogical" measure (to use the words of the Chicago *Tribune*), which went to him with the endorsement of every Republican Senator and Representative. When we remember that only a little over two years ago these Republican newspapers were charging that the election of a Democratic President would ruin the country, the spectacle which has been presented for the past ten days of these same Republican newspapers beseeching this Democratic President to veto a Republican measure, is at once most amusing and instructive.

As to the personal consequences of the President's action, there can be no question in the mind of any candid man. He has been warned that a veto would lose him the "soldier vote," and the organ of the Washington claim agents has made frantic appeals for his signature that were hardly disguised threats of political revenge in case of a veto. Everybody in the country knows that such arguments would have availed with the Republican candidate in the campaign of 1884, as they availed with so many Congressmen who knew that they ought to vote against the bill. Sundry Republican organs have emphasized the courage required in Mr. Cleveland's action, by saying that his course in this matter would be a test of his mettle; that while it was easy enough to veto a private pension bill which had but few friends, it would be quite another thing to block a scheme pushed by such powerful influences as were behind this measure. The concluding sentence of the message is the President's reply, and it is such an appeal to the patriotism and justice of the American people as cannot fail to elevate its author in the estimation of every right-thinking person:

> "The evil threatened by this bill is in my opinion such that, charged with a great responsibility in behalf of the people, I cannot do otherwise than to bring to the consideration of this measure my best efforts of thought and judgment, and perform my constitutional duty in relation thereto, regardless of all consequences, except such as appear to me to be related to the best and highest interests of the country."

THE DUTY OF THE ASSEMBLY COMMITTEE.

WE trust the Assembly Committee now investigating the strikes in this city will not fail to examine Quinn and other leaders as to the machinery by which the strikes are supported. This is really the most important branch of the investigation. The other matters to which the Committee have been addressing themselves—such as the cost of mining and transporting coal, and the rate of wages paid by the companies, and the disputes between the workmen and the corporations out of which the late strikes have arisen—are comparatively unimportant, because the facts lie so near the surface. Any newspaper reporter can get at them. What most seriously calls for legislative inquiry is the internal machinery by which the strikes are carried on, because this is both a novelty and a mystery. Formerly a strike was simply the refusal of the men working under a particular employer, or in a particular trade, to work any longer unless certain specific and published demands on the employer were complied with. The strike, too, was almost always preceded by negotiations which gave it the character of a business transaction, and it was managed by men in the trade and familiar with its needs and possibilities.

Under the new system which the Knights of Labor are seeking to establish, this is all changed. A secret and irresponsible body has been set up in this city, which exercises the power of ordering sympathetic strikes—that is, of "calling out" the workers in any trade it pleases, whether they have a grievance or not, with the view of producing widespread social disorganization, and thus coercing the whole community, as it were, into helping to make effective the decrees of this hidden despotism. One result of this system is, of course, to make strikes when ordered extremely large. Thousands are thrown out of employment in order to aggravate a dispute in which only hundreds are directly interested, and great misery is indirectly inflicted on thousands of others by enhancing the price of commodities and causing general business depression, postponing investments and driving capital away. Another serious feature of sympathetic strikes—and to this we would especially call the at-

tention of the Committee—is the fact that they are training large bodies of American citizens in the habit of blind obedience, in the performance of the most important acts of their lives, to unknown persons. One of our morning contemporaries the other day, while condemning the strikes as foolish, lauded this blind obedience of those who were "called out" as a splendid example of devotion and discipline on the part of poor men. In reality, however, it is a very alarming political phenomenon. It makes the organization known as the Knights of Labor distinctly hostile to American institutions. Any organization, whether ecclesiastical or civil, whether church or order or brotherhood, which teaches men to regulate their lives under commands for which no reason is given them, or, in other words, to lead the lives of soldiers in the midst of peace, under authority unknown to the law of the land, is undoubtedly dangerous to the state. It is absurd to perorate against the Catholic Church or the Mormon Church while such an organization as the Knights of Labor is in active operation among us. To encourage such an organization in teaching large bodies of men to obey without reasoning, without discussion, without knowing or asking the reason why, is to contribute in a greater or less degree to the overthrow of our present system of government. For they delude themselves grossly who suppose that if the Knights or any similar organization became strong enough to put society in peril, society would surrender at discretion and let itself be reorganized by the Powderlys and Quinns. On the contrary, as the history of civilization everywhere shows, society would defend itself with the special weapons which the danger seemed to call for. It would modify its government to suit the occasion. It would meet a little despotism with a big despotism, and would pursue Master Workmen with colonels and generals, and, when it caught the Walking Delegate "calling out" anybody, it would lock him up in jail, without benefit of clergy or privilege of habeas corpus. In short, it would sacrifice its liberty in order to secure peace and tranquillity.

Though last not least, the sympathetic strikes call for money contributions on a scale never known in strikes before. The number of people they make dependent on assessments levied on workingmen who are not "called out," is unprecedentedly large. The beneficiaries and contributors of this fund in such strikes as this last one of the 'longshoremen and coal-handlers are in the main ignorant and simple men. Probably the large majority of them are either unable to read or write, or only do so with difficulty. They have no familiarity with accounts or with the usages of the business world in the matter of receiving and disbursing other people's money. It is needless to point out to the Committee, therefore, the immense opportunities for frauds on a great scale which every one of these strikes offers. In all of them large sums of money are received in small amounts by persons themselves impecunious and without credit, who publish no receipts, and render no accounts, and disburse it in such manner and at such times as they think proper. If a man were to start a savings bank or a charitable association on this plan, no matter who he was, he would soon be called to an account, especially if, like "Putnam," or Quinn, the great strike leader, he was a hackman in winter and drove an ice-cart in summer, or, like the other Quinn, he was a bookbinder, who had abandoned his trade in order to reorganize modern society.

The Assembly Committee, we trust, will see in this last consideration, if not in the others, good reason for getting the managers of District Assembly 49 before them, and asking them such questions about the receipt and distribution of the money raised in aid of the late strike as will satisfy the public on the point whether these sympathetic strikes are not instruments of fraud on a great scale, of which manual laborers, or, in other words, a very poor class of the community, are the sole victims, and enable the Committee to report in favor of some remedial legislation. What this legislation should be, seems obvious enough. The daily publication of the assessments received, with the names of the donors, and of the amounts disbursed, with the names and residences of the recipients, should be made compulsory, and the Board of Arbitration should be charged with the duty of auditing the accounts. There is so little arbitration going on that it would have plenty of time for this purpose. If the Legislature fails to take this matter up, it will be guilty of a great wrong towards a very helpless class.

THE POPE'S INTERFERENCE IN GERMANY.

NOTHING more singular has occurred in European politics within the present century than the direct interference of the Pope in the German elections on behalf of the Government. In the first place, we can recall no case in which orders have been openly sent from Rome to the Catholics of a parliamentary country, directing them how to vote on a certain occasion. In all previous occasions of real or suspected Papal interference in domestic politics, the influence has been exerted privately, or at all events indirectly. The word would be passed to the clergy to get the faithful to support this or that candidate, or this or that measure, on the ground that spiritual interests required it; and the clergy would give advice to this effect either from the pulpit or through their parochial visits, abstaining carefully, however, from any mention of higher authority. In fact, in all countries in which parliamentary institutions have been set up or have existed during the present century, either the Protestant feeling or the radical feeling has been so strong that no party could afford to have it known that it enjoyed Papal support. Ireland was long the one exception to this rule, but of late the Pope would not venture even in Ireland openly to call on good Catholics to support a bill in which the Church had no direct interest.

In the second place, the bill which the Pope has chosen to recommend for Catholic support is a very extraordinary one for a foreign ecclesiastic to take under his protection. No measure could well be more secular and domestic in its nature than the army bill which Bismarck is trying to push through the Reichstag. The majority in the Reichstag have not refused him the number of men he asks for. They have simply refused to allow the control of the army to pass out of their hands for more than three years, while he asks them to surrender it for seven. In surrendering it for even three years, they would be going beyond constitutional usage. In other parliamentary countries the army is voted every year for one year and no longer. The concession of the German Parliament is, therefore, really very great, and it is made out of deference to the wishes of the three old men who have founded the German empire. But whether this concession is sufficient for the safety of the empire, or whether it is too great for the interests of constitutional government, are questions on which only Germans are qualified to pass; and any German who passes on them under the influence of any but German considerations—that is, who thinks, in voting on them, of anything but the safety, honor, and welfare of the German nation—is, of course, a bad citizen.

Cardinal Jacobini, however, in advising Catholics to support the Septennate, does not pretend that either the Pope or he knows anything about the matter, except that the adoption of the Septennate would please Bismarck, and render him more disposed to make concessions to the Church in the legislation touching Church property and discipline. More extraordinary still, the Cardinal proposes, as the means of softening Bismarck towards the Church, that Catholics should largely increase his powers as a fighting man. What Bismarck complains of is, that the facilities at his disposal at present for killing French Catholics are not sufficient, and must be improved, and his control of them made more absolute. In asking for this, too, he enlarged on the difficulties of killing Frenchmen, on the vigor with which they resisted attempts to kill them, and on their sensitiveness about preparations made for that purpose. Nevertheless, in the teeth of his account of French pride and valor, he declared that the increase of the army as a threat against Frenchmen would increase the chances of peace. There is probably not a man in Germany who agrees with him in this, or who does not feel that these vast military preparations in Germany are gradually overcoming French reluctance to fight, and throwing France into the hands of a new military dictator. But the Pope and Cardinal Jacobini and the German Catholic bishops affect to believe that by enabling Bismarck to make an immense display of bullying, the French will be cowed into peaceableness, or, as the Cardinal says, "the danger of war will be averted in the near future."

It would be difficult to conceive of odder work for ministers of peace, or an odder way of hastening the establishment of the Kingdom of Heaven on earth. Of all sorrowful sights of the modern world, the French and German armaments are the most sorrowful. When one thinks of the purposes for which these vast hosts are intended, and of the scenes we shall witness when they are brought into collision and their deadly science set to work, one naturally expects them to fill the soul of a successor of the Apostles with inextinguishable horror, and make him feel that the first and best work of

the Church in our time would be to rid humanity of this great curse — to persuade kings and rulers to turn their thoughts to the things which make for peace. One can hardly wonder that the masses are breaking away from the Church, and turning a deaf ear to the Christian Gospel, when we find the heads of the Church encouraging preparations for bloodshed, and advising voters that the maintenance of immense armies is a means of averting strife.

THE LATE LORD IDDESLEIGH.

LONDON, January 21.

THE death of Lord Iddesleigh, whom Americans as well as Englishmen doubtless know better under the name of Sir Stafford Northcote, has caused deep and general regret in this country. He was probably the only eminent statesman whom both parties equally respected. He had filled a conspicuous place for many years, and filled it with integrity and dignity. The suddenness of his death, coming at a moment when public sentiment had already condemned the slight deemed to have been put upon him in the reconstruction of the present Ministry, evoked a burst of sympathy such as has hardly been seen since Peel perished by an accident more than thirty years ago. The question as to his treatment by his colleagues is of only a transient interest; but your American readers may like to hear some personal impressions of a man with whose name they were familiar, and who, as one of the Commissioners who negotiated the *Alabama* Claims Treaty of Washington in 1871, had been himself concerned in American affairs.

He belonged to a type of politician less common among us than formerly, and likely to become still more rare as England grows more democratic—the county gentleman of old family and good estate, who is naturally returned to Parliament in respect of his social position in his county, who has leisure to cultivate himself for statesmanship, and has no need to supplement his private means by public office. Devonshire, from which he came, has preserved more of the old features of English country life than the central and northern parts of England, where manufactures and the growth of population have swept away the venerable remains of feudalism. In Devonshire the old families are still deeply respected by the people. They are nearly all allied to one another by marriage. Few rich parvenus have intruded among them; aristocratic society is therefore exceptionally easy, simple, and unostentatious. There is still a strong local patriotism, which makes every Devonshire man, whatever his religious or political prepossessions, proud of other Devonshire men who rise to eminence, and which exerts a wholesome influence on the tone of manners and social intercourse. Sir Stafford was a thorough Devonshire man, who loved his county and knew its dialect: his Devonshire stories, told with the strong accent he could assume, were the delight of any company that could tempt him to repeat them. He had the regular education of the good old English type, was a schoolboy at Eton, then went to Oxford, won the highest distinctions as a scholar, and laid the foundations of a remarkably wide knowledge of modern as well as ancient literature. He served his apprenticeship to statesmanship as private secretary to Mr. Gladstone, who was then (1843) a member of Sir Robert Peel's Government. When the great schism in the Tory party took place over the question of free trade in corn, he was not yet in Parliament, and therefore had not to choose between Peel and the protectionists. In 1855, when he first entered the House of Commons, that question was settled and gone, so there was no inconsistency in his ranging himself with the Tory party, although himself a decided free-trader. His ability speedily brought him to the top. He became a Minister in 1859, entered the Cabinet in 1866, when a new Tory Ministry was formed under Lord Derby, and in 1876, when Mr. Disraeli retired to the House of Lords, he became leader of the Ministerial majority in the House of Commons.

As a Parliamentarian he had two great and eminent merits—immense knowledge and admirable readiness. He was all his life a keen observer and a diligent student; and as his memory was unusually retentive, all that he had observed or read stood constantly at his command. In questions of trade and finance—questions which, owing, perhaps, to their increasing intricacy, seem to be less and less mastered by practical politicians—he was especially strong. He was, indeed, the only man on his own side in politics whose authority on such matters was generally acknowledged, and the brunt of the battle fell on him alone when they came up for discussion. As he now had his old master for his chief antagonist, the conflict was no easy one; but he never shrank from it. Not less remarkable was his quickness in debate. His manner was somewhat ineffective, for it wanted variety. Sentence followed sentence in a smooth and easy stream, always clear, always grammatically correct, but the stream was perhaps too equable. There were few impressive phrases, few brilliant figures, few of those appeals to passion with which it is necessary to warm and rouse a large assembly. When the House grew excited at the close of a long party debate, and Sir Stafford rose in the small hours of the morning to wind it up in behalf of his party, men felt that the ripple of his sweet voice, the softness of his gentle manner, were not what the occasion called for. But what he had to say was always to the point and well worth hearing. No facts or arguments suddenly thrown at him by opponents seemed to disconcert him; there was sure to be an answer ready. However weak his own case might seem, his ingenuity could always strengthen it; however powerfully the hostile case had been presented, he never failed to find weak places in it and to break it down by a succession of well-planted criticisms, each apparently small, but damaging when taken all together.

It was interesting to watch him as he sat on the front bench, with his hat set so low on his brow that it hid all the upper part of his face, while the lower part was covered by a thick beard—perfectly motionless, rarely taking a note of what was said, and, to all appearance, the most indifferent figure in the House. But when he rose, one perceived that nothing had escaped him. Every point which an antagonist had made was taken up and dealt with; no point that could aid his own contention was neglected, and the fluent grace with which his discourse swept along was not more surprising than the unfailing skill with which he shunned dangerous ground, and put his propositions in a form which made it difficult to contradict them. I remember to have heard an eminent chief of the opposite party remark, that nothing was more difficult than to defend your argument from Northcote, because he had the art of nibbling it away, admitting a little in order to evade or overthrow the rest.

With these intellectual gifts, he possessed the still rarer merit of unfailing courtesy and a temper almost too unruffled. Not only did he never seek to give pain, even where pain might have been a wholesome discipline for pushing selfishness—he seemed incapable of irritation, and bore with vexatious obstruction from some members of the House and mutinous attacks from others who belonged to his own party, when a spirit less kindly and forgiving might have better secured his own authority and the dignity of the assembly. He seemed to proceed on the assumption that every one else was a gentleman like himself, penetrated by the old traditions of the House of Commons. It is an assumption which, as his own career proved, can no longer be safely made.

His tactics in leading the Opposition against Mr. Gladstone's Ministry from 1880 till 1885 have been often censured by his own party. That party was then furious at its unexpected defeat at the election of 1880; it was full of fight, burning for revenge, eager to denounce every trifling error of the Ministry, and give battle on small as well as great occasions. Hence it resented the calm and cautiously critical attitude which Sir Stafford Northcote took up. He saw, as impartial observers saw, that little was to be gained by worrying an enemy so superior in force and flushed with victory, and that it was wiser to wait till the Ministry should begin to make mistakes and incur misfortunes in the natural course of events, before resuming the offensive against them. There is always a tendency to reaction in English popular opinion, and a tendency to murmur against whichever party may be in power. This tendency would before long have told in favor of the Tories, with little effort on their own part; and when it was already manifest, a Parliamentary attack could have been delivered with effect. Sir Stafford was probably right, but, being too prone to yield to pressure, he allowed himself to be drawn by the clamor of his followers into aggressive operations which, nevertheless, not quite himself approving them, he conducted in what seemed a half-hearted way.

Not only was his own temper pacific, but he was too reasonable a man, too large-minded, too dispassionate, to be a successful party leader. He was superior to the ordinary prejudices of old-fashioned Toryism, while yet he was too cautious and conscientious to lend himself to the demagogism of Tory democracy. In fact, so far as political opinions went, he might, had fortune sent him into the world as the son of a Whig family, have made an excellent Whig, removed as far from high Toryism on the one hand as from Radicalism on the other. There was, therefore, a certain incompatibility between the man and the position. The average partisan felt that his leader was not in perfect sympathy with his own sentiments. The militant partisans, whatever their sentiments, desired a pugnacious chief. Had he possessed a more imperious will, he might have overcome these difficulties, because his abilities and experience were so great that the party could not do without him, and his character stood so high that the mass of sensible Tories all over the country would have rallied to him, if he had appealed to them against the intriguers and malcontents who sought to supplant him. Lord Salisbury has been blamed for not having given him a vigorous support against these intriguers; but till more is known of the secret history of the last three years, it would be unfair to take the charge as proved.

As an administrator, Sir Stafford Northcote was diligent, judicious, and singularly free from any taint of jobbery. He sought for nothing for himself; he never abused his patronage; he never forgot the interests of the country; he never grudged labor, although there might be no prospect of winning credit by it. It was remarked of him that even in great party meetings, where invective against political opponents is apt to be expected and relished, he never condescended to abuse, and always argued fairly. Few statesmen of our times have been so generally popular. The fire of his opponents was hardly ever directed against him, even when controversy was hottest. In private life he had the charm of perfectly simple and unpretending

manners, coupled with a rich fund of humor, an immense store of anecdote, and a geniality which came straight from the heart. Three years ago, when the University of Edinburgh celebrated its tercentenary, he happened to be Lord Rector, and in that capacity had to preside over the festivities. Although a total stranger to Scotland, and far removed (for he was a strong High Churchman) from sympathy with Scottish Presbyterianism, he won golden opinions from the Scotch, as well as from the crowd of foreign visitors, by the tact and grace with which he discharged all his duties, and the skill with which, putting off the politician, he entered into the spirit of the occasion as a lover of letters and learning. Though it was in respect of his political eminence that he had been elected to the office, every one felt that it would not have been easy to have found in the ranks of literature and science any one fitter to preside over such a gathering.

He leaves behind few or none in his own party in whom the capacities of the practical statesman are so happily blended with a philosophic judgment and a wide culture. It is a combination which was inadequately appreciated in his own person, and is likely to be less and less appreciated in the stormy epoch on which England seems to be entering. Vehemence in controversy, domineering audacity of purpose, the power of moving crowds by incisive and stirring harangues, are the qualities which the new generation seems disposed to cultivate. They are qualities apt to be valued in a time of strife, a time when men are less concerned to develop and advance their principles than to consolidate the organization of their party and dazzle the nation by large promises or bold strokes.

O. D.

ANOTHER VIEW OF THE DAILY PRESS IN ITALY.

ROME, January 21.

As against "J. W. M." in No. 1123 of the *Nation*, I am not disposed to claim a very high position for the Italian press as compared with the leading English and American papers; but what your correspondent says of the principal papers is most unjust. The *Perseveranza* is one of the best dailies on the Continent, and as able as ever it was; the *Nazione* of Florence is a high-toned, honest, admirably written paper, and one of the most influential in the kingdom. Its articles on the Papal question and the chief topics of Continental politics are cast in the largest type of patriotism, and it never bends to local prejudices, lends itself to personalities, or fears to be locally unpopular. I "read the *Opinione* of Rome," and find it very clear-headed and fair, though I do not know its editor or one of its writers. The *Tribuna, me judice*, is far from being the best Roman paper, though I should hardly be prepared to say which is. I should, six months ago, have named the *Rassegna*, but that was stopped in November, as "J. W. M.," says, not without some inaccuracy. The *Rassegna* was owned by Sonnino and Toraca. They differed on the course to be taken at the last crisis, and, both being deputies, one voted with, and the other against, the Ministry; and as they saw no prospect of working together, and neither cared to carry on the paper at his sole expense, they agreed to stop it lest it fall below the old standard in some other hands. It was as good a paper as any on the Continent, much of the character of the *Temps* of Paris, the best French daily.

The *Opinione*, the *Stampa*, and the *Riforma* are all better papers, in my opinion, than the *Tribuna;* and the *Popolo Romano*, a small paper, contains (as it well may, being the official paper) little besides concise and well-written short articles expressing the views of the Ministry, and few papers in Italy give much space to anything but the news and internal correspondence, general Italian information. *Fanfulla* and *Capitan Fracassa* are very bright, witty papers, and the *Corriere di Roma* is a capital daily, if a little too abundant in sparkling articles, admirably written, however. Besides these, there are scores of papers not noteworthy by name, but, as local organs, creditable and always in good Italian, though, like American country newspapers, devoted to local interests.

Italian journalism is unexciting, it is true, because it has no cause to be savage or trenchant; but it is as clever intellectually as ever. The difficulty is that, as journalism lives on the suggestions of the day, it is dull on dull days. "J. W. M." misses the entire character of Italian public life, which has changed with the changed state of the country. Italians are too sensible to form parties on fictions, and, there being no parties and no party organs, and nobody being excited about topics of general publicity, the journals are for the time poorly supported. This makes them poorly paid, and throws them into the hands of men of political aspirations, and (inevitable consequence in all countries), instead of being party organs, they become personal organs. Very few of them pay expenses, and they are therefore mostly kept alive by subventions as was always the case. If the *Popolo Romano* is the organ of the Ministry as a whole, the *Stampa* of the Department of the Interior, etc., etc., in what is that better or worse than that the *Riforma* should be the organ of Crispi, the *Roma del Popolo* of Mazzini, the *Diritto* of Doda, or the *Tribuna* of Cairoli, etc., etc.? "Of the *Popolo Romano* and its editor, the less said the better." I do not know the editor, and have never heard him spoken of for ill or good; but I have the paper on my breakfast table every morning, and find it, if concise and reserved when I wish it would speak out, a respectable and dignified journal, able, always to the point, and with plenty of backbone. It is (and I speak from a position outside of the circle of Roman journalists, of whom I know not half-a-dozen) a paper to be well spoken of and read with profit.

Plenty of papers are dead in Italy and plenty more will die, because, though Italy is an old country and its people a mature one, their state is in a metamorphosis, and the relation of parts is new, so that changes are continually taking place, new commercial interests developing, new institutions being formed. But the life intellectual of the nation is as vigorous as ever it was, and if the absorbing or exciting topic does not offer, the subtlety and intellectual grasp are as great as ever. Italians as a nation do not read much, it is true, because education is still very limited; they lose little, considering what those nations generally read that do read much. They do not print many books, but we know nations that print too many. I cannot say, though I have every interest to wish it otherwise, that journalism is largely patronized in Italy; but I can conscientiously say that it is not falling off in ability, and if it does not govern the nation as in exciting days, it does all that the existing conditions demand. It is true that in Italy journalism is mostly ill paid, and occupies young men of talent who are forming their views and creating their positions, so that necessarily there is a great deal of immature work to be found in the journals. But one must be a dreary doctrinaire not to find in the *Nazione*, the *Italia*, the *Fungolo*, *Perseveranza*, *Opinione*, *Riforma*, and many others the proof that the Italian mind is as alert, active and subtle as ever it was if the theme offers. Why, even the old *Osservatore Romano*, organ of the Vatican, is ten times the paper it used to be when the Pope reigned over Rome. The views of "J. W. M." are those of one out of all present connection with politics and out of touch with the actual condition of Italy, forgetful that the entire Italian life has changed between 1870 and 1886, and surprised not to find *midi à quatre heures.*

W.

DUMAS'S "FRANCILLON."

PARIS, January 28, 1887.

I MUST confess having been disappointed in "Francillon," the new drama by Alexandre Dumas which is being played at the Théâtre-Français, and, I will say at once, admirably played. I have no fault to find with the actors, but the actors disappear, in this case, before the author; their perfection seemed to me even rather irritating, and I could at times not help asking myself if they were not doing too much for the author, and concealing too completely the imperfections of the piece. It is impossible not to feel great sympathy for Alexandre Dumas; there is in all his literary work a constant and at times an almost painful effort towards a better social ideal, towards a higher standard of morality. He is a singular sort of moralist, but he is a moralist. He has discovered virtue, as a traveller discovers some new land, and he has liked it after having discovered it. He began life with the free-and-easy "Dame aux Camélias," and he surrounded her with a poetical halo. He afterwards found his way out of the "demi-monde," and took the mask off the face of the dangerous adventuress who means to rise from the "demi-monde" into the real "monde." He learned to distinguish between the good and the bad peaches, as handsome as the good ones, but with a little black spot, the only sign of decay and corruption. He afterwards fought many a battle for the rights of the natural son, for the rights of woman, for divorce. He may be considered one of the authors of the law which has recently been passed, and which has reëstablished divorce in France, under certain conditions.

Under the various expressions of his intense curiosity and of his moralizing tendencies, under all his bitter expressions of contempt, of anger, at the sight of all the sufferings caused by the present arrangement of society, you can discover a fundamental idea, a Calvinistic idea, an innate belief in the iniquity of man and of woman. Dumas believes in what the Puritans called the total depravity of man; and though he proposes today one cure, to-morrow another, for the evils of society, he really believes in none. It cannot be said of him, "Castigat ridendo mores." There is something sinister in his laugh; his pleasantries are cutting, he has no geniality. He is an artist, however, he can at times give us a poetical and fresh outline of youth, of pure love, of the pleasures of maternity; but he seems ashamed of himself when he has dwelt too long in the azure of fine and pure sentiments, and he throws himself back immediately, as with a sudden jerk, into the dark abyss of vice, of hypocrisy, of corruption. He takes a dark view of life, of his own time, and of all times; and, in this respect, he may be called a representative man. He is the true image of a generation which has no definite principles, no clear view of duty, which is working its way towards an unknown future with fear, with effort, without hope, in a sort of pathological despair.

All these tendencies, all these preoccupations, are found in a high degree in "Francillon." Dumas has set before himself, as usual, a high and moral object: he wished to prove that conjugal fidelity is as imperative a duty for a man as it is for a woman; that a contract is bilateral, and that it cannot give rights without duties. So far, so good; but how has he worked out this idea? He has been obliged to invent very repul-

sive characters, and to show a husband, Lucien de Riverolles, who neglects his wife after two years of marriage, and who returns to his old associates, among whom is a certain Rosalie Michon, well known of all Paris. The first act throws us in the society of Lucien. We see him reading his newspaper with the air of a man who is tired of his home; we see his friends, who have been dining with him—frivolous clubmen, companions of his youth, who speak before his wife as if she were not there. She has been accustomed from childhood to this freedom in her own circle and her own family. She never has felt any restraint; her mother died when she was young, her father is a clubman himself, a selfish old child. Her name is Francine, but she allows her husband's friends to call her by her nickname of Francillon. With the experience she acquired in her earliest days why did she marry Lucien de Riverolles? and, what is more, why does she love him?—for she loves him with an intense and hungry passion, she loves him only, she has hardly any love for her young child, though she has nursed the child herself. A married friend, a Mrs. Smith, who belongs to her intimate circle, and who is a sort of *repoussoir*, as the French painters say, has in vain tried to persuade her that, as soon as a woman is married, the wife must disappear in the mother. Francillon is less a mother than a wife, and less a wife than a lover; she is passionate, eccentric, in many senses unreasonable; she has the modern malady, the *névrose*. The actress who plays the part, Mlle. Bartet, is very high-strung, and she prepares us at once for the extraordinary behavior of Francillon.

Everybody is gone: one after the other the friends have taken their leave; the husband and the wife remain alone. Francillon is enervated, she is sentimental, she is angry. During the evening all these men have spoken of this Rosalie Michon, whom her husband once knew, whom he perhaps still sees; she is instinctively jealous, and she shows it, like a child of nature. The husband wants to go out, though it is late; she tries to keep him—no, he must go, he has promised some friends at the club to go with them to the Opéra ball; he must keep his promise. You see the scene: the man in haste, scornful, treating his wife like a child; the wife, struck at heart, humble first, then proud, finally angry and vengeful. She says to him in the end: "Mark my words, if you ever deceive me, it will be eye for eye, tooth for tooth." He laughs and goes. He goes, and then we see a terrible change come over Francillon. She must follow him. She dresses rapidly, and, to the astonishment of the servants, leaves her house at one o'clock in the morning, alone, on foot. She goes, she is gone; the lamps are put out, and the curtain falls.

This first act is the best; it is extremely clever, and, in the end, very impressive. The second and third acts are not so good. One night has made a great revolution. Francillon has taken a cab and gone to the door of her husband's club; she has watched him, followed him to the Opéra. She has shown the cleverness of a detective, has procured rapidly a domino, has seen her husband in a box with Rosalie Michon, seen him go away with her; she has asked an unknown man to take her to the restaurant of the Maison d'Or, where he has gone himself. She has had supper in a room close to his room. She has had the same supper—she shows him the next morning the *menu*, shows him the number of her cab, gives him all the possible proofs of the vengeance she has taken. He will not believe her at first; she accumulates the proofs. He has deceived her, and did she not say to him: "Eye for eye, tooth for tooth"?

I have heard that Alexandre Dumas was extremely afraid of the effect of this scene. There was indeed something very monstrous in the action of this young and so far pure and innocent Francillon. The public feel instinctively that a human being cannot jump so desperately from a state of innocence and virtue into an abyss of vulgar and ignoble corruption. We say to ourselves what the poet says:

"Quelque crime toujours précède les grands crimes."

The scene is, however, conducted with so much skill that the public accepted it; we were all surprised at Francillon's folly, but we did not exactly know how far she had gone. She left us in the dark; she spoke of herself as a woman who had made the sacrifice of her honor, but we did not know whether she was really guilty or not. Her husband did not know either. She bids him kill her: "Tue-moi donc"—and he does not kill her. He assembles a sort of family council, and asks advice of everybody. This family council is one of the most extraordinary things I have ever seen on the stage. The father of Lucien, consulted by his son, seizes the opportunity and tells us, in old-fashioned French, a *conte de Brantôme;* he treats the whole matter very lightly, insists upon having cards brought, and plays a game of piquet with Mrs. Smith, to whom he says confidentially that really his son is "un serin." This familiar expression is not easy to translate: "serin" is the name of a bird—it is equivalent to a fool, an idiot, a light-headed, silly creature; and the word is not too severe for Lucien de Riverolles, who thinks himself dishonored as a husband, and who takes everybody into his confidence. Every one of his friends gives his advice, they all discuss his situation before him. One of these friends, called Stanislas, and familiarly called Stan, is the type of those men whom a modern dramatist has called the "inutiles": he is a man of leisure and of fashion, and is disgusted with everything and everybody, and especially with himself. He makes his outpourings of disgust and of *ennui* in the family council, and, finally, lights a cigar, and exclaims, "Il n'y a même plus de bons cigares."

I was reminded of a recent and scandalous trial which has for weeks occupied all England, by the behavior of M. Lucien de Riverolles, who, in this second act, cross-examines all his servants on the subject of their mistress's behavior during this unfortunate night spent at the Opéra and at the Maison d'Or. One of them, a footman, had followed his mistress to the door of the club, from there to the Opéra, from the Opéra to the Maison d'Or. There are some comical details in his cross-examination, and here the comedy becomes a mere vaudeville. I am sorry to say that it remains so to the end. The dénouement would not be out of harmony with the plays of the Palais-Royal. What we all want to know is this: Is Francillon guilty or not? Has she really been as bad as she would have her husband think? In his anger, he declares that she and he must separate—that they must separate their fortunes first; and he sends for his notary (by telephone, for we now have telephones on the stage). The notary is absent, and who comes in his place? His first clerk, a tall, handsome young man, who goes, when his work is finished, to the balls of the Opéra, and who, at the last ball, offered his arm to Francillon. There he is in the flesh, the *bel inconnu*, and the question now arises, Will he tell the whole truth, since she would not? He is rather ashamed of himself, as he did not play the *beau rôle;* he did not even pay for the supper at the Maison d'Or—Francillon had paid for it herself. The truth finally comes out: the young clerk is not a dangerous Lovelace; Francillon has only made an escapade, and she is virtuous, as pure as the morning dew. Lucien de Riverolles also is virtuous: he only saw his Rosalie Michon because she wanted to have his advice on a marriage which she meditated making with one of her numerous friends. "Embrassons-nous et que ça finisse," as the French often say. This is pure vaudeville, and—

"Desinit in piscem mulier formosa superne."

Dumas has proved nothing. If we reflect a moment, we cannot take a very hopeful view of the ménage Riverolles; we can anticipate new troubles in the union of this "serin" and of this neuropathic Francillon. There are some charming, some eloquent and pathetic parts in this play, which on the whole is very unsatisfactory. What must be chiefly regretted is the disregard of common decency which is shown at times, and quite unnecessarily; there are some details, some words, which are truly painful in this respect. The play cannot be said to be immoral, for it even intends to be moral; but the author often forgets what modesty means.

Correspondence.

"INFLUENTIAL."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Having procured a copy of the *Forum* for last October, I find that I have something to say, in continuation of my letter of the 20th instant, regarding Bishop Coxe's "Americanisms in England." To what extent this is a misnomer for his article, shall be made out before I have done with it.

Influential is a term the imagined misuse of which sorely disquiets him. In treating of it, however, he has betrayed that his conversance with literature, no less than his philological proficiency, must be characterized as exceedingly pupillary. This is to be regretted.

"As a person," he writes, "cannot be conceived of as poured out or infused, though his language may be flowing and operative like wine, I doubt whether an 'influential man' would be acceped [*sic*] usage even in Scotland." There is allusion, in this, to the somewhat rare adjective *influent*, a word which occurs, in its strictly etymological sense, in Cowper's "Thames with influent tide." In passing, the Bishop refers, for *influent*, only to a quotation in Richardson's Dictionary; and this quotation he fathers on "Bishop Montague, a writer of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries." Here, as almost everywhere, he is deplorably uncritical. He gets the name wrong, he episcopizes his "Montague," and he antedates his time. The author in question is Walter Mountagu, second son of the first Earl of Manchester, born in 1604. Leaving the Church of England, he joined that of Rome, and became Abbot of the Monastery of Nanteuil, and also of the abbey of St. Martin, near Pontoise. Richardson's quotation is from his 'Miscellanea Spiritualia,' of which the first part and the second were originally published in 1648 and 1653, respectively.

A much older authority than Walter Mountagu for *influent*, with one a few years later, deserves notice; for I pass by the doubtful Chaucerian substantive *influents* for *influences*. Lydgate, in the "Lenvoye" to the last Book of his 'Bochas,' written about 1430, has: "An heavenly signe by *influent* purveyaunce Sent from above to shew Edwardes right." And Dr. Thomas Fuller, in his 'Church-history,' published in 1655, says, in Book viii, Sect. iii, §6, relatively to Bishop Richard Cox, that he "was vertually *influent* upon all, and most active . . . in the prudential part of Church-government." In these passages *influent* signifies "exerting power"; and so it does, obviously, in Mountagu's "Humilitie . . . is more operative and *influent* upon oth-

ers, then any other vertue," which Bishop Coxe misquotes and misunderstands.

The French have had, for some hundred years, as an intransitive verb, *influer*, "to be of influence," "to act by a secret virtue"; and they now, further, use it causatively, in the sense of "to make to enter," "to infuse." They likewise have, as a recent creation, the related adjective *influent*, "possessing influence." In like manner our old *influent* owed its existence, in all probability, directly to *influere*, as employed by astrologers. Otherwise, it was suggested by the substantive *influence;* in which case it has an analogue in *experient*, "having experience," an unusual equivalent of *experienced*. I am not aware that we ever had a verb *to influe*, matching *to imbue*, though Joshua Sylvester presupposes it in his "pleasant *Influing* of Pleiades." See "Job Triumphant," in his 'Works' (ed. 1621), p. 944. Gaule, in his 'Magastromancer' (1652), p. 93, uses *to inflow*, "to exert influence," of the stars; and other writers on astrology have, presumably, done the same. Evidently enough, Bishop Coxe is of opinion that *influential* ought to have, exclusively, the same meaning as *influent*—taken as one with *inflowing*—of which he appears to regard it as no better than an elongation, and as a depravation to boot. If not, why does he say that "Dr. Johnson seems to allow it, in the sense of 'exerting influence'; but, probably, physical influence is intended"; implying that the lexicographer, when he constructed his definition, was nodding, or else it would have been something different? And why does he introduce the criticism of a brother bishop, that, as between *influent* and *influential*, the former "is the better word"; while he himself calls it "the more orthodox word"? For the rest, mistranscribing, from Richardson's Dictionary, Thomson's "Thy *influential* vigour reinspires This feeble frame," he dogmatizes that its *influential* is "used for *influent*." Of this we can hardly be sure. As my subjoined quotations, especially those from Gaule, bear witness, *influential* has been made to bear a variety of significations; but "inflowing," which Bishop Coxe identifies with the old *influent*, is not among those which I have chanced on. It cannot, indeed, be pronounced peremptorily that, like Cowper with his *influent*, Thomson does not, in his *influential*, indulge in a literal Latinism, and would better have put *penetrative*. Still, the notion that he intends, by it, "actuating," "controlling," "efficacious," or, archaically, "prevalent," is not to be dismissed as altogether unworthy of consideration.

Substantial is from the genuine Latin *substantialis;* and we have, or have had, a good number of adjectives from factitious Latin vocables with the same termination as that of *substantialis*, based on rhematic substantives, real or assumed. Anomalously, *reverential* is, as sometimes employed, one with *reverent*. But *confidential*, *differential*, *evidential*, *penitential*, and *providential*, to go no further, differ, in import, from *confident*, etc. Yet, according to the Bishop's reasoning, the pairs should be synonymous, and the shorter members of them should be held to be "the more orthodox." When philosophers wanted a technical term opposed to *actual*, they did not satisfy themselves with *potent*, burdening it with a new sense, but Anglicized the mediæval *potentialis*. Similarly, to obtain an adjective importing not only "possessed of influence," but "exerting influence," "pertaining to influence," and so on, discarding the old *influent*, they built *influential* on *influence*, or they may have had *influentialis* ready to their hands for adaptation, developed from the Low Latin *influentia*.

Quite unexceptionable, for the French, with their verb *influer*, "to be of influence," is *influent*, "having influence" the application of which they confine to persons. "An *influential* man" they render by "un homme *influent*"; and their adjective is greatly inferior to ours, in not being analogically susceptible, according to circumstances, of a multiplicity of significations. But our old *influent*, particularly in the absence of a verb *to influe*, was naturally superseded by *influential*. Except to the learned, it must have had a strange air; and it did not immediately remind any but them, as *influential* did, of *influence*. Improvement on obscurity gave us *influential*, as it gave us *influence to*, and then *influence on*—which displaced the Latinistic *influence into*—with *ingredient of*, in place of *ingredient into*.

Bishop Coxe must excuse me if I cannot help thinking that, even if he had pondered his Bible more heedfully, he might have been led to take a more tenable view of the word *influential*. The idea, authorized by the Holy Ghost, which transpires in the phrase "the sweet *influences* of Pleiades," points, unmistakably, in spite of John Gaule and other rationalizing expositors, to a belief in the effect of the stars on human destiny and terrestrial matters generally. Here we have the term *influence* used in what is ascertained to have been its original acceptation; it having been coined, like *ascendant*, *disaster*, etc., as an astrological technicality. By *influence*, "influx," our more or less distant forefathers, in their wisdom, understood, primarily, the action by which a mysterious ether, astral or lunar, comparable to the fluid with which the lodestone has been speculatively invested, reached our planet, and then, by a common figure of speech, that ether itself, regarded as an embodiment of occult energy. Of course there was frequent occasion to speak of the stars both as putting forth their power and as simply endowed with power; and their possession of power, or exertion of it, or relation to it, whereas it was not unequivocally denoted by *influent*, was sufficiently well denoted (contexts favoring) by its successor, *influential*. While still current in astrology, however, *influential*, soon after its rise, was engrafted on the popular speech. As far as I have discovered, it began to find favor, in ordinary discourse, in the dark days when English religionists, whether Laudian or otherwise, not only were familiar with the terminology of star-gazing, but were numerously wedded to that and kindred futilities and fatuities. But, much as I reluctantly leave unsaid, I must pass on to my quotations. "The late learned Bishop of Chester"—that is to say, Dr. Jacobson—gave it as his judgment, Bishop Coxe alleges, that "he doubted whether *influential* could be found in any writer before the present century, in a moral sense." The American magnate eulogizes his old-country peer as being "a specialist in English words." From what has preceded and what is to follow, it may be inferred how far he justified the compliment:

"The more full and sweet *influentiall* manifestations of his [God's] presence among them." Rev. Thomas Case (1643), *Three Sermons* (1644), p. 32.

"In like manner, Jesus Christ . . . hath a very strong and *influentiall* vertue upon the Heart of a Christian." Rev. Obadiah Sedgwick, *Christ the Life* (1650), p. 5.

"This is Jacobs Ladder: without this there is no Ascent or Descent, either *Influentiall* or Personall." Rev. Thomas Vaughan, *Anthroposophia Theomagica* (1650), p. 23.

"These *influentiall* Channels [of the stars] were broken" "The Starres and their *influentiall* Constellations." "*Influentiall* vertues" [of the stars]. "The *influentiall* motion of the Stars." "Consisting of an *influentiall* and elementary mixtion." "Potentiall influxes, *influentiall* proclivities, seminall dispositions." Rev. John Gaule, *Magastromancer* (1652), pp. 3, 49, 63, 77, 136, 147.

"Their *influentiall* beneficiall fellowship ceaseth." "The whole City, unto which he was profitably *influentiall*." Rev. Simeon Ashe, *Funeral Sermon*, June 18 (1655), pp. 10, 28.

"Hurtful errours, *influential* on practice." Rev. Dr. Isaac Barrow (died 1677), *Treatise of the Pope's Supremacy* (ed. 1687), p. 140. "This [God's doing] I put in the first place, as previous in nature, and *influentiall* upon the rest." "The consideration that God doth uphold all things . . . may, upon several good accounts, be *influential* upon our practice." "Our Saviour's example is especially *influential* upon practice." "Meek and gentle ways, directly *influential* upon mind and conscience." "Their deportment being of higher consequence, and most *influential* on the world." Barrow, *Works* (ed. 1686, 1687), vol. i, p. 143; vol. ii, p, 168; vol. iii, pp. 35, 289, 425.

"History should do Justice to all Persons extraordinarily quahfied, and *influential* on Affairs of the Public." "So *influential* are Faction and Prejudice, in Matters of Justice." "He was of such an over-ruling Genius . . . as enabled him to be very *influential* among the Citisens." Roger North (died 1734), *Examen* (1740), pp. 221, 518, 550.

"You must needs think—but I will say no more; so flatly denied, and your example so *influential*." Samuel Richardson (1754), *Correspondence* (1804), vol. iii, p. 216.

"More ceremony, and a greater regard for forms, . . . are, I will venture to assert, *influential* principles in every other kingdom of Europe." "All the qualities . . . should be blended together in our minds and hearts, and made *influential* of [*i. e.*, on] our opinions and practices." "From the want of successors to his crown, in *influential* degrees." "The *influential* honour of an able and steady administration of power." "But the goodness of his troops is to be attributed to the discipline he has established, the incitements he has made happily *influential*." Anon., *The Herald* (1757 8), vol. i, p. 131; vol. ii, pp. 97, 125, 140, 201 (ed. 1758).

"Perhaps thou art a leading man, and the Esteem of thy wisdom is *influential* on the conduct of others." "Both these societies are *influential* on those who belong to them." Rev. William Jones, of Nayland (some time before 1800), *Theological and Miscellaneous Works* (1810), Vol. i. p. 145; vol. ii, p. 11.

The Rev. Joseph Glanvill, who died in 1680, has *influential* six times, and *uninfluential* twice.

Only Sir Thomas Browne is cited, by the dictionaries, for *influentially*. Here are three other oldish quotations for it:

"Why the starres should be more notable for *influentially* operating." Gaule (as above), p. 97.

"Christ is *influentially* operative in the soul where he resideth." Rev. Simeon Ashe, *Funeral Sermon*, March 10 (1654), p. 27.

"Though they were few men comparatively, yet *influentially* they were many." Bishop Gauden, *Ecclesiæ Anglicanæ Suspiria* (1659), p. 325.

At a period when *influential* was seldom used, we occasionally find, in its stead, *influencing*:

"The house was not contaminated with the more *influencing* example of the Perdita." *The New Spectator* (1784), No. viii, p. 7.

In my 'Modern English' there are particulars touching *influential* and *influencive* which I shall not here repeat. Since I printed that work, in 1873, supposing that I had satisfactorily proved *influential* to have been of good repute in former times, I have not, I am convinced, made a note of one instance of its occurrence in ten that I have met with in authors of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. The array of citations produced above is, consequently, most meagre, as compared with what it might have been.

"'An *influential* person,' even now," says Bishop Coxe, "is an expression hardly tolerable." I have lived upwards of forty years on British soil; and I feel that I run no risk whatever of being thought to labor under hallucination in asserting that not one Englishman out of 10,000 would hesitate to say that so and so is "an *influential* man in his county." If Fuller, as has been seen, qualified Dr. Cox as *influent*, surely we may be permitted to qualify Dr. Coxe, at least in his ecclesiastical capacity, as *influential*, unlikely as he may be, without long-continued and independent research, to win that epithet in the department of our vernacular philology.

Your obedient servant,
F. Hall.
Marlesford, Wickham Market, Jan. 23, 1887.

WAYS AND MEANS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There is one thing which it seems as if the people of the United States were entitled to know, and that is the condition of their national accounts, the facts as to the national income and expenditure. But they evidently cannot do this if half-a-dozen authorities, officially of precisely equal weight, each tell them a different story. According to your statement, Senator Morrill says there is a deficit of 24 millions, Senator Allison says there is a surplus of 15 millions (or, allowing for the suspension of the Sinking Fund, if it is suspended, of 63 millions), while Senator Beck undertakes to show that this is 27 millions too small, and that there is a real surplus of 90 millions. Considering that upon a correct estimate depends the necessity of a reduction of revenue or the possibility of increased expenditure, and, what is more important, whether the Treasury, by drawing in its surplus in cash, shall seriously endanger the money market, it is plain that this is not the way in which the finances of a nation should be managed. It is stated that all these jarring calculations are based upon the report of the Secretary of the Treasury. One might suppose that this report was an ancient manuscript discovered in some Eastern monastery, over which scholars might wrangle for centuries without coming to any conclusion. In fact, there is one man whose proper function and whose duty it is to make the whole matter clear to a cent, and without the possibility of a doubt, under cross-examination by all of these critics. For that purpose it is only needed that the Secretary of the Treasury should be admitted to a share in the financial debates of the two houses.

There is a growing consciousness throughout the country that the Speaker of the House has the most extensive and the most irresponsible power of any man in the Government. By his entire control of the make-up of the committees, subject only to the partisan influences which have elected him, and his option of "recognizing" or giving the floor to whom he pleases, he can suppress, or, to a certain extent, promote, any legislation at his discretion. It appears that Mr. Morrison and Mr. Randall are the heads of two factions, though that is not what they call themselves, which take different views as to the methods for the necessary reduction of the revenue. Mr. Morrison's scheme, which was supported by the Speaker, Mr. Carlisle, was refused consideration by the House, and Mr. Randall and his friends asked for a consideration of theirs; whereupon, according to a correspondent,

"After consultation with Mr. Morrison, the Democratic members of the Ways and Means Committee and other leading Democrats, the Speaker has decided not to grant this request, nor to recognize any one for the purpose indicated. The Speaker and his friends do not think it is either fair or just, under the circumstances, that Mr. Randall and his friends should be recognized for this purpose."

But Mr. Randall, also, can play his little game. The Naval Defence Bill is referred to the Committee on Appropriations, and Mr. Randall, probably "not thinking it fair or just under the circumstances" that it should be considered, decides to put it in his pocket and button it up for the short remainder of the session.

These are interesting methods of carrying on a great Government. Does it not "jump to the eyes" that the executive branch, which is responsible for the administration of the finances as well as of the navy, should have the right to bring its proposals before the houses, and publicly demand consideration of them in the face of the country? G. B.

Boston, February 14, 1887.

A QUESTION FOR KATHEDER SOCIALISTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Dr. Richard T. Ely, writing in the February number of the *North American* on American Economists, insists that in a science there must be no "orthodoxy," that, on the contrary, its votaries can become useful to the world only so far as they dissent from received opinions. In the science of political economy, he says, progress works altogether in a circle. Nothing has been accomplished. No truth has been established by the labors of a century—not even the one simple proposition that the less lawmakers interfere with the course of industry, the better it is for all concerned. In the eighteenth century, he tells us, economists were right in saying, Don't; but now they properly say to the State, Do!

I have one little question to ask "heretical" economists who trust in the power of legislation (navigation acts, tariffs, inter-State commerce bills, eight-hour laws, etc.) to make men happy and rich. Does all interference by the lawmaker increase human happiness and wealth, or must it be wise and well-considered interference?

The reason I ask the question is this. Living now for thirty-five years in one district, which, in the average intelligence of its people, compares well with that of the United States in general, and having watched no less than eighteen elections for Congress, I do not recollect a single one at which the successful candidate was chosen with any view to his supposed superior wisdom or learning in political science. Generally it was some lawyer, who had made a reputation by mere gift of gab in criminal or "damage" cases. Sometimes he was selected for his friendliness to foreigners or for his Know-nothing hatred of that class of the community, for his love of the Union or his sympathy with the suppressed rebellion; at times he owed his seat to the liberal and skilful employment of money at the polls or in a Democratic primary. But not a single man has, from this district, in thirty-five years, been sent to Congress because the people, or even because his friends, believed in his particular fitness to grapple with the grave political questions which might come up at Washington. Moreover, after they all got there, they learned very little. Our present member, the best we ever had, spent all his time at the Capitol in acting as gratuitous claim-agent for his constituents, regardless of party. Of his predecessors, one spent his waking hours mainly at the poker table, and another in drinking whiskey. Yet we have never sent a prize-fighter to Congress, as a New York district did once, nor a Fenian blatherskite, as a section of Chicago did twice; and I feel quite confident that the Louisville members of Congress are a fair sample of the wisdom and ability of the nation's lawmakers.

Now, if political economy is a science in which no solid ground has ever been reached, is it not somewhat chimerical to expect wise measures, benefiting society, based upon the still to be discovered new and true principles of that science, to be enacted by such a Congress as represents the American people?—Respectfully, L. N. D.

Louisville, Ky., February 7, 1887.

"AMERICAN" ARCHITECTURE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The following words of the Government Supervising Architect, taken from an interview published in the Detroit *Evening Journal* of February 5, 1887, may be of general interest. He is describing the new Government building to be erected at Detroit, and says:

"The style of architecture is cosmopolitan, or American, if you please. I have endeavored to combine the serene dignity of Greek architecture with the Gothic, at the same time applying the vigorous lines of the English, the artistic feeling and grace of the French, the refinement of the Italian, and the systematic adaptation of the German schools. I am pleased of the results so far."

When a private man indulges in such preposterous talk as this, we smile at his ignorance. Considered as the utterance of a public official, charged with the duty of selecting plans for the important public buildings which the Government is every day erecting, it is of sadder significance. Does it mean that the dull but harmless conventionalism of the past is about to be superseded by this new "American"—but no, spare us!—this "cosmopolitan," type of public building, of which the Supervising Architect is the patentee? The "results" of which Mr. Bell is so enamored may be best described in the words of a local architect, to whom the plan was submitted:

"It is certainly very cosmopolitan. The main dome is a copy from the Louvre. The corner domes are after the Grand Opera House, Paris. The cornice work is too heavy—some seven or eight feet across its surface. I see weak attempts at Corinthian architecture surmounted by arches of the Romanesque. The cupola on the Shelby St. front is Queen Anne; and, in a word, the whole lacks strength and symmetry."

The President could not render a service of more lasting benefit than a thoroughgoing reformation of the Supervising Architect's office.

Wm. W. Hudson.

Detroit, Mich., February 7, 1887.

HOW TO COLLECT A LIBRARY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Russian book-beggar whose ways were exposed by one of his victims in your issue of February 10, is still at work; and as letters from him addressed to authors in this country are likely to arrive for some time to come, an added word of warning may perhaps be timely. On the 1st of February I received the following letter:

"Chemins de fer
du Süd-ouest
de la Russie.
—
Direction Centrale.
—

"Kiew, January 15, 1887.

"My Dear Sir: I am informed that you are a author of the work on Biology for university students which has great success in America. If it is permitted for a stranger, may I ask as a great favour that you will be good enough as to send for me, as to your *collega*, a copy of the book. I am forced to solicit this favour by impossibility to obtain the book in this country.

"I am,
"Dear Sir,
"Your most obedient servant,
"Roman Plastounoff, M. D."

Pleased to find the book wanted so far from home, I was about to forward a copy when a friend interposed. It is clear from his appeal for a work on natural science as well as for one on political economy, that this fellow—unlike our highway tramps—is omnivorous. It will be noticed, also, that in this letter he signs himself "M. D.," in order the better to urge his request.

Yours truly,
Wm. T. Sedgwick.

Mass. Inst. of Technology, Boston,
February 12, 1887.

THE SOLDIER'S PATRIOTISM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the public discussions of the Pension Bill now before Congress, no politican seems to have had the courage to present one phase of the subject, which, to my mind, is of the utmost significance. No man with any regard for the

honor of his country or the reputation of its citizens, can fail to view with alarm and disgust the growing rapacity of a class of persons who, while posing as patriots, inspired to fight the battles of the commonwealth by a decent and manly ambition to maintain its integrity, are yet eager to barter an honorable reputation for such stuff as hirelings, the world over, will fight for. Honor is prostituted to very base uses when soldiers accept alms for having done what every man of proper spirit thought it his duty to do. I do not allude to those who have been crippled in war. It is the privilege of the country to provide for them. But I do protest that the republic is disgraced by the greed of its soldiers. They should be the first to resent such an imputation as is contained in the Pension Bill. The country is come to a pretty pass when men are content to receive pensions rather than the good opinions and gratitude of their fellow-citizens.

I. H. L.

St. Louis, February 8, 1887.

Notes.

A new edition of W. W. Story's 'Roba di Roma,' enlarged by the author and brought down to date, is about to be published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. from entirely new plates.

Roberts Bros. have in preparation 'Some Chinese Ghosts,' by Lafcadio Hearn; 'Dante,' a sketch of the poet's life and works, by May Alden Ward; 'Cathedral Days: a Tour through Southern England,' by Anna Bowman Dodd; 'Sonnets in Shadow,' by Arlo Bates; 'Between Whiles,' a volume of short stories by the late Helen Jackson; 'A Week away from Time'—on Cape Cod, namely, "by a number of Bostonians"; and 'A Short History of Philadelphia,' by Susan Coolidge.

Ticknor & Co. publish next week 'Forced Acquaintances,' a story by Edith Robinson; and 'The Life and Works of Giordano Bruno,' the new volume in the English and Foreign Philosophical Library.

A complete translation of Mme. Spyri's 'Kurze Geschichten' is promised by D. Lothrop & Co., Boston.

The Rand Avery Co., Boston, are to publish Mr. Joseph Cook's Monday Lectures for the season of 1887.

Index-making has delayed the appearance of Karl Kron's 'Ten Thousand Miles on a Bicycle,' so that April is the date now fixed upon. The author-publisher's address is Station D, New York.

For five years (1873–1878) the late lamented Prof. É. J. Belot, of the Lyons Faculty of Letters, author of the classic 'Histoire des chevaliers romains,' devoted himself in his lectures to the history of the United States. His intention was to make a work of them in several volumes, but nothing has yet seen the light except a study of the peculiar landholding in common established on the island of Nantucket (printed in the Lyons *Annuaire* for 1884). Since his death, however, by the gift of his children, his manuscripts have passed to the Faculty—among them his lectures on our country, "entièrement rédigés." These it is hoped to publish, as we learn from Prof. Bayet's very sympathetic and appreciative notice of his colleague in the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement* for January 15. M. Belot was an ardent advocate of the important movement which has resulted in founding the University of Lyons—the beginning of provincial independence upon the University of France.

To put the 'Nation in a Nutshell,' as Mr. Geo. M. Towle professes to do in "a rapid outline of American history" (Boston: Lee & Shepard), one must have more than a nutshell full of knowledge of his subject to begin with. We will test Mr. Towle's equipment by a single passage (p. 93): "It was early in General Jackson's Presidency that the small but determined 'Liberty party' of the North began to attract attention by what was considered the extravagance of its utterances and the absurdities of its proposals. The Quaker Lundy published his *Genius of Universal Emancipation;* Garrison put forth the *Liberator*," etc.

Mr. Towle is not alone in this confusion of dates, names, and circumstances. Here is Mr. Ben. Perley Poore, in his 'Reminiscences' (Philadelphia: Hubbard Bros.), recording that—"It was during the Administration of Mr. Van Buren that the English abolitionists first began to propagate their doctrines in the Northern States, where the nucleus of an anti-slavery party was soon formed" (vol. i, p. 210). In this statement there is not a word of truth. There is positive chronological inaccuracy and a false implication of cause and consequence in this extract from the late Hugh J. Hastings's 'Ancient American Politics' (Harpers), page 120: "It was during the Administration of President Jackson that England (1834) passed her first act emancipating the slaves of her West India possessions. The abolition of slavery by England was a great event, and had immense power upon the minds of Americans. The subject of emancipation in many of the free States was opened with energy and activity. Abolition societies were formed," etc.

The pleasant announcement comes across the Atlantic that Mr. Robert W. Lowe's theatrical bibliography is at last in press, and that Mr. Lowe is also at work on an edition of Dr. Doran's 'Their Majesties' Servants,' one of the best books about the stage ever written. Mr. Lowe will add notes, and his publishers will add many illustrations. Among the other books of theatrical interest soon to appear are Mr. James Anderson's 'Seven Decades of an Actor's Life,' and 'Yesterdays with Actors,' by Mrs. Winslow, formerly Miss Kate Reynolds. The latter will be published by Cupples, Upham & Co., Boston.

The latest volume of the "Book-Lover's Library" is Mr. H. Trueman Wood's 'Modern Methods of Illustrating Books,' a most interesting subject, already ably treated by M. A. de Lostalot in the volume on 'Les Procédés de la Gravure,' in the "Bibliothèque de l'Enseignement des Beaux-Arts." Mr. Wood's book suffers by comparison with M. de Lostalot's because the English writer has a verbose and lumbering style, an insularity of taste not uncommon among English art critics, and a limited appreciation of what is really good in engraving; but its chief defect is the absence of illustrations, which are an absolute necessity in any discussion of such a subject. M. de Lostalot gave examples of almost every kind of engraving, and Mr. Wood gives none at all. Although the latter rebukes English publishers for their lack of enterprise, he seems to be quite unaware of the great inferiority of English processes of mechanical engraving to the French or the American. The value of Mr. Wood's little book lies in his elaborate statement of the principles of the various mechanical processes.

Of all the cheap "libraries," quite the cheapest is the "Nouvelle Bibliothèque Populaire," just started in France (Paris: Henri Gautier; New York: F. W. Christern), of which the successive volumes are to cost ten centimes (two cents) each. The volumes are thirty-two pages long, and each is to contain a complete work. Among the volumes already published are Hoffmann's tales, 'Hamlet,' Chateaubriand's 'Dernier des Abencérages,' the speeches and proclamations of Napoleon I., the letters of Louis XIV., Goethe's 'Hermann and Dorothea.' Among the volumes published or promised are four translations from American authors—'Histoires Mystérieuses,' by Edgar Poe; Longfellow's 'Evangeline'; 'Récits californiens,' by Bret Harte; and 'L'Héritage du More,' by Washington Irving.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have for sale a variety of little paper books bound with silken thread, constituting a "Japanese Fairy Tale Series." Their place of publication is Tokio, but they are made available for the Anglo-Saxon nursery by idiomatic translations—No. 8, for example, "Urashima," having been turned into English by B. H. Chamberlain. They are uniform in respect of size and in being copiously illustrated, from cover to cover. The stories vary in character from a pointless narrative like "The Mouse's Wedding," to the miraculous legend of "The Old Man Who Made the Dead Trees Blossom," or to Rip Van Winkle in the garb of "The Fisher-Boy Urashima," or to the variant of Mercury and the Woodchopper (or, in the fairy tale, of Toads and Diamonds), called here "The Old Man and the Devils," and again "The Tongue-Cut Sparrow." The art of these little books is not the highest of the Mikado's kingdom, but it is thoroughly characteristic, and clever to an extent which will strike even the youngsters who read these simple tales. One that we have not mentioned, a "Brer Rabbit" story, is rather cruel in its meting out of poetic justice; and to one or two others similar objection might be made. But the humor often covers up the barbarity.

In the Harvard University Bulletin for January are to be found a continuation of the catalogue of the Dante collection, by Wm. Coolidge Lane; a new (supplementary) index of reference lists and special bibliographies included in periodical and other publications of recent date, by the same assistant; a calendar of the Sparks MSS. in the college library, by Justin Winsor; and notes on this library's subject-catalogue.

A question now agitating literary circles in England is whether or not the practice of lending books and manuscripts from the Bodleian Library should be continued. The London *Times* of January 25, calls attention to a recent pamphlet on the subject by Prof. H. W. Chandler, one of the curators of the library. The original statute of the founder, Sir Thomas Bodley, expressly and peremptorily forbade the loan of any books deposited in the library on any condition whatever. For a time this was observed so rigidly that Laud was refused a manuscript which he had himself given, and both Charles I. and Cromwell were unsuccessful applicants for the loan of books. Of late years, however, an exceedingly lax practice has crept in, and now valuable books and manuscripts are sent freely to all parts of England and the Continent. There is even what is known as the "borrowers' list," on which are the names of 111 persons, including two ladies. This, the *Times* contends, is contrary not only to the spirit, but to the letter of even the somewhat modified statutes. It insists that the Bodleian had become the depository of valuable collections mainly because of its supposed inviolability as a reference library, and that Cambridge, which has made the University library a lending library, has suffered in consequence. It closes with a vigorous appeal to Convocation to put a speedy end to a practice "which is contrary to the true interests of letters and of study."

It is announced that the manuscript of Shelley's "Mask of Anarchy," of which we mentioned the late discovery, is immediately to be reproduced for the Shelley Society's Extra Series, and will be ready at once. In connection with it Mr. Forman has pointed out that the sketch which Mrs. Shelley mentions in her accompanying letter as drawn after her husband, is the character of Adrian, Earl of Windsor, in her novel 'The Last Man.' The identity of Adrian with Shelley has

been before suspected, but the authority for it is now so direct that Shelley students will be obliged to pay special attention to this book, which it would seem contains Lord Byron and Mrs. Shelley also. Dowden has shown how closely in other novels Mrs. Shelley drew from her own experience.

Much curious information about the Sandwich Islands is conveyed in the *Hawaiian Almanac and Annual* for 1887 (Honolulu: Thomas G. Thrum). The first paper is on the land shells of the archipelago, so much prized—their distribution, probable variety, enemies (rats and mice in particular), etc. In another, the gradly renewed activity of Kilauea is described. A third treats of Portuguese immigration to the islands and its desirability, though the Government favor is extended to the Japanese. Of the former it is estimated there are at least 12,000, of the latter 2,000, and of the Chinese more than 20,000, and an effort is making to introduce more laborers from the South Sea Islands. It is obvious that some extraordinary race mixtures will ere long diversify the population. The Orientals have, for their own consumption, diminished the exports of rice. The Government has licensed the sale and use of opium, despite all opposition.

The contents of the January number of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography* have a very even and solid excellence, with here an itinerary and there a biographical sketch, copies from letter books, etc., etc. Mr. A. D. Mellick, jr., concludes his useful summary view of German emigration to the American colonies, and Dr. R. P. Robins returns (perhaps a little less confidently than before) to his thesis of the identity of the Thomas Whaley of Bacon's rebellion in Virginia with Theophilus Whale of Narragansett, and Edward Whalley, the regicide. His paper throws a little more light on the Virginia Whalev.

The January number of *Les Lettres et les Arts* (Paris: Boussod, Valadon et Cie.; New York: Scribners) opens with an article by M. Jules Simon, "Un Crime," which has the simplicity and the charm of a personal experience, and the literary perfection of a work of art. Whether it is read as fact or fiction, however, it is certainly a lesson in the highest literary morality, a lesson which there never was greater need than at the present time of impressing upon all, readers as well as writers. A fine and expressive portrait of M. Jules Simon is at the beginning of the article, in which, to be sure, we see rather the Minister and Deputy fallen from public favor than the gentler philosopher and moralist who has succeeded him. Among the more interesting of the other papers is one by M. Antony Valabrègue, "Les Femmes artistes du XIXe siècle—Mme. Haudebourt-Lescot," which accompanies the frontispiece of the number, the portrait by Ingres of the artist while she was still Mlle. Lescot; and another by M. Henri Bouchot, "Marie Antoinette et ses peintres," which is illustrated by a number of the famous pictures of the Queen, concluding with the sketch by David made as she passed in the tumbril, with her hands tied behind her, on her way to the guillotine.

A Turin correspondent of *L'Art* (January 15) remarks on the enviable good fortune of the Italian sculptors in respect to the steady demand upon them for funereal monuments. That their French brethren have not the same felicity arises, we presume, from the different spirit in which cemeteries are regarded and cared for in the two countries. This contrast is pointed out in connection with a notice of Angelo Cugliérero, a sculptor of Turin, who has executed many important works, but, says M. Willems, none more striking than the monument to the son of Count Arnaud di San Salvatore, of which a very attractive drawing is given in this number of *L'Art*.

Some months ago the *Illustrazione Italiana* of Milan gave a double-page engraving of a remarkable painting by Domenico Morelli, "The Twelve Apostles," representing the preaching of the evangel on the shores of Galilee. Anything more unlike the conventional treatment of this scene by the old masters it would be impossible to find. Morelli's realism gave us twelve Orientals, in the garb of the East, squatting about the Teacher in the dry grass which half concealed them. Another canvas, by the same Neapolitan artist, is engraved in the *Illustrazione* for January 23, 1887, and is called "The Magdalen." Jesus stands in the doorway of a synagogue, preaching to a group just without. Mary stands, with uncovered face, a little apart, with her sister Martha, turning towards the spoken word as if arrested by it. This picture doubtless suffers in effectiveness by the reduction.

Petermann's Mitteilungen for January contains an article, by Prof. Th. Fischer, on the changes in portions of the coasts of Tunis and Algiers. This is followed by a notice of an accompanying elaborate map of German Austria, showing the distribution of languages in it according to the returns of the census of 1880. It reveals the fact that the German language has made comparatively little progress in the districts where other tongues are spoken. Bohemia and Moravia are completely surrounded by a narrow strip in which German only is used, and there is a large German "Sprachinsel" on the borders of Croatia, and another smaller one in the heart of the Italian Alps, not far from Trient. Of course the educated and the commercial classes in all these countries use the German, but their native tongue still holds its own with the common people.

The Belgian Company for developing the resources of the Congo have just organized two expeditions, the one of engineers for the survey of a route for a railway to Leopoldville, the other of agriculturists, geologists, and traders' agents to explore the river and its tributaries above Stanley Pool.

Now and then we hear sad stories of the accumulation of cases before the Supreme Court of the United States. Let our judges follow the example of the seven Chambers of the Court of Appeal at Paris, which cleared off their docket last December, pronouncing on the 13th of that month 330 divorces!

MM. Lucien Perey and Gaston Maugras, whose 'Vie intime de Voltaire aux Délices et à Ferney' has recently been reviewed at length in the *Nation*, had published previously two volumes upon the Abbé Galiani and two upon Mme. d'Épinay, all drawn from letters and documents of the periods from which the editors quote liberally. After publishing these five volumes, the two members of this literary partnership seem to have entered upon a new phase of their very successful career. In May last M. Gaston Maugras published a volume, signed with his own name only, 'Voltaire et J.-J. Rousseau,' with a general title, as it would seem to a series, "Querelles de Philosophes" (Paris: Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof). In October another volume from the same publishers appeared: 'Trois mois à la cour de Frédéric: Lettres inédites de D'Alembert, annotées par Gaston Maugras,'

M. Lucien Perey has now published, in his turn, a new volume upon the eighteenth century, which promises to be even more interesting than those upon the same period which have preceded it, written in collaboration with M. Gaston Maugras. It is entitled 'Histoire d'une grande dame aux dix-huitième siècle: La princesse Hélène de Ligne' (Paris: Calmann Lévy). The princess was the wife of that Prince de Ligne whose delightful letters to the Marquise de Coigny, written when he was fifty, just one hundred years ago, have been extracted from his voluminous correspondence, and published in a charming little volume by M. de Lescure (Boston: Schoenhof), noticed at length in the *Nation* of January 20.

M. Alidor Delzaut devotes a whole volume to the biography of Paul de Saint-Victor (Paris: Calmann Levy; Boston: Schoenhof). In the course of his narrative he meets many of the most important literary celebrities of the generation that is just passing away. Théophile Gautier, Barbey d'Aurevilly, Edmond and Jules de Goncourt, and especially Victor Hugo were in frequent contact with the brilliant critic. The numerous letters addressed to him, many of which are here published for the first time, make of this biography a valuable contribution to the literary history of the middle of the century. The various works of Paul de Saint-Victor are all analyzed with frequent quotations. The volume closes with a chapter on the posthumous publications—volumes 2 and 3 of 'Les Deux Masques,' 'Victor Hugo,' 'Anciens et Modernes.'

The London Hachette firm, of which Carl Schoenhof, Boston, is the American agent, continue very actively the publication of their series of annotated modern French authors. Among the latest are 'Le Chien du capitaine,' a pretty little story by Louis Énault, edited with notes by M. Henri Bué; 'Jeanne d'Arc,' by Lamartine, annotated by M. V. Oger: and "François 1er," by M. Jules Zeller, with notes by M. Petilleau. The last especially is a valuable addition to the series, which now, in addition to the same author's biographies of Richelieu, Henry IV., and Marie de Médicis, contains a great number of valuable historical works as well as excellent works of fiction. Two late additions in this direction are About's 'Le Roi des Montagnes' and André Theuriet's 'Les Enchantements de la forêt.' Unlike the preceding school publications of the same firm, Theuriet's charming volume is presented in its French form, making a fine octavo volume with numerous illustrations, to which are added thirty pages of English notes by M. H. Lallemand.

—In England, as well as in America, the need seems to be felt of some simple elementary instruction for school children in the principles of the government and the laws of society under which they live, and we have received three little books prepared for this purpose. 'The Citizen Reader,' by H. O. Arnold-Forster (Cassell), is, as its name indicates, designed for a school reader; for which purpose it is admirably fitted by reason of its simplicity and clearness of style and the attractive way in which the subject is presented. We should say that it could be read with interest and profit by children of twelve. There are a number of woodcuts, most of them representing real persons and objects; and the subject is constantly illustrated by a number of anecdotes—among which we are surprised to find that of Henry V. and Judge Gascoigne, which we supposed to be universally conceded to be apocryphal. A short preface is supplied by the late Hon. W. E. Forster, father of the author. The second book on our list is 'Our National Institutions,' by Anna Buckland (Macmillan). This is a text-book adapted to older pupils, more formal in style and arrangement than Mr. Forster's, but, like that, made more interesting and graphic by illustrative matter. It is an excellent short sketch of the actual workings of the British Government, touching lightly upon the early history, but showing with great fulness the important changes in all departments in the last fifty years. 'Elementary Politics,' by Thomas Raleigh (London: Frowde), is of an older grade still, being in the main a history of society and analysis of the principles of government, adapted to the comprehension, we should say, of the oldest classes in our

high schools. The discussion is exceedingly good, and presents the subject with great clearness and sufficient fulness. It lacks, however, the illustrative matter which characterizes the other two books. The description of primitive society, for instance, would be far more intelligible to young people if actual illustrations of the different phases had been taken from the Australians, the Arabs, the Zunis, or any other now-existing peoples. All three of the books possess high merit; and, crowded though our school courses are, we must regard this effort to add to them the treatment of the principles of government and public economy as an excellent sign of the times.

—The Missourians owe more thanks than, as we fear, they will pay to the oldest inhabitant of St. Louis, Fred L. Billon, for his just-published 'Early Annals' of that city. Their Historical Society has little more than a name to live, and few of the natives know the scantiness of the sources from which Mr. Billon was forced to compile his 500 pages. The Spanish officers when they yielded the country to the United States carried off with them all the Government archives to Cuba, as they did the bones of Columbus when they gave up San Domingo. Whether these documents remain in that island or were transferred to old Spain, will not perhaps be ascertained till Missouri, following the example of New York, shall send abroad a man like Brodhead to investigate its documentary history. But Mr. Billon has done what he could, partly by gleanings from those who were among the oldest inhabitants when he was himself among the youngest. His material was, however, more largely derived from the account-books and inventories of early traders, or an occasional letter or church record. First occupied in 1764 by Laclède as a trading-post, St. Louis was for some years called "Laclède's Village." It grew with unexpected rapidity, so that in 1770 its houses were already 115. The settlers were religious and political refugees as really as the Puritans in Massachusetts. When the peace of 1763 gave the English the left bank of the Mississippi, the French settled there made haste to remove to the other bank of that river, beyond the reach of conquering heretics. The name St. Louis, already given to La Salle's rock castle on the Illinois, they seem to have transferred to their new home. It was a vexation to them when, in 1770, the Spaniards took possession of the trans-Missouri region, which had long before been ceded to them in a secret treaty. During thirty-four years of Spanish rule the increase in houses was only sixty-six. Yet the Spanish Governors were not tyrannical. They called popular assemblies—a sort of town meetings—where political questions "were decided by the majority." Church matters were managed in the same democratic way. On the very day of the Concord fight in 1775 the seventy-eight householders met and signed the contract for building a church, about thirty with their names and the rest with marks. The only schoolmaster mentioned in Spanish days came from Canada as early as 1774. No school-house is mentioned. His teaching was in the church or in his own house. Up to 1780 no books but pocket-books are mentioned. At that time "several books of history, sold for 13½ Livres," formed one item in an auction sale. Such sales were held at the church after Sunday service, and often included slaves. The common currency was skins, as of deer and beaver. When the Virginians conquered Illinois in 1778 some Missourians furnished them supplies, accepting in payment orders on the treasurer of Virginia. Gratiot, who held some of these orders, in 1783 forced his way on horseback—first of all known travellers overland—to Richmond, and demanded payment. He was offered about 12 per cent. or certain wild Western lands when they should be surveyed. His journey consumed more than a year, but he collected nothing. His experience ought to have been known to modern creditors of Virginia before they bought her bonds. But Billon's book must be read by him who would understand a unique phase of our dawning history.

—The 'Official History of the Great Strike of 1886 on the Southwestern Railway System' has been compiled by Mr. O. Kochtitsky, the Missouri Commissioner of Labor Statistics (Jefferson City, Mo., 1886). In it are printed in full all the letters, agreements, memoranda, appeals to the public, proclamations to the workingmen of the world, manifestoes to Jay Gould, "secret" circulars and "official" statements of the Knights of Labor—all the extraordinary literature brought out by the strike. Those who are interested in the curiosities of rhetoric will be rewarded by a perusal of the pamphlet. We quote this gem from a proclamation of District Assemblies 101, 93, and 17: "Gould, the giant fiend; Gould, the money monarch, is dancing, as he claims, over the grave of our order, over the ruin of our homes and the blight of our lives. Before him the world has smiled in beauty, but his wake is a graveyard of hopes, a cyclone's path of devastation and death"! Those who are following the history of our labor agitations will have a more serious interest in Mr. Kochtitsky's compilation, and will find it an excellent supplement to the account of the strike which appeared in the recent issue of the *Quarterly Journal of Economics*. The narrative which connects the documentary matter does not add much to our knowledge of the true course of events; but we notice one new point, and that an interesting one. It seems that, during the height of the strike, the Governors of Missouri and Kansas had a conference at Kansas City, and, at the request of the Knights, met Irons and the other committeemen who were managing the strike. The Knights, by the way, afterwards said that the Governors had interposed of their own accord, and had sought the interview; but this was a pure fabrication. Powderly was in Kansas City at the time, and took part in the meeting. The upshot of it was, that the Governors refused to approach the railroad officers at all on behalf of the strikers, unless the committee put the matter entirely in their hands and agreed to abide by any settlement they might arrange. The Knights finally acceded to this. The Governors then wrote their open letter to Mr. Hoxie, asking him to take back the old men—which Mr. Hoxie, it will be remembered, agreed to do, so far as their places had not been filled by new men. But, behold! the Knights now came out with a flaming statement to the public, repudiating the action of the Governors, alleging that they had interposed of their own motion, and insisting that the Knights "refused them the privilege of adjusting our differences," and would have nothing to do with their terms and settlements. So the strike went on, and the Governors gave up attempts at mediation. The episode is an illustration, not only of the extraordinary folly and mendacity of the leaders in the Southwestern strike, but of the insuperable difficulties in the way of settling by public "arbitration" the demands of an ignorant and irresponsible body of laborers.

—At one of the recent meetings of the "Groupe de Paris," whose proceedings are regularly chronicled by *La Réforme Sociale*, M. de Boucherville from Mauritius gave an interesting account of the peculiar social conditions prevailing in that island. Colonized originally by Frenchmen, Mauritius, though since 1810 in the possession of England, has retained the impress of France in its language, religion, and civilization. The French population, moreover, is still the leading one socially, fills the professions and the higher branches of commerce, and holds most of the public offices. The English, though highly important, in spite of their small numbers in both official and financial circles, form a society apart, and live only temporarily in the colony. Besides these ruling classes of French and English, there are great numbers of Africans and Asiatics. The negroes, brought to the island in the days of the slave-trade, refused after their emancipation to perform any longer the field-work to which the stigma of slavery had been so long attached, and preferred to become mechanics. The half-breed population, arising from the mixture of the French and African races, has made a place for itself in the trades and even the professions, and forms the most important part of the middle class. As the work refused by the negroes had to be done by some one, coolies were imported from India, who, after their term of engagement was up, would remain as free laborers, and in turn proprietors, so that they now form numerically the principal part of the population, and hold a large portion of the landed property of the islands. The coolies were followed by Indians of higher standing, chiefly Arab merchants from Bombay, and the rice and sugar trade between Mauritius and India has fallen entirely into their hands. Finally, there are the Chinese, who are wholly engaged in trade, and who live in associations, under tribunals of their own. Not only are there these six grand divisions named, but not one of them is homogeneous, and among both Asiatics and Europeans there are different languages, manners, and religions. Under the influence, however, of French civilization and English energy and capital, out of this heterogeneous mass a Mauritian people is gradually being formed.

—M. de Boucherville gave his opinion as to the best mode of reviving the failing prosperity of the sugar industry, on which the whole island depends. He believes that the present unfortunate condition of things has arisen from too much centralization in the agricultural department of the industry, and too little in the mechanical. He would have the cane grown on small plantations by proprietors, who will give to the cultivation more interest and labor than can be expected of hired overseers; and the great capital which is now employed in absorbing the plantations he would have devoted to the perfection, with all the modern improvements, of large sugar factories, which should serve as central depots for all the small growers around. The only other remedy he can suggest is that of emigration to the shores of Madagascar, where the same conditions of soil and climate prevail as in Mauritius. The chief difficulties in the way of this scheme lie in the barbaric condition of the country, where not only is the land held by the crown, so that it cannot be bought, or even leased, without great difficulty, but the laborers one has engaged may at any time be summarily called off by the Queen of the Hovas on service of her own. Since the war between the Hovas and the French, however, the right to give and take long leases has been established, and M. de Boucherville is anxious that France should extend to emigrants from her former colony the same protection and advantages which she gives to her own subjects sojourning in Madagascar. M. Poitou-Duplessy, who followed him, expressed his surprise that the coolies should so willingly have settled down and become an integral part of the Mauritian population, while in the French sugar-raising colonies of the Antilles and Réunion the complaint has always been that, their term of service expired, they returned home with the money they had made, and, according to an

agreement with the English masters of India, at the expense of the colony which had hired them. To this M. de Boucherville replied that this difference was due to the different laws prevailing in the English and French colonies. In the Antilles the coolie, having finished his term of service, is free either to go back or to enter another engagement; but in Mauritius he is free of all engagements, and may become a citizen of the country on the same footing as any other man. The more just and liberal colony thus profits by its better laws.

DOWDEN'S SHELLEY.

The Life of Percy Bysshe Shelley. By Edward Dowden, LL.D. 2 vols. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1887.

BESIDES the many volumes of biography and reminiscence that have been put forth by Shelley's friends and acquaintances, there has been gathered in the last twenty-five years a large amount of minor information to serve as materials for his life; and it was quite time that this great work of Dr. Dowden's should be written, to gather these various narratives, memoirs, and essays into one, to test their validity, and to establish a full, connected, and final story. He has condensed the old Shelley papers by Hogg, Peacock, Trelawney, Medwin, Hunt, Lady Shelley, Stockdale, and other lesser writers, the correspondence and diaries of Godwin, and the modern investigations by Garnett, Rossetti, Forman, and Shelley students of less note; and he has amplified the biography constructed from these sources by manuscript papers of the Shelley family and others, which have been put into his hands with a generosity and freedom of an extraordinary kind. Shelley's and Mary's diary, Miss Clairmont's diary, the Shelley correspondence, uncollected letters, and the family papers of Shelley's acquaintances, make the largest part of what is wholly new. The work is necessarily henceforth the authority for the facts of Shelley's career. It is in a strict sense a biography. It deals with the events of his life, and touches only incidentally and briefly his works and genius, his contemporaries, and the history of his times. Shelley, the man—not the poet—is its subject. It is a full investigation.

But the main course and leading incidents of Shelley's career were already in print; his temperament, opinions, and ruling motives were known; and to the student of Shelley the volumes bring further illustration of his nature, ampler information of his affairs, rather than any new enlightenment in respect to his character. To the public their great value consists in massing all that is known in a single and convenient work, and in authenticating the narrative that is given. Some additions to our knowledge, however, there are, and these are not trivial. The most important of these relate to Shelley's first marriage. The contents of the chapters dealing with this affair have been long looked for, but the substance of them has been anticipated. It was said by the Shelley family through Mr. Garnett, in his reply to Peacock twenty-five years ago, that when the papers in their possession should be published, Shelley would be acquitted of blame; and those who believed in Shelley have been contented to take this assurance in place of the documents until these should be forthcoming. It may be presumed that Dr. Dowden has now told all that it is meant to tell; and as the point is of capital consequence to Shelley's moral reputation, and is the most considerable one raised by these volumes, we shall review the subject in detail.

Shelley became acquainted with Harriet Westbrook about New Year's, 1811, as a schoolmate of his sister's. In March he was expelled from Oxford; in May he was permitted to return to his home; and by July he was visiting in Wales. At this period he was an ardent proselytizer, and he had begun a correspondence with Harriet with a view to making a convert of her; but in August he found that his polemics had got him into a love affair, and he went to London to determine what should be done. It is perfectly plain that he was not in love and had no thought of it, until Harriet confessed her attachment, and that she, a girl of seventeen, sought him with the privity of her sister, a woman of thirty, who was in complete control of her. He was a solitary, dispirited, and wilful youth, just nineteen, whose first love-match had been broken off the previous Christmas, himself expelled from college, and his family alienated soon after, all because of his opinions in religion. Harriet seemed to him ill, dejected, and in trouble, and he believed that friendship for him had been the source of her difficulties and that love for him was the cause of her bad health; but he doubted whether the sympathy aroused in him was true affection, and his decision to take the final step was hastened by fresh urgency upon her part. He had adopted from radical sources the theoretic view against the marriage bond; but he acted with a practical mind, and was wedded to her in Edinburgh, on the 28th of August. In October they were settled in York, the residence of Shelley's friend Hogg, who had joined them in Edinburgh; and after a brief time Shelley left his wife in Hogg's care, while he went south to endeavor to make some arrangement with his father, who had cut off his allowance. His stay was short, and on his return to York he found that Hogg had attempted to seduce his wife. The evidence of this is Shelley's account written at the time in successive letters to Miss Hitchener. He had the story from Harriet, and sought an explanation from Hogg in an interview of which he gives an account. He left York at once, with his wife and her sister Eliza, who had joined them, for the Lakes.

If any one is disposed not to accept Shelley as a witness to matters of fact, and hence to set aside the charge, he must meet the series of letters, which, however much they may have been tampered with, have a real basis, written to Hogg from the Lakes and published by him. These yield no meaning except on the theory that Shelley had been greatly shocked, and when to them is added the piece, published by Hogg with changed names as a fragment of a novel by Shelley, but really, as Rossetti pointed out some time ago, a letter, the difficulty of rejecting Shelley's independent, explicit, and contemporary charge becomes insuperable. Not only is the peculiar character of these last letters to Hogg thus explained, but also the cessation of correspondence with him, and those changed conditions of intercourse between them when they met in London which, by depriving Hogg of Shelley's confidence and intimacy, seriously impair the value of that writer's 'Life of Shelley' for the period after this incident. Shelley forgave the offender, and, while he stated plainly that he had fallen in his esteem, his friendship for him, he said, had not lessened, but rather grown. It was a complex mood; but if one sees in Shelley's words now and his subsequent reception of Hogg in London only a defect of honor, and a weakness of moral feeling, he misapprehends him. It cannot be questioned that Shelley received a severe blow in this experience of Hogg's infidelity. He had idealized him, and had taken him for a bosom friend. He seems never after to have put his trust in any man.

Shelley and Harriet, with Eliza her sister, flitted about between Wales, Ireland, and Devon, engaged in study, political agitation, composition, and philanthropy in many forms, and a true affection grew up on Shelley's part for his wife. In 1813 they settled in London, and in June their first child, Ianthe, was born. Shelley's first expression of doubt as to his married happiness occurs, in a faint form, in a sonnet to Harriet, dated July 31. Within less than a year he regarded that happiness as altogether wrecked, and, in consonance with his convictions in respect to marriage, he united himself with Mary Godwin. In his declaration in Chancery he assigned a reason for separating from Harriet in these words: "Delicacy forbids me to say more than that we were disunited by incurable dissensions." What was the general character of these dissensions is sufficiently plain. We learn from Hogg, who reports his own impressions, that after the birth of Ianthe the intellectual union between Harriet and Shelley ceased, their readings together and Harriet's studies coming to an end; and we learn from Peacock that her refusal to nurse the babe was the source of great dissatisfaction to Shelley, and in general domestic matters tried him. New feminine tastes seem to have replaced the old ones; in the earlier part of the year Shelley had obtained a carriage and made a considerable purchase of plate, though he could not afford it; and Hogg's burlesque of Harriet's interest in millinery will be remembered. One recalls, too, that Fanny Godwin had already written of her to Shelley as "a fine lady" some months before, though he repelled the charge. Furthermore, on August 4 of this year, Shelley reached his majority, and expected to make better arrangements with his father in regard to money, as he could now raise funds on post-obits, and would be obliged to do so, as his debts were a constant anxiety to him. It would seem from all that can be learned that Harriet was amiable but weak, completely under the direction of her elder sister, Eliza, who ruled the house; and that she had tired of the intellectual enthusiasm, the fruitless Quixotism, and the lack of funds which had been the main features of the two past years. She desired the substantial benefits of a genteel and wealthy marriage. Harriet's inferiority of mind was made the more evident by Shelley's association at this time with the Boinvilles, who, with all their sentimentality, had cultivated tastes; Eliza's dictation in his own household was brought sharply home to him by the episode of the child's nursing; and he must have begun to see that his own yielding temper in his home was not understood, but used to induce further neglect.

To return to the narrative of events, Shelley took the family to Edinburgh in the fall, and wrote saying that he would return alone. He did come back in December, but with his companions, and took a house near the Boinvilles. In March he wrote a letter from which it appears that he was staying with the Boinvilles by himself, and had been for a month; a few days later, Harriet joined him, and they were remarried on March 24, a ceremony which seems to have been gone through with in connection with certain Chancery proceedings, and to have had only a business meaning. In April he was again alone, and there is no trace that Harriet ever lived with him thereafter. He had written with affection of her in a sonnet to Ianthe in the previous September, and now in May he addressed stanzas to her, imploring her to be reconciled with him, and expressing his love for her. He was evidently very wretched during this whole spring, and he refers in his letters to his domestic troubles. Of Eliza he wrote, "I certainly hate her with all my heart and soul"; and Peacock reports words to the same effect. The various causes of his unhappiness had now had full play, and affairs had come to a head; Eliza and Harriet were apparently trying in some way

to subdue him to their will, and his wife had lived apart from him, except for the time when she joined him for the purpose of remarriage, since the middle of February. Thornton Hunt said that Harriet left Shelley of her own free will, and this statement may be referred to this time; but she did not leave him with the idea of such a separation as finally occurred.

The affair was now to take a dangerous turn, on which Eliza and Harriet had not counted. At the end of May or the beginning of June, Shelley first met Mary Godwin, then seventeen years old; in the course of the month he addressed to her some stanzas which contain the story of their quick and passionate sympathy and acknowledge their love. On July 7, Harriet, taking alarm at an interruption of four days in Shelley's letters to her, wrote to a common friend a note which exhibits her anxiety lest he had become ill or done some desperate action, and later in the same month Mary wrote in her copy of 'Queen Mab' a confession of her love for Shelley and a statement that they were kept apart. On July 14 Shelley had an interview with Harriet, and told her that all was over between them. She was shocked by the disclosure of the state of affairs; but Shelley directed a settlement to be made in her behalf by his lawyers, and on the 28th of the month he crossed the Channel with Mary.

This is the story of the "incurable dissensions" and their issue. They were no figment of Shelley's mind. Was there anything more? Miss Clairmont says it was not merely by the story of his troubles that Shelley prevailed on Mary to unite with him; but he added the definite accusation that she had been unfaithful to his bed, and that the child she was about to bear was none of his. Miss Clairmont is very dubious authority. She says Mary told her of this; if so, she told no one else. But whether Shelley actually urged this in his suit, or not, there is evidence independent of Miss Clairmont's assertion to the fact of his belief in his wife's infidelity. Six years after these events he wrote to Southey, in 1820: "You select a single passage out of a life otherwise not only spotless, but spent in an impassioned pursuit of virtue, which looks like a blot merely because I regulated my domestic arrangements without deferring to the notions of the vulgar, although I might have done so quite as conveniently had I descended to their base thoughts." This means he had grounds for divorce. Godwin is reported by Shelley in January, 1817, as saying that "he has evidence that Harriet was unfaithful to me *four months* before I left England"; and on May 12, 1817, Godwin wrote to Baxter as follows: "The late Mrs. Shelley has turned out to have been a woman of great levity. I know from unquestionable authority, wholly unconnected with Shelley, that she had proved herself unfaithful to her husband before her separation." After her separation there is no doubt, says Dr. Dowden, that Harriet "wandered from the ways of upright living," and the words bear only one meaning. As to her conduct before that time, neither her guilt nor her innocence is proved. Shelley believed her guilty, and the fact that Peacock and the rest of his London circle, who had no special opportunity to observe her, had heard nothing of it, shows rather Shelley's reticence than anything else. Whether Shelley's conviction dates from before the separation, however, is a matter of inference, except for Miss Clairmont's assertion. But in this instance the facts taken together give probability to her statement.

Shelley, when he went away, did not, in the ordinary sense, desert Harriet. He provided for her credit at his banker's, and she drew out all the money. He wrote to her during his short journey to the Continent, and when he came back he kept up his direct acquaintance and correspondence with her. When she bore him a son, in November, he owned the child; if he ever had doubts of its paternity, he withdrew them. He left the children in her care, as he declared in Chancery, upon her urgent entreaty, but with no idea of yielding his right over them except in their early years; and when his father at last came to terms, he gave her money to pay her debts, and set apart to her credit £200 a year, a fifth part of his allowance. On his return from his second visit to the Continent he lost sight of her, and was seeking her out when she was found drowned. She had, unknown to Shelley, parted from her two children, who were in a stranger's care, and, when she came to visit her father, who was ill, she had been refused admittance by that sister who had been her director in her life with Shelley. She was not in any sense destitute, as she enjoyed her allowance from Shelley's banker, and in the previous May at least had an equal amount from her father, and had, besides, the power to raise money on her settlement, as Whitton, the lawyer, had pointed out to her. From the time she comes before us suicide was a favorite topic with her, and in the end she resorted to it; but the special circumstances leading to her death have not been discovered. Shelley was, of course, affected by this tragic close of his imprudent marriage; but evidently not so much as by Fanny Godwin's suicide, a short time before. He never altered his judgment of Harriet's character, as he had formed it in those last months of their life together; in a cancelled passage of 'The Revolt of Islam' he still says that she had a "heart of stone." He immediately married Mary, and took steps for the recovery of his children from the Westbrooks, who sought to retain them, apparently in the belief that the guardianship would involve the custody of some of Shelley's fortune. As is well known, Lord Eldon refused Shelley the possession of them, but he accepted the family named by Shelley to take charge of them.

This is the story of the events in substance. Judgment upon Shelley will be rendered according as people weigh the evidence and estimate its relative elements. For the view that Shelley fell in love with Mary and consequently deserted his wife and children, whose misfortunes followed from his acts, there is no longer any ground whatever. His own wretchedness, and the dissensions and incompatibilities in his family, before he ever saw Mary, are too clear to allow any one to look on her as the cause; she was in fact his refuge. His nature was already suffering violent strain in his solitude, and the sweetness of Mary's sympathy for him turned at once to a true passion of love, such as he had never known. He felt justified, and said in that same letter to Southey, already quoted, in the most solemn language, and calling God to witness—"You accuse me wrongfully. I am innocent of ill either done or intended; the consequences you allude to flowed in no respect from me."

We have no space, nor is there any call for a new characterization of Shelley. He appears in this work as a man wholly solitary, and apart in nature from all whom he knew or met, and visited with misfortunes. There are new passages of great interest, and the whole story is lighted up by gleams of that quality in him which earned for him peculiarly the epithet "divine"; but nevertheless it is a prolonged narrative of an ill-starred life. Shelley was not altogether happy with Mary either; his love became largely a tender solicitude for her, and was faithful; but he did not find in her what he sought, and her own bitter self-reproaches were not all undeserved. One is not sorry when the day of his death comes, but rather feels it as the relief to Shelley which it was. There is no life in the whole history of letters which is so thoroughly known as Shelley's now is—none on which the light has so beat; it is, too, in great part, the life of a youth. At first it seems to need apology; but, with more intimate knowledge and closer scrutiny, the sense of that need passes away.

RECENT NOVELS.

In the Clouds. By Charles Egbert Craddock. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Teresa Itasca, and Other Stories. By Avery MacAlpine. London: Chatto & Windus; New York: Funk & Wagnalls.

The Silent Workman. A Story. By Clinton Ross. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Towards the Gulf. A Romance of Louisiana. Harper & Bros.

Count Xavier. By Henry Gréville. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

The Martyr of Golgotha. By Enrique Perez Escrich. From the Spanish by Adèle Josephine Godoy. William S. Gottsberger.

Frau Wilhelmine. (Der Familie Buchholz letzter Theil.) Berlin: Freund & Jechel; New York: B. Westermann & Co. 1886.

It is not probable that many who have followed the interesting fortunes of Alethea Sayles through the pages of the *Atlantic* will care to again give their time to her story. Miss Murfree has not yet broken away from the peculiar charms of the Tennessee mountains, nor abandoned the possibilities afforded for fiction by the isolated, narrow life of the mountaineers. 'In the Clouds' introduces the reader anew to the novel scenes which—to risk a paradox—Miss Murfree has made familiar to so many. But, after making due allowance for the value of her material, recognizing its freshness, its adaptability to new and unique combinations, it still remains true that the chief interest in her stories is a narrative interest. The reader's desire is to reach the end and "see how it comes out." In the present story this fact is very noticeable. One is often tempted to skip the mountain scenery and the explanations, so absorbing is the action. And then the surprises are so admirably planned that they really surprise even the habitual novel-reader. When, for instance, it turns out that Kinsard has not after all been shot by his crafty opponent, the reader is taken completely unawares. And so with the death of the lovable Mink, who makes one more example of the worthless but potentially noble hero. One has all along a faint suspicion that his homely career will end in tragedy, but the precise method of his taking off is unforeseen until the last moment. The poetic justice of the incident, however, is obscured by one's sympathy; for though Mink's mischievous pranks brought about all his troubles, including the final catastrophe of his death, yet one loses sight of justice in ruthfully contemplating the noble mission which carried him to his fate.

These bucolic people that serve Miss Murfree for characters are very odd, it is true, and are not without a certain picturesqueness. But it is their human elements, nevertheless, the traits that they have in common with men and women of all times and all places, which give them their true value. Their life is too harsh and narrow, their interests too few and petty, to awaken much more than a philosophical curiosity. And it is because the feeling that one has in reading the book is one of curiosity—both concerning the habits and surroundings of the characters and concerning the outcome of the story which the author has woven with their lives—that but few will care for a second reading. Miss Murfree's

attitude towards these simple characters is acutely observant, conscientiously realistic, but not highly sympathetic or imaginative. On more than one occasion she has shown a predisposition to attach to some simple act of justice or moral fortitude a higher meaning than ethics would allow. It is not true that nature, even at her best, can outdo cultivation, and one will not find a Colonel Esmond or a Romola among the mountaineers of Tennessee.

The three short tales which Mr. MacAlpine has brought together in an elegant volume are cosmopolitan enough. The scene of one is laid in California, of another in France, and of the third on the shores of the North Sea. But cosmopolitanism is not enough to make one's stories worth the telling. These sketches seem seriously enough meant, yet lack definiteness, simplicity, and character. The writing is too fine for the matter, and the matter is too slight and colorless even for sketches.

Mr. Ross's tale of 'The Silent Workman' is another short story, though it has been given a volume to itself. It embodies in a somewhat strained and melodramatic form the old principle that sin brings its own punishment. The principle is true, however, in the manner in which Mr. Ross exemplifies it, for certain natures only. Hawthorne has drawn such natures, and has shown them suffering under the lash of conscience. But they must be natures of exceptionally fine fibre and sensitiveness, and essentially weak—if one accepts Balzac's theory of strength of character. Anything of this sort Mr. Ross has failed to bring out in the picture of Eb Randall, whose erratic actions after his half-hearted attempt at murder sometimes approach dangerously near the ludicrous. One fancies Balzac's terrible Vautrin, with his score or more of crimes behind him, sneering at the story of Eb Randall, and denying in his arrogant way that a crime which is not found out is ever punished.

'Towards the Gulf' is a weak novel of Southern life, which futilely tries to catch something of the romance and picturesque color that certain phases of life in Louisiana undoubtedly possess. The hero, who belongs to an old aristocratic family, marries a beautiful girl whom he believes to be of English descent, but who—as eventually transpires—has the taint of negro blood. The story, which ends tragically, is not a pleasant nor an elevating one, nor is it told with the dramatic power and insight which alone could make it of any lasting worth.

Ill luck seems to attend the steps of Henry Gréville. When she has something to say, her translator disguises her meaning in curious English and strange idioms, which might be more nearly rendered by the French word "idiotismes." When she has nothing to say, she is well represented, as in the case of her latest story, 'Count Xavier.' It is intended for a tale of Little-Russian life, but there is nothing distinctively Little-Russian, or even Russian, about it. The poverty-stricken young Count, who suddenly comes into possession of his uncle's great fortune, seems to be more of a Pole than anything else, and there is a general vagueness of outline which does not contribute to the effect of the very slight chain of facts which serves as the foundation for the sketch. One of the peasant girls of the Count's aunt falls in love with the young man during his frequent visits to his relative, while she is acting as his nurse after he has broken his leg. Nothing comes of it, but a certain amount of space has been filled, more or less successfully. The Count next falls a victim to the charms of his uncle's daughter, the child of the latter's nominal housekeeper, who strongly suggests the suspicion that she is not so much a study from life as a copy of Turgeneff's Assya. The girl and her mother flee, because a marriage seems impossible; the young man takes to his bed and comes near dying in the good old hackneyed way. Matters are finally arranged, on condition that he shall travel abroad for a period before the marriage takes place. He contrives to get himself recalled by his terrified aunt, before the expiration of the period, by a wonderful tale of his connection with Italian dynamite plots, which the reader suspects to be pure inventions. The wedding takes place, the love-lorn peasant maid before mentioned is appointed nurse to the first-born of the young couple, and the book ends with a statement that "these things happened long ago." One would like to inquire, How long ago? in view of the mention of dynamite. The author has given us several very pretty stories of Russian life, but though this volume also deserves that adjective in a mild way, it is not to be compared with most of her previous work. To put it plainly, it seems to have been written mechanically, with a good deal of effort, by a person who has exhausted her ideas on the subject and has only odds and ends left to work with. As a whole, it may be said that Henry Gréville's "Russian novels" bear about the same resemblance to the genuine article that water does to wine, and perhaps no one of her stories bears out this comparison more fully than the present one, unless an exception be made which will place 'Dosia's Daughter' in the same category.

"A Picture of Oriental Tradition" is the subtitle which the author gives to his historical novel of the time of Christ, called 'The Martyr of Golgotha.' It is a very uneven piece of work, and bears but too evident traces of the difficulty attendant upon the task of rounding out the Gospel narrative with the scraps of legend and Talmudic tradition which refer to the lives of every actor in the story of Christ's life. The two chief faults into which the author is constantly betrayed by the necessity of supplying the missing links of the story are abruptness, which he mistakes for force, and a peculiar fondness for unsavory details, wherever it is possible to introduce them. In connection with the abruptness, he takes the opportunity to do a vast amount of padding, by making a paragraph out of each abrupt phrase; and the manner in which he dwells on all that can be made to approach the theme of the modern realistic novel, greatly detracts from the grand and solemn impression which the simple narrative of Scripture produces. We see a great deal more of the subordinate characters, like the repentant thief, whose history is evolved in detail from his early youth, and of Mary Magdalen, than we do of the divine sufferer. In view of the way in which the rest is handled, the reader breathes a sigh of relief when he finds that the audacious author has not dared to reconstitute the childhood and manhood of Christ. It is impossible to refrain from comparing the picture of the times as here given with that offered in 'Ben Hur,' and the result is not in favor of the former. The visit of the three Wise Men to the infant Saviour is one of the pictures which occur in both books, and makes the comparison of method easy. From the dedication, we judge 'The Martyr of Golgotha' to have been originally written some twenty-five years ago.

The fourth "and last" series of the adventures of the Buchholz Family resembles the previous volumes, and is well worth reading by all who enjoy a book whose humor is, so to say, only incidentally revealed, but which, like perfume in a dress, exhales with every motion of the wearer. But perfumes are sometimes offensive, and, without being unduly sensitive, a person with a nose less robust than that of Bismarck might well find too strong the scent of some of the suggestions in these volumes. There is little that is "improper" in the allusions—nothing, indeed, to recall the typical French novel, in which vice is supposed to lose half its evil by losing all its grossness. On the contrary, references to vice are of the most distant kind, and are of such a nature as to imply that it is non-existent in the Landsberger-Strasse. But there is plenty of "grossness"—that is, allusions to accidents of life which persons of refinement ignore or keep in the background, and for the use of which, as material for exciting a smile, one would have to go back, in English literature, a hundred and fifty years. Hence the comparison of this book, sometimes made, with 'Cranford' is most misleading. The atmosphere of 'Cranford' is of the most delicate and fastidious refinement; the air of 'The Buchholz Family' is that breathed by people who are good-natured and well-meaning, but thoroughly coarse in grain. Frau Buchholz, in fact, in spite of her veneer of book-culture, belongs to the social level of Mr. Howells's 'Manda Greer. The laboring class, as represented in novels, however unfavorable thereto their life may be, possess a certain *innate* refinement, as does also the grisette of the pre-Zola era. It is only the middle middle class in Germany and England, and the lower middle in this country, who appear to be entirely destitute of it.

But whatever we may think of his characters, the art of their creator is undeniable. Many novelists overload their story with dull detail; a few enrich their pages with discursions so charming that the reader forgets the narrative. Mr. Stinde belongs to neither class; with him not a word is wasted—indeed, whole scenes, including the feelings of the actors, are vividly brought before the reader merely by the description of an (at first glance) irrelevant incident. Whether such scenes are worth reading about is another question.

While the book, as literature, hardly deserves its extraordinary success, it is well worthy of it as a social study—none the less so because nothing, probably, was further from the author's intentions. We cannot recall another work, fictitious or other, in which the middle class is viewed from the inside. The author does not as an outsider satirize the class he describes; he merely laughs at such follies or absurdities of individual members of it as, in life, their friends would see and smile over. There is nothing in English of which the work so much reminds us as it does of 'Salem Chapel' and other volumes of Mrs. Oliphant's "Chronicles." Mrs. Oliphant, however, not only shows in every line that her point of view is outside that of the life of the Tozers and their friends, but the whole gist of the story consists in placing her dull and narrow middle-class figures against the relatively radiant background of a more enlightened social order. On the other hand, the dwellers in the Landsberger Strasse are not only untroubled by contact with classes higher or lower than themselves, they are, one might almost say, ignorant of their existence. Whatever weaknesses they may have, snobbishness is not one of them, so that one is inclined to ask whether something good may not be said even of that objectionable characteristic. Like hypocrisy and vice, is it not sometimes the tribute which the consciousness of social and intellectual inferiority (as contrasted with smug content with commonplace surroundings) pays to a higher life? The Buchholz coterie have, it may be said, but one general idea, and that is the immensity, not of the universe, but of Berlin. Berlin is light, all without is darkness; yet, oddly enough, unless Mr. Stinde is slyer than would at first appear, the only refined woman in his story is a rosebud transplanted from a little town to bloom, if fate permits, among the peonies of the Landsberger Strasse.

WALKER'S SECOND ARMY CORPS.

History of the Second Army Corps, Army of the Potomac. By Francis A. Walker. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons.

THE Second Army Corps has been fortunate in its historian. Of the many well-written books on the civil war which have issued from the press of recent years, we have seen none more interesting than this excellent piece of work by Gen. Walker. The narrative is clear, the style vivid, the account of military movements simple, straightforward, and free from the dulness that too often makes narratives of campaigns but a wearisome labor to the general reader. The book is one that could have been written by no other than an accomplished soldier, such familiarity does it show with all that belongs to army life and organization, and such comprehension does it everywhere manifest of strategy and tactics. There may be things omitted that ought to have been included, there may be some errors, but there is not an obscure page, there is not a tiresome chapter, in the book. Gen. Walker writes, too, *con amore*. He takes a just pride in the achievements of his comrades; the high record which his corps carved for itself through toil and danger and blood he evidently considers a priceless possession, to be carefully and jealously guarded. He is always glad to tell of the victories of his corps, and saddened to recall its defeats. He dilates upon the fact that it was late in the war before it lost a gun or a flag, while the story of Cold Harbor and the fights around Petersburg are evidently a sorrowing tribute to historical truth. Yet the warmth of coloring which this pride of country, of cause, of fellowship with those beside whom he marched, and bivouacked, and fought, does not make him ungenerous to his comrades of other corps or unfair towards the enemies he confront d.

The Second Army Corps was organized March 13, 1862, when McClellan was about to enter upon his Peninsula campaign. It contained at first the divisions of Richardson, Sedgwick, and Blenker, but the latter division was soon detached and became the nucleus of Sigel's and then of Howard's corps. It was the two former divisions (to which French's division and other troops were subsequently added) that became the heart of that famous body of troops which saved McClellan's left at Seven Pines; which did much and suffered much at Sharpsburg; which marched bravely to useless slaughter at Fredericksburg; which stood so unavailingly in its place at Chancellorsville; which bore the brunt of the third day at Gettysburg and turned the tide of Federal defeat to victory; which, on May 12, 1864, struck Lee the hardest blow he met with in that campaign, and which at Cold Harbor fared as it had served Pickett the year before on Cemetery Hill.

The commanders of this corps constitute a roll of able and distinguished soldiers, who, if none of them of the first rank, were yet such in the aggregate as few corps in the Federal army could match. The first of them—the gallant old Sumner—was probably unfit for the command of so many troops, and his appointment, made as it was by the President without McClellan's approval, should have produced the immediate resignation of the latter. But Gen. Walker well shows the good that Sumner effected, and that, in spite of his age and his errors, he impressed his character for courage and soldiership indelibly upon his command. Of the others—Couch, Warren, Hancock, Humphreys, all noted for brilliant feats—the last was the ablest in the management of troops.

One of Sumner's most creditable achievements was his staying the tide of Johnston's success at Fair Oaks, May 31, 1862. The strategy of this campaign is admirably described by Gen. Walker—the exposed position of McClellan's two corps on the south side of the Chickahominy, the concentration of the Confederates against them, the storm which impeded Johnston's movements while the swollen river cut the Federal army completely in two, Johnston's fatal error in not throwing G. W. Smith forward promptly to cooperate with Longstreet and D. H Hill, Sumner's quickness and determination in crossing on the already floating bridges, and his vigor in reaching the field and paralyzing Smith, as, late in the day, he was moving to complete the overthrow of Keyes and Heintzelman. The next day's operations showed great lack of a directing mind on both sides. Johnston had fallen, and McClellan left all to Sumner. The result was a great deal of desultory fighting and the death of many brave men, all to no purpose.

Gen. Walker errs when he speaks, in his account of the seven days' battles, of Jackson's crossing to the north side of the Chickahominy on the first day. Jackson, coming from the valley, was on the north side of that stream, and remained there until after the battle of Gaines's Mill. It was one of A. P. Hill's brigades that crossed high up the stream and moved down the north side. Again, his criticism is misdirected when he speaks of the attack at Beaver Dam Creek as "useless, since Jackson's turning movement would soon inevitably compel its abandonment; but the Confederate troops and Confederate commander were full of ardor, and a vehement assault was delivered, which was repulsed with great slaughter." It was not the "ardor" of the Confederate leader and his troops that led to this assault, but the fact that, having revealed his purpose to McClellan of concentrating the larger part of his army against the Federal right wing north of the Chickahominy, he feared to give his adversary time to checkmate his design by a movement against Richmond. Lee had left the defence of that city to one-third of his army, and, when he confronted the Federal right on Beaver Dam Creek, Jackson was half a day behind. A delay of even a few hours might induce McClellan to throw the mass of his troops against Magruder with crushing force. The Confederate commander therefore felt it necessary to keep the initiative, to give his adversary no breathing space, but occupy him so fully in looking after his right wing that he would have no opportunity to use his left to advantage.

On no field did the Second Army Corps win such laurels as at Gettysburg. Hancock's energy and decision more than anything else caused the battles of the second and third days to be fought there rather than on Pipe Creek or at some other place in the rear; and the splendid courage of both the corps and its commander on the third day have for ever associated their names with the greatest victory the Army of the Potomac ever gained. Gen. Walker thus describes Pickett's charge:

"Up the slope the Confederates rush with magnificent courage. At two or three hundred yards the Union infantry opens its deadly fire, but still the assailants push forward, undaunted, though Garnett falls dead in the van. And here appears the first serious consequence of Wilcox's failure to come up on the right. This has left open Pickett's flank on that side, and Hancock, easily the best tactician of the Potomac Army, and always on the front line of battle, eagle-eyed, sees and seizes his opportunity. Galloping to Stannard's brigade, he directs him to move his regiments to the front and attack the flank of the assaulting force. And now the collision—for which these thousands of Confederates have crossed the bloody plain, and for which those soldiers of the Union have waited through all that anxious time—comes with a crash and clamor that might well appall the stoutest heart. Upon the Sixty-ninth and Seventy-first Pennsylvania, of Webb's brigade, posted on the low stone wall, falls the full force of Longstreet's mighty blow.

"Like leaves in autumn gales the Philadelphians drop along the line. Now the position of the Seventy-first is carried, and the right of the Sixty-ninth is thrown over upon its centre; now the Confederate flags wave over the stone wall; the men of Kemper and Armistead, of Garnett and Archer, pour in through the gap, led by Armistead in person, and beat down Cushing's gunners over their pieces. The gallant and accomplished young commander of the battery gives one last shot for honor and for country, and falls dead among his men. For the moment that great and long-prepared charge is successful. Meade's line is broken. In the very centre of the Union position, crowning Cemetery Ridge, wave the flags of Virginia and the Confederacy. . . .

"It must be evident, even to one who knows nothing of war, that such a strain as this could not be long continued. Something must give way under such a pressure. If one side will not, the other must; if not at one point, then at another. The Union infantry has come up somewhat tumultuously, it is true, but courageously, nay, enthusiastically, and has formed around the head of Longstreet's column four ranks deep. Armistead is down. Every field officer in Pickett's division, except Pickett and one lieutenant-colonel, has fallen.

"The time has come to advance the standards of the Second Corps. With loud cries and a sudden forward surge, in which every semblance of formation is lost, the Union troops move upon the now faltering foe. One moment more and all is over. The most of the surviving Confederates throw themselves on the ground; others seek to escape capture, and retreat hurriedly down the hill and across the plain, which is once more shrieking with the fire of the artillery."

No part of this book is more interesting than that which describes the campaign of Grant in 1864 and the terrible conflicts from May 5 to June 3. Never was the courage and tenacity of the Army of the Potomac put to so severe a test, and Gen. Morgan's statement, quoted by Gen. Walker, in regard to the Second Corps at the end of this frightful struggle, was true of other parts of the Federal Army, too. Gen. Morgan says in regard to Cold Harbor: "The Second Corps here received a mortal blow, and never again was the same body of men." Grant's campaign up to this time and for months longer was a failure, and his final success in the spring of 1865 was the result of the exhaustion of the Confederacy itself as well as of its principal army.

Gen. Walker gives but glimpses of the Confederate side in his narrative, but his tone and temper are fair. He is too liberal now and then in assigning numbers to them, as, for instance, when he credits Jackson with thirty-five thousand men at White Oak Swamp; but he is usually not so far out of the way. It is often his silence more than anything else that shows his failure to realize the odds against which Lee fought, and the exigencies to which he was frequently reduced by disparity of men and resources. The reader who shall learn from this book and from that of Gen. Humphreys on the campaign of 1864 in Virginia, of the struggles, the toils, the sacrifices, the prodigious slaughter endured by the Army of the Potomac, will wonder at the ability which directed and the courage that sustained the opposing army, which, with half the numbers and far less than half the resources, battled so splendidly for its cause to the very end.

A few of the maps in Gen. Walker's book are good, but the majority are poor. They are in many cases unworthy of the narrative, and vexatious to the reader, who must constantly refer to other sources for information they should contain. Not one of them, we believe, has a scale.

The Mammalia in their Relation to Primeval Times. By Oscar Schmidt. D. Appleton & Co. 1886. 8vo. Ill. Pp. xii, 308.

THIS is a discussion of the mammalia, fossil and recent, with the purpose of presenting the evidences of evolution, within the group, in a concise and comprehensive manner. It has been before the public for some time, and has met with a deservedly favorable reception. The ma

terials for consideration have been exhaustively handled, and, representing slow accumulations of geology from its beginning, it is unlikely that sufficient additions will soon be gathered to necessitate revision. New discoveries will eventually call for reconsideration, but in all probability the result will, through multiplication of species and complication of affinities, resemble that in hand much as a systema of to-day would resemble that of Linnæus. Comparative poverty in materials favors the production of a work like the present. Less prejudice in favor of Selection might have been better for the book. The use of the word Evolution is carefully avoided. On every page the bias toward Darwinism—as the author defines it, "finding a proof for the theory of descent in the hypothesis of natural selection in the struggle for existence"—is prominent. This, to any one who considers the forces that build the species of crystals in the rocks, or the species and genera of plants, as all-powerful in forming the species of animals, and who treat the idiosyncrasies of an animal as minor considerations, is something of a defect.

Prof. Schmidt's opinion of his own work is shown by the following extract from the preface, in which, as in other passages, the responsibility for the confusion of ideas must be shared by the translator:

"It will be found to contain proofs of the necessity, the truth, and the value of Darwinism as the foundation for the theory of descent, within a limited field, and is brought down to the most recent times. Within these limits the work is complete in itself; for although the student of natural history may have become acquainted with interesting fragments of the actual science, still the subject has not before been presented in so comprehensive a manner or in so convenient a form."

There is little in the author's treatment of the position of the mammalia that is not generally accepted, except, perhaps in incidental statements. A perfectly satisfactory explanation of the occurrence of the same genera, partly of the same species, of fishes and mussels in rivers situated very far apart, he finds in the assumption that the progenitors of all purely fresh-water species could also at one time live in either kind of water. Yet many of these may date their origin near the time of the emergence of the land, when there was no difference in the waters. More weight than is usual, or than was to have been expected, is given to phenomena of convergence; whether these and those of reversion, degradation, etc., have been fully estimated, the future will determine. Among distinctive characteristics it is said of the placenta that it came into existence only with the actual mammals, and is an acquisition towards a higher degree of progress. In view of the placental attachment obtaining in Carcharias and other genera of sharks, this should have been modified. Palæontology since Cuvier is well brought forward. Gaudry, Filhol, Owen, Rutimeyer, Burmeister, and, in this country, Leidy and Marsh, are favored authorities. In a number of instances Cope is cited only to be discredited.

The second section of the book is devoted to special comparisons of the living mammals with what are supposed to have been their ancestors. Beginning with the lowest, the monotremes, each group is treated in succession. The conclusion that the lower groups of mammals are, of course, those which have retained the inherited qualities of their ancestors most distinctly, may or may not in future accord their present position to this group, since not a trace of any fossil discovery leads us from the present living monotremes back to the primeval world. Further, it is said that, even admitting the debatable supposition of direct alliance with the marsupials, separation must have taken place before the Trias. Marsupials are traced with some uncertainty from Microlestes of the Trias. Clues to the relationship between Australian and American living marsupials are not yet found among the fossils. The Didelphidæ are supposed to be the earlier branch, from the lower vertebrates, and, according to Bardeleben, America was the earlier home of the group. Of the Edentata, as of the preceding, known fossils are insufficient indications of ancestry or connections between the branches. At the close of his remarks upon them, the author says: "Finally, a few remains from the Upper Eocene of Quercy corroborate what is demanded by our theory and common sense. With this division of the living world, we may be said, upon the whole, to stand utterly helpless as regards geological antiquity, in so far as the question refers to a special proof for the origin of species, and the perfectly justifiable proof of a general deduction is not accepted."

It is among the hoofed animals that the greatest degree of success in tracing descent is attained; yet even of these the incomings are as yet lost in the same obscurity as those of the other orders, though found in various stages of development, as early as the lowest Eocene. North America is supposed to be the home of the camels, whence they migrated to the Old World. References to Anoplotherium, Gelocus, and Diplopus—forms which seem to answer the requirements of adaptability, in reduction of toes, etc., but yet became extinct—call out the frank admission of inability to point out the definite primary form for deer or other ruminant; but any attempt to explain the striking relation between the past and present forms, otherwise than by the theory of descent and in accordance with Darwin's principle, cannot be expected from the author. The teeth and feet receive the greatest amount of attention in the comparisons. In the horses the chain is carried further back than elsewhere, but even here it is short, and finds only conjectural connection with those leading from other quadrupeds. The origin of other groups is still more uncertain; we have no idea when or whence the whales originated, no fossil clue to the progenitors of the seals or to the lower ancestors of men. Speaking of anthropology, the Professor remarks that it has made no definite progress in the past ten years. It is no fault of the author that the lines of descent he traces are short and unsatisfactorily ended, disconnected from each other; it is due to the imperfect condition of our knowledge of the geological record.

Most of the exceptions to be taken are to the author's use of the various theories. For instance, "adaptability," power of the animal to raise, or to accommodate itself, as the author puts it (plasticity, as we should write it), is treated as an unmixed benefit. Yet we find, among the extinct animals, forms similar to those surviving, and others so greatly differentiated that, by their very adaptability and readiness to answer the moulding influences of circumstances, they would seem to have been led to their destruction. One looks in vain for proof that the extinct American were less adaptable than the surviving European horses and camels, or that they were more able to resist exterminating causes than species of less adaptability that disappeared with them or that still survive. Accident is treated as if out of the question; yet the circumstances and masses in which the fossils are found prove the advent of occurrences out of the ordinary course. The term does not alone include sudden geological changes; a disease that might deprive us of our cattle, sheep, or hogs to-day would deserve the name as well as a cause that suddenly rendered the horse extinct in the post-Tertiary. As a consequence of imperfect record and knowledge, the author naturally indulges in a great deal of conjecture, much of which, with the advance of science, will give way to something more certain or to guesswork having a better foundation. All things considered, however, Prof. Schmidt deserves great credit for the most compact, comprehensive, and interesting volume on evolution that has yet appeared.

Cannibals and Convicts: Notes of Personal Experiences in the Western Pacific. By Julian Thomas ("The Vagabond"). With portraits and map. Cassell & Co. 1886. Pp. xvi, 408. 8vo.

THE islands of the Western Pacific were till recently of interest chiefly to the Christian world as fields for missionary work. Twenty years ago the employment of natives on the cotton and sugar plantations of Queensland and the Fijis brought them into general notice. Now the interest in the labor traffic has given place to the question of the ownership of the remaining independent islands. Upon each of these subjects this book throws considerable light, but it deals mainly with the last, the burning question of Australian foreign politics. The author, an American by birth, is a well-known writer for the Melbourne and Sydney press, and also enjoys the distinction of being the only journalist whom the French have permitted to visit their penal settlements in the Pacific. He appears to possess the qualities essential for success in his profession of special correspondent—courage, tact in dealing with men, a keen thirst for information, together with considerable literary skill. Although confessedly viewing all subjects simply as they seem to affect Australian interests, he yet conveys the impression of describing truthfully and without exaggeration what he sees. The opening chapters on the Fijis and Norfolk Island are of interest only as they serve to contrast the condition of the British islands with New Caledonia. This island, the largest in the South Seas after New Zealand, he first visited in 1878, during an insurrection of the natives. He gives an entertaining account of his adventures while accompanying various expeditions into the interior in pursuit of the insurgents, but we cannot dwell upon it further than to say that he does not extol the efficiency or the humanity of the French soldiers in bush fighting. Among the leading officers was the novelist, M. Henri Rivière, who was killed five years later in Tonkin. He wrote a detailed account of these events in his 'Souvenirs de la Nouvelle-Calédonie,' which our author ironically styles "one of his most charming works of fiction."

Of greater present importance is what he has to tell about the convict establishments. These are now, the Communists having all returned to France, of two kinds, the depot on an island in the harbor of the capital, Nouméa, where the worst criminals are confined, and the *pénitenciers agricoles*. These are settlements of *libérés* or "good-conduct" men in places where, under certain restrictions, they cultivate the land and carry on their trades. At several of these stations Mr. Thomas stayed for some time, and says of them: "There was and is a condition of society as abominable as ever existed in the Cities of the Plain." Bad as this is, there appears to be in the future a yet lower depth for them. "One cannot to English readers hint at the infamies," he continues, "which are increasing. It is not many months back since I was on board a French transport, the *Dupuy de Lôme*, which lay alongside the pier at Port Melbourne. Her passengers included some sixty criminal women—young, strong, and healthy, selected on such qualifications from the prisons of France, to be sent to New Caledonia as mates for privileged convicts. That one had killed her husband, this one her lover, another her child. They were mostly murder-

esses, and one *en voyage* had thrown her baby out of the porthole to die in the sea!" And this is the Government which poses before the world as the protector of Christians in China and Tonkin. The number of convicts now in New Caledonia is variously estimated, Capt. Norman, in his 'Colonial France,' giving the last official figures as 9,334, Mr. Thomas putting them at nearly 20,000, which is probably much nearer the truth, since several thousand *récidivistes* have recently been transported thither. These "habitual criminals," persons who, in general terms, have within ten years been condemned three times to imprisonment for three months, or once to hard labor and once to a detention of three months, are to form settlements with the power of choosing their own municipal officers, and are, as we are given to understand, after a time to be permitted to leave the island, but never to return to France. Naturally Australia, only 700 miles distant, is the place to which they will go and to which a large number of the *libérés* do actually escape. This fact has led the Australians to protest, with justifiable vehemence, against the *récidiviste* bill and the annexation of the New Hebrides by France for the purpose of providing settlements for this new class of convicts.

It was in 1883, when the excitement over this question was at its height in Australia, that Mr. Thomas visited the New Hebrides to report upon the movements of the French and the present condition of the labor trade. He found the islands similar in most respects to the Fijis, but inhabited, with the exception of Aneitium, by a fierce race of savages, among whom a few white traders, planters, and missionaries live in constant fear of their lives. Several of those whom he saw at that time have since been killed. Most of the land in the possession of the whites had been bought by a French commercial house, which had absorbed nearly all the trade and was using its very powerful influence on the Government to annex the group. Mr. Thomas made it a part of his work to discover the opinions of the natives on this point, and with great courage he went alone among them to win their confidence and thus arrive at the truth. As a result of his investigations, he asserts that there is a universal and profound hatred of the French, or the *Kaiwee-wee*, as they are termed. In this conclusion he is borne out by Mr. Romilly, who, in his recent book on the Western Pacific, says that the natives do not consider the Frenchman to be a white man. Of their willingness to be annexed to Australia, which Mr. Thomas also confidently asserts, there is more reason to be sceptical.

Our traveller had equally favorable opportunities for studying the labor question. Not only did he cruise in labor vessels, but he landed in various places with the recruiters, and finally went to Australia in a ship with a cargo of natives to observe their treatment during the passage. One of the most notable men engaged in this traffic, with whom he sailed, was "the son of a Senator of Louisiana, and nephew to Gen. Beauregard," James Toutant Proctor, who lost a leg at Chancellorsville, but "served on the staff of Gen. Beauregard till the close of the war." Since then he had been a planter in the Fijis and New Hebrides, a trader, and was now a sailor in the employ of the French New Hebrides Company. The present condition of the labor trade is very different from what it was a few years ago, when this same Capt. Proctor was described by missionaries and Government officials as "be- a curse wherever he went." The natives' freedom of choice is carefully guarded. Government agents go out with each vessel to see that none are taken by force, and that the ship has the legally prescribed accommodations for its living freight. According to Mr. Thomas's account, the one hundred and twenty natives on board the *Lizzie* were happy and well cared for. They sang and danced and played "cat's cradle" with a piece of sinnet, making "most wonderful combinations, far exceeding anything a white child would dream of." He believes that they return to their homes, after a three-years' service on a Queensland plantation, improved; but in this favorable opinion Mr. Romilly, the Government Commissioner, and the missionaries generally do not agree. We have not space to dwell upon our author's observations on the work of the English missionaries, further than to say that his criticism on the comparative uselessness of translating the Scriptures into languages and dialects which are fast disappearing seems to us just. One would think that they had never heard of Eliot's Indian Bible. The French priests follow the wiser course of teaching their converts the French language. This policy of the missionaries is the more surprising from the fact that many of the natives in all the islands are able to speak a little English.

The final chapters of this very interesting book are upon New Guinea, but they add nothing new to our information about this island. We regret that the author has not valued his work highly enough to give it an index. In the map which accompanies the volume, the Caroline Islands are incorrectly ascribed to Germany instead of to Spain.

Sketches from English History. Selected and edited, with an introduction (from the Roman Conquests to the Revolution of 1688) by Arthur M. Wheeler, Professor of History in Yale College. New York: Chautauqua Press. 1886. 8vo, pp. 372.

PROF. WHEELER'S 'Sketches' consist of sixty-two selections, covering the entire field of English history, from "the Roman occupation" (Green) "to the story of Cawnpore" (Kaye). The selections are made with excellent judgment, from writers of the highest standing. A good notion of the execution, as regards both selection and completeness, will be given by the list of extracts for the reign of George II.: "Walpole as a Peace Minister" (Green); "The Preaching of Whitefield" (Lecky); "After Culloden" (Stanhope); "Pitt as a War Minister" (Macaulay). Each selection is introduced by a well-written paragraph by the editor, and he has provided also a general introduction—in too fine print, and ending, we cannot see why, at the accession of William III. One would have supposed that more abundant foot-notes would be desirable, and at any rate there should be some account of the authors and the works from which the selections are taken. An appendix contains fifteen maps, taken from Labberton's Historical Atlas. As a whole, the book is the best of its class with which we are acquainted.

The Two Spies. Nathan Hale and John André. By Benson J. Lossing, LL.D. Illustrated with pen-and-ink sketches by H. Rosa. D. Appleton & Co. 1886. Pp. 169.

IN this handsome volume Mr. Lossing relates with good taste and feeling the familiar stories of the two Revolutionary spies—stories familiar, but which will never lose their attractiveness or their pathos. There are too few materials for the life of Nathan Hale to allow it to be more than an introduction to that of the brilliant English officer; but, short as it is—barely thirty pages—this sketch makes a deeper impression upon the reader than the account of André which occupies the greater part of the volume. The publication of the book seems to have (apart from its general historical purpose) a two-fold object: partly to justify the erection, by Mr. Field, of the monument to André at Tappaan, but principally to excite interest in the projected monument to Hale. The writer's sentiment and sympathy are shown by these words of the "Foretalk":

"The motives of the two spies were expressed by themselves. Hale said: 'I wish to be useful. If the exigencies of my country demand a peculiar service, its claims to the performance of that service are imperious.' André avowed that in the enterprise in which he was engaged all he sought was 'military glory, the applause of his King and country, and, perhaps, a brigadiership.' The last words uttered by André under the gibbet indicated that his supreme thought at that moment was of *himself*. He said to the American officers present, 'I request you, gentlemen, that you will bear me witness to the world that I die like a brave man.' Hale's last words upon the ladder indicated that his supreme thought at that moment was of his *country*. He said: 'I only regret that I have but one life to lose for my country.'"

This volume has an especial literary interest, as containing André's "Cow-chase" in full, and also Miss Anna Seward's "Monody on Major André"—never before published in this country; also, three letters from André to Miss Seward, written at the age of eighteen.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Andrews, C. C. Brazil: Its Condition and Prospects. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Bishop, J. P. Commentaries on the Law of Contracts, upon a New and Condensed Method. (A new work superseding the author's old one.) Chicago: T. H. Flood & Co.
Bowen, J. E. The Conflict of East and West in Egypt. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Conrad, G. S. Cassell's Public School French Reader. Cassell & Co. $1.
Daudet, A. La Belle-Nivernaise. Histoire d'un vieux bateau et de son équipage. William R. Jenkins. 25 cents.
Dawson, E. C. James Haanington, First Bishop of Equatorial Africa. A History of his Life and Work. 1847-1885. E. & J. B. Young & Co. $2.
Elliot, H. R. The Common Chord: A Story of the Ninth Ward. Cassell & Co. $1.
Fenn, G. M. The Master of the Ceremonies: A Novel. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Fischer, H. Lessing's Laokoon und die Gesetze der bildenden Kunst. Berlin: Weidmann. 3 m., 60 pf.
Fleming, Dr. G. The Practical Horse-Keeper. Cassell & Co. $2.
Fothergill, Jessie. Borderland: A Country-Town Chronicle. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Frémont, J. C. Memoirs of My Life. Parts 4 to 10 inclusive. Belford, Clarke & Co. 50 cents each.
Frith, L. Life of Giordano Bruno, the Nolan. London: Trübner & Co. $2.
Galdoz, H. La Rage et St.-Hubert. Paris: Alphonse Picard.
Gaskell, Mrs. Cranford. Harper's Handy Series. 25 cents.
Gennevraye, A. L'Ombre. William R. Jenkins.
George Washington's Fifty-seven Rules of Behavior. With a historical preface by Wm. O. Stoddard. Denver: W. H. Lawrence & Co. 40 cents.
Greene, Belle C. A New England Idyl. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.
Greville Memoirs. A Journal of the Reign of Queen Victoria. Vol. iii. D. Appleton & Co. $2.
Gröber, Prof. G. Grundriss der romanischen Philologie. Part 2. Strassburg: Karl J. Trübner.
Hale, E. E., Sr. and Jun. Franklin in France. From Original Documents, most of which are now published for the first time. Boston: Roberts Brothers.
Hodder, E. The Life and Work of the Seventh Earl of Shaftesbury, K. G. With Portraits. In 3 vols. Cassell & Co. $7.50.
Irelan, J. R. A History of the United States of America from the Monarchic Colonial Days to the Present Times. In 18 vols. Vols. iii. and iv. Chicago: Fairbanks & Palmer Publishing Co.
Longfellow, H. W. The Golden Legend. With Notes. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 40 cents.
Maxwell, W. H. Primary Lessons in Language and Composition. A. S. Barnes & Co. 35 cents.
Memorial of James Alexander Dupee. With a Short Life. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.
Moor, C. R. Faith and Righteousness. A Memorial of Sumner Ellis, D.D., with an Outline of his Life and Ministry. Boston: Universalist Publishing House. $1.
Morison, Jeanie. The Purpose of the Ages. Macmillan & Co. $2.50.
Olcott, H. S. A Buddhist Catechism, according to the Sinhalese Canon. Approved and Recommended for Use in Buddhist Schools. Madras: Graves, Cookson & Co.
Reid, T. W. Gladys Fane: A Story of Two Lives. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Row—Olcott. Hinduism: the Dwaita Philosophy of Sriman Madhwacharyar. Compiled from original Sanscrit and other works. Madras: Popham's
Schroeder, S. The Fall of Maximilian's Empire. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Silsbee, M. C. D. A Half Century in Salem. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Stapfer, Prof. P. Racine et Victor Hugo. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Taylor, J. N. Treatise on the American Law of Landlord and Tenant. Eighth ed. 2 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Through the Gates of Gold: A Fragment of Thought. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 50 cents.
Walker, H. E. The Lady of Dardale, and Other Poems. Manchester, N. H.: Browne & Rowe.
Warriner, E. A. I am that I Am: The Philosophic Basis of Christian Faith. A Metrical Essay. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co. $1.
Yriarte, Charles. Autour du Concile. Paris: J. Rothschild.
Zirndorf, H. Isaak Markus Jost und seine Freunde. Cincinnati. 75 cents.

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OF THE

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Amount of Net Cash Assets, January 1, 1886 ..... $63,512,618 00

REVENUE ACCOUNT.

Premiums	$16,386,067 69	
Less deferred premiums, January 1, 1886	878,161 65	$15,507,906 04
Interest and rents, etc. (including realized gains on Securities sold)	4,157,796 42	
Less Interest accrued January 1, 1886	435,284 18	3,722,502 24
		$19,230,408 28
		$82,743,026 28

DISBURSEMENT ACCOUNT.

Losses by death, including reversionary additions to same	$2,757,635 97	
Endowments, matured and discounted, including reversionary additions to same	559,075 01	
Dividends, annuities, and purchased policies	311,119 11	
Total Paid Policy-holders	$7,62[illegible]	
Taxes and re-insurances	[illegible]	
Commissions, brokerages, agency expenses, and physicians' fees	[illegible]	
Office and law expenses, salaries, advertising, printing, &c.	[illegible]	923,402 80
		$[illegible]

ASSETS.

Cash in bank, on hand, and in transit (since received)		$3,023,306
United States Bonds and other bonds and stocks (market value, $43,124,273 85)		39,522,443 [illegible]
Real Estate		6,839,974 22
Bonds and Mortgages, first lien on real estate (buildings thereon insured for $14,000,000 and the policies assigned to the Company as additional collateral security)		15,228,775 00
Temporary Loans (market value of securities held as collateral, $5,912,741)		4,450,000 00
*Loans on existing policies (the Reserve held by the Company on these policies amounts to over $2,000,000 00)		408,619 44
*Quarterly and semi-annual premiums on existing policies, due subsequent to Jan. 1, 1887	1,041,666 15	
*Premiums on existing policies in course of transmission and collection. (The Reserve on these policies, included in liabilities, is estimated at $1,050,000)	646,437 14	
Agents' balances	161,905 31	
Accrued interest on investments, January 1, 1887	486,497 10	$71,819,623 48
Market value of securities over cost on Company's books		3,601,829 89

* A detailed schedule of these items will accompany the usual annual report filed with the Insurance Department of the State of New York.

CASH ASSETS, January 1, 1887, - - - $75,421,453 37

Appropriated as follows:

Adjusted losses, due subsequent to January 1, 1887		$202,346 43
Reported losses, awaiting proof, &c.		355,625 28
Matured endowments, due and unpaid (claims not presented)		37,890 70
Annuities due and unpaid (uncalled for)		9,318 74
Reserved for re-insurance on existing policies; participating insurance at 4 per cent. Carlisle net premium; non-participating at 5 per cent. Carlisle net premium		62,525,599 00
Reserved for contingent liabilities to Tontine Dividend Fund, January 1, 1886, over and above a 4 per cent. Reserve on existing policies of that class	$3,123,742 77	
Addition to the Fund during 1886	1,320,530 69	
DEDUCT—	$4,444,273 46	
Returned to Tontine policy-holders during the year on matured Tontines	267,818 21	
Balance of Tontine Fund January 1, 1887		$4,176,455 25
Reserved for premiums paid in advance		33,720 72
		$67,340,926 12
Divisible Surplus (Company's Standard)		8,080,527 25
		$75,421,453 37

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Death-claims paid.	Income from Interest.	Insurance in force.	Cash Assets.
1882, $1,955,292.	1882, $2,798,018	Jan. 1, 1883, $171,415,097.	Jan. 1, 1883, $50,800,396
1883, 2,263,092.	1883, 2,712,863	" 1884, 198,746,043.	" 1884, 55,542,902
1884, 2,257,175.	1884, 2,971,624	" 1885, 229,382,586.	" 1885, 59,283,753
1885, 2,999,109.	1885, 3,390,069	" 1886, 259,674,500.	" 1886, 66,864,321
1886, 2,757,035.	1886, 3,722,502	" 1887, 304,373,540.	" 1887, 75,421,453

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 153

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS 156

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:
The Next Party Issue 158
A Great Chance for Labor Reformers 158
The Rule of the Criminal Classes 159
"The Soldier Vote" 159

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:
Are Englishmen Interested in Politics? 160

CORRESPONDENCE:
Public and Private Interest 161
Ethics of Land Tenure 161
The Labor Vote in Philadelphia 162
Office-Holders as Political Workers 162
A Blind Guide 162
Nevada Oranges 163
The Wrong John Cotton 163
The Introduction of the Elective System 163
The Degree of A.B 163
Disguised Advertisements 163
That Russian Beggar 163

NOTES 164

REVIEWS:
Stephens's French Revolution 166
The Greville Memoirs 166
Recent Law Books 169
Retrospections of America 171
Talks with Socrates about Life 171
American Literature 172
The Synthetic Philosophy of Expression 172
The Functions of the Brain 173
Mathematical Teaching 173
A Tramp Trip 173

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 173

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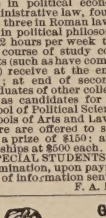

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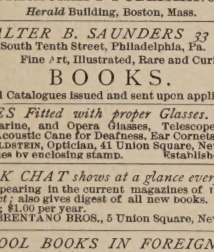

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 24, 1887.

The Week.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND'S veto of the little Texas Seed Bill is a fit pendant to his veto of the great Dependent Pension Bill. Nothing could possibly have happened better calculated to enforce the moral of his negative upon a great Northern raid on the public Treasury than this opportunity to block a petty Southern raid. It was the same principle as that of the Pension Bill, that the Government ought to come to the help of anybody who is in distress, which prompted the passage of the Seed Bill. Certain Texas counties have suffered severely from a long-continued drought, and the farmers are in need of seed-grain. But instead of organizing a movement to relieve this distress in the only proper way, by the subscriptions of their fellow-citizens in Texas, or by an appropriation of the State Legislature, an appeal was made to Congress for $10,000 worth of seeds for distribution among the sufferers, and the appeal was granted by both the Senate and House. This was only an extension of the same theory which has led many Southerners to endorse a scheme for appropriations from the Federal Treasury to help support the public schools in their States, instead of having the States themselves fully support them, as they are abundantly able to do. "It is hard," they said, "for our people to raise as much money as we need to secure good schools. If we are going to extend the length of the terms, as we ought to do, we shall have to increase the rate of taxation. Now, there is a great surplus in the Treasury at Washington. What better use can be made of it than to devote part of it to improving our schools?"

The demand of Northern Republicans for more pensions for Union soldiers, and the demand of Southern Democrats for Federal appropriations for their schools, were thus based upon the same fundamental principle, that an appeal to the general Government for assistance is in order whenever anybody needs help—in other words, that the Government should support the people. It is this principle which Mr. Cleveland combats in his pension and seed-bill vetoes. "I can find no warrant for such an appropriation in the Constitution," says the President in his message of last week; "and I do not believe that the power and duty of the general Government ought to be extended to the relief of individual suffering which is in no manner properly related to the public service or benefit. A prevalent tendency to disregard the limited mission of this power and duty should, I think, be steadfastly resisted, *to the end that the lesson should be constantly enforced that, though the people support the Government, the Government should not support the people.*" After remarking that the friendliness and charity of our countrymen can always be relied upon to relieve their fellow-citizens in misfortune, as "has been repeatedly and quite lately demonstrated" (referring evidently to the liberal contributions for the relief of Charleston), Mr. Cleveland says: "Federal aid in such cases encourages the expectation of paternal care on the part of the Government, and weakens the sturdiness of our national character, while it prevents the indulgence among our people of that kindly sentiment and conduct which strengthens the bonds of a common brotherhood."

The report of the House Pension Committee in favor of passing the Pauper Pension Bill over the President's veto is an exceedingly weak attempt at self-defence. The best reply to their plea that the bill is a just and proper measure, is the fact pointed out by a Union soldier in a published letter that, while a wounded veteran may receive only $4 per month, this law would give $12 per month to "bounty-jumpers and drafted men, whether they ever smelled gunpowder in the service or not." The arrant demagogism which is behind the scheme clearly appears in the claim that "the surplus in the Treasury can be best restored to the people in the manner proposed in the bill." As for the charge that protests against it "only come from money centres," the best answer is the remarkable series of letters to the President from Union veterans, many of them wounded and crippled men, who are strong Republicans in politics, thanking him for his veto. A more striking evidence of the real feeling among self-respecting soldiers could not be imagined than these voluntary communications to the President, extorted from political opponents by admiration of his moral courage in vetoing this gigantic job of the claim agents.

A few Bourbon Republican papers, which still cling to the bloody shirt, criticise the President for having signed a Mexican War pension bill under which "rebels" may draw pensions. But the real objects of criticism are the Republicans in Congress who sent the President such a measure with their all but unanimous endorsement. The bill which the President signed went through the lower branch precisely as it came from the Republican Senate, and the vote of the Republican Representatives on its passage was 105 yeas against but 2 nays. Congressman Grosvenor of Ohio is now quoted as estimating that "at least three-fourths of the beneficiaries under the Mexican Pension Bill will be persons who were actively disloyal during the war"; but, upon consulting the list of yeas and nays, we find among the yeas the name of Grosvenor. Nor can he plead that he voted in ignorance, for during the brief debate on the passage of the bill the fact that "rebels" might draw pensions under it was distinctly brought out. If anybody is to be blamed by Republican organs because ex-Confederates may now get on the pension rolls, it is Grosvenor and the 104 other Republican Representatives who voted without protest for a bill placing them upon it.

The Senate having passed the Trade-Dollar Bill with the House amendment, which provides that the trade dollars shall *not* be counted as part of the monthly purchase and coinage under the Bland Act, but shall be additional thereto, we earnestly hope that the President will veto it, and that he will not be deterred from doing so by any consideration of the chance of its being passed over a veto. We have seen how great an influence in an educational point of view the veto of the Pauper Pension Bill has proved to be. The Trade-Dollar Bill, in any aspect, is in the nature of a gratuity from the Treasury to a lot of speculators (or their successors) who bought these coins in China at various rates of discount, averaging, perhaps, 85 cents to the dollar, and brought them back to this country to be passed off, or sold to the Government, at 100 cents. The trade dollar was never a legal tender, except for small sums, in the same way that halves and quarters and dimes are now. This limited legal-tender quality was given to it by inadvertence in the coinage act of 1873. The mistake was not noticed until 1876. It was then corrected, and the trade dollar became what it was intended originally to be, viz., a mere ingot manufactured for the Chinese market, designed to promote the sale of silver in a foreign country, having no legal-tender character whatever. Strict justice would require that all trade dollars coined prior to July 22, 1876, should continue to be legal tender for sums under $5. All such trade dollars would gradually work their way to the Treasury and would be redeemed according to the terms of their coinage. The mistake of putting them in the same category as the halves and quarters—a sufficiently costly one—would thus be paid for, and justice would be satisfied. Anything beyond this is a sheer gratuity and donation, in comparison with which the Texas Seed Bill, for example, is the merest trifle. The latter proposed to give certain poor people—much poorer and more deserving than the holders of the trade dollars—the sum of $10,000 to buy seed for their spring sowing. Ten thousand dollars is a definite sum of money, and an inconsiderable one for a Government like ours. But the bill was vetoed upon the sound constitutional and moral ground that the Government is not a charitable institution, and the veto was sustained.

The Trade-Dollar Bill calls for an indefinite sum and a very large sum. The *Financial Chronicle*, an excellent authority, estimates the number of trade dollars that will be brought in under the bill at upwards of $20,000,000, the total coinage having been nearly $36,000,000. But it remains to speak of the character imparted to the measure by the House amendment, which provides that the trade dollars shall be coined into standard silver dollars or subsidi-

ary coin, and shall not be counted as part of the two millions per month coined under the Bland Act. This feature of the bill is virtually a new Bland Act, with the difference that it requires the bullion to be bought at 23 per cent. above its market value, and that it is limited in its operation to the amount of trade dollars that can be scraped together within six months. Every argument based upon the principles of sound finance which the President so happily expressed in his letter of February, 1885, to Gen. Warner, and which Secretary Manning has so often repeated, applies to this bill. If it would be a violation of those principles to pass a bill increasing the coinage under the Bland Act, which provides for the purchase of silver at its market value, it is a more flagrant violation of the same principles to pass a bill with that end in view which provides for the purchase of bullion at a premium of 23 per cent. It may be said that the Treasury is not required to coin this bullion into standard silver dollars, but may convert it into subsidiary coin. The answer to this is, that the Treasury already has a surplus of some thirty millions of subsidiary coin which it is carrying as dead capital. To add twenty millions more, or any other sum, would be as wasteful as to spend that sum in building old line-of-battle ships for the navy.

District-Attorney Martine, in giving his opinion to the State Senate touching the authority of Pinkerton's Men to carry arms, made the following extraordinary statement respecting the recent labor troubles: "A numerous class of our people are now engaged in the movement to better their condition. It does not appear that they have gone beyond lawful efforts. If they do, the police and military are sufficient to restrain them, and they should not be placed at mercy of the armed men in private employ." Now, if Mr. Martine knows enough about the matter to say anything whatever about it, he knows that every large strike of the past year has been accompanied with atrocious violence, that in every one of them the strikers have attempted by force of arms to prevent peaceable men from taking their places, and to damage the property of their late employers. He knows that in not one spot in the Union where these troubles have occurred, have the police and military been sufficient to restrain them except in this city, the police force of which is extraordinarily good. But can we blame the laborers, when their passions are inflamed and their delusions fostered and their lawlessness stimulated by such perversions as this, coming from the sworn minister of the law? Pinkerton's Men are a national disgrace, but the disgrace comes through the misconduct of mayors, sheriffs, district attorneys, and governors who fail or refuse to do their duty in protecting life and property. Until they are taught to behave themselves properly in word and deed, people will not surrender their arms so as to enable the Quinns and "Putnams" to have their way.

There is a programme for military and naval expenditures at Washington which foots up $98,000,000. The first measure in this attractive catalogue is the Hawley bill, providing for coast defences. The second is the Cameron bill for cruisers. The third is the Hale bill for ironclads. All these measures have passed the Senate. The fourth is the Stanford bill, the fifth the Dolph bill or amendment. The complete list was published in the Philadelphia *Press* the other day, with some valuable comments from its Washington correspondent, on the "defence craze" which is running away with the Treasury surplus. It is to be said, however, that the $98,000,000, if appropriated, is to be spent in yearly instalments of about $20,000,000 per year, and not all at once. The fate of these bills in the House is extremely doubtful. Mr. Randall is determined to defeat the Hawley $20,000,000 bill if he can, and the probability is that he will succeed. He entertains the belief that there is an immense job concealed in that measure, while others believe that there is a smaller but equally pernicious one lurking in his own $10,000,000 bill. Charges and counter-charges are hurled back and forth with great freedom, but nobody has ventured to impeach the personal motives of either Gen. Hawley or Mr. Randall. It is quite certain, however, that public confidence in the bona-fides of both measures has been impaired, and that the "defence craze" has somewhat abated in consequence.

The chief point in dispute between the advocates of the Hawley bill and those of the Randall measure relates to the mode of going to work, the former contending for Government gun factories and the latter for private establishments. Leaving out the element of jobbery as a matter altogether of surmise, and at the present stage unprovable, and looking at the results achieved abroad, there is much to be said in favor of private enterprise. The establishments of Krupp in Prussia and of Armstrong and Whitworth in England have been so remarkably successful that if any one of these existed in the United States, it would hardly be deemed necessary for the Government to build foundries of its own. But there being no such works here, it is a matter for fair debate whether the Government should take the rôle of a manufacturer, or should invite capitalists and inventors by offering to buy their products in certain quantities according to specifications fixed by the Ordnance Bureau. That the plant should be created in this country is an absolute necessity, if we are to have fortifications at all, but that fact does not estop us from buying guns for immediate use from Mr. Krupp or anybody else who may have the right thing for sale. We suppose that it would not be possible to create works equal to those at Essen in a shorter time than ten years with all the money in the Treasury, although very respectable guns might be produced within five or six years. The "friends of American industry," however, would be shocked at the thought of buying a gun or a ship of foreign make, even if an enemy were in full sail against our shores.

The House of Representatives some time since passed a bill to provide for an additional Judge of the United States Circuit Court for this district. The President had recommended such a measure in his annual message, and the bill passed without objection, except from some Western critics, who said that there were other districts which needed more judges too. However true this may be, it is certainly no argument against relieving the Southern District of New York at once. The bill, however, has gone to the Senate, and what has become of it there no one seems to know. In the Judiciary Committee the natural course would be to refer such a measure to Mr. Evarts, who would no doubt be glad to have it put in his power to do something to promote the more efficient administration of justice in his own State; but if it has been referred to him, what has he done with it? There is no dispute about the necessity of an additional Federal judge. This is the great centre of the judicial business of the whole country, and the judges cannot possibly get through with their work. A year ago, as appeared from an official statement furnished to the House by Secretary Manning, there were pending here 2,201 separate revenue cases, going back as far as 1867, and involving $11,519,268. Every one knows that a great number of revenue cases are decided against the Government, and it has been estimated that the interest account running on the claims which will probably be decided in favor of the plaintiffs is $150,000 a year. In other words, we waste every year *an amount sufficient to pay the salaries of twenty-five judges at their present rate of compensation*, without getting the work done. Under these circumstances, there should be no doubt about the passing of this bill at the present session. Indeed, if reported back from the Committee, it is certain to be passed. If it is really in Mr. Evarts's hands, he knows all about the condition of business in the Federal courts, and therefore argument would be thrown away upon him. If it has not been referred to him, we trust that he will make a search for it at once, in order that it may be passed before the session ends.

The report of the State Charities Aid Association on the Postal Savings Bank Bill now pending in Congress indicates that no action can be expected upon it during the present session. The gratifying statement is made that a majority of the members of the Post office Committee of the House were favorable to the bill. The rapid extinction of the public debt has lessened the means for investing the deposits which might be expected if the bill should become a law, but its usefulness as a place of safe keeping of the funds of the poorer classes, in districts not provided with savings banks, is in no wise diminished. Any man who has a thousand dollars in gold or silver coin can take it to the Treasury and get certificates of deposit for it, and the coin will be returned to him on the demand of himself or the holder of the certificates. Why should not the man who has one dollar or less have the like privilege? It is said that the result would be a locking up of money in the Treasury. This apprehension is much exaggerated, but in the worst aspect of the case it

may properly be asked, Whose money is it that is to be locked up? If every would-be savings depositor had a perfectly secure chimney crevice, or inaccessible coffee-pot or hole in the ground, where he could put his money with absolute assurance of finding it again, who would have the right to object to his putting his money there? Who objects to the withdrawal of gold and silver coin from circulation for conversion into jewelry, plate, watch cases, tooth fillings, gilding, chemicals, etc.? It is only necessary to state this objection in order to show its absurdity. Well-founded objections exist to the collection of money by taxation to be locked up in the Treasury. But the taking of money from the people by force in order to lock it up is widely different from leaving them free to lock it up if they want to, either in their pockets, or in old stockings, or in safe-deposit vaults, or in the public Treasury. The amount of money that will be left unused at any time, if any profitable use can be made of it, is too small to constitute a valid objection to the Postal Savings Bill.

All reports from Albany indicate a depressed feeling among the advocates of needed reform measures. The promoters of the Constitutional Convention bills say they have small hopes of any action, simply because the petty partisanship of both parties is so rampant that an impartial and wise plan for a convention finds few supporters. It is even said that the Field Code has a better chance this year than it has ever had before, simply because the tendency is to favor everything that is bad. Gen. Husted, we are told, is going about saying: "We shall pass the code this year. The American Bar Association has approved it, you know, and that will have great weight." Of course the American Bar Association has not approved it, and Gen. Husted is unusually ignorant if he does not know it. The Association distinctly refused to approve it. What it did was to say that a well-made code would be a good thing to have, which is a vastly different thing from approving the Field Code. We are not prepared to believe that the Legislature is going to pass Mr. Field's absurd measure, but what a commentary we are given once more upon the character of our legislators: they are openly opposed to the most necessary and desirable measures, and with great difficulty restrained from passing the worst.

The trick by which Speaker Husted pushed the Woman Suffrage Bill to a third reading on Friday was in all respects worthy of that statesman's recent career. In passing judgment on this performance, it does not make any difference whether the bill is a good or a bad one. It is, at any rate, a bill needing debate, which many members wished to debate, and the consequences of which, whether good or bad, are sure to be very serious. No human being can tell, for instance, what its effect will be on the government of this city. It will probably strengthen the hands of the enemies of the liquor interest; but what effect will it have on the enforcement of the law against the violence and disorders of "labor," on the school question, on taxation, and on the quality of elected officials? Nobody knows, and the Albany legislators do not care.

The speeches and resolutions of the liquor-dealers' mass-meeting in Steinway Hall on Wednesday week would make a first-rate campaign document in favor of the High-License Bill. When the men who control the 8,000 or more out-and-out liquor saloons in this city meet and declare "that, in the interest of public morality, we protest against the High-License Bill, and call the attention of the Legislature to the centralization and undemocratic tendencies of the measure," they furnish the best possible evidence that the bill is in the interest of public morals and good government. What the liquor-dealers do not want is precisely the measure which the good of society demands. A great deal of energy was expended in predicting that a $1,000 license on liquors would lead to illicit and secret selling so long as the price of a beer license was only $100. If this should prove to be the case, a remedy could easily be found by raising the rate for all licenses to $1,000. The reform that is sought now is the reduction in the number of saloons which sell alcoholic liquors. There are 7,773 of these which are licensed, against only 811 licensed beer saloons. The liquor-dealers show by their loud protests that they are afraid of the $1,000 license plan, and are by no means so confident of the easy violation of such a law as they pretend. If they were confident that by taking a $100 license they could go on selling all kinds of liquors with small chance of detection, why this uproar? Do they expect the public to believe that the average liquor-dealer is such a high-minded, public-spirited citizen that he would not avail himself of this chance to cheat the city out of $900 a year?

The last report of the Registrar-General in England appears to overthrow the long-accepted theory that the marriage rate varies inversely with the price of food. For a number of years the price of food, and indeed of almost every article which wages buy, has been falling, while wages, if not maintained at the old level, have not fallen proportionately. In other words, these years have been years of more than usual prosperity for the working classes, and, according to the old theory, they should have been also years in which marriages were more than usually numerous. Instead of this, however, the marriage rate has fallen from something more than 17 to every 1,000 of the population in 1873, to something more than 14 to every 1,000 in 1885. The only explanation possible appears to be that the masses are learning the lesson of greater forethought in contracting marriage as they become better off. The difference in this respect between them and the well-to-do classes is still great, as is shown by the fact that the miners and those employed in textile factories, who have no private means and but a precarious prospect of employment, marry at twenty-three, while the professional class, who very commonly have some private means, and certainly some prospect of making an income, do not marry till thirty. But the steady diminution of the marriage rate in the whole population would seem to prove that the poor are making some progress in prudence.

There is one exception to the rule as to the exercise of prudence in contracting marriage among the professional class. Barristers, and doctors, and merchants in England do not, as a rule, take wives until they have something on which to support a family, and the public opinion of the professional class discourages the marriage of a man who is without means or prospects. But this principle does not hold as to the clergy. It is still true, the *Spectator* says, that they marry early and recklessly, with the consequence that the Church is discredited by their poverty and by the appeals that are constantly being made to relieve it. The *Spectator* attributes this course of the clergy to a false public opinion among the laity, the sense of the evils of a celibate clergy being so strong that the most hopelessly imprudent marriage is somehow thought to be justified if the offender is a clergyman. The theory expressed in the saying that "a parson is not half a parson till he is married," thus leads public teachers to set the working classes an example of improvidence and imprudence. Dean Stanley is credited with having said that what was wanted in the Church of England was a close time for curates, and the *Spectator* thinks that "if public opinion steadily discouraged clerical marriage until a man had a living—unless, indeed, he had private means equivalent to a living—it would do a service to the working class as well as to the Church."

The advantages possessed by Bismarck in the German elections which took place on Monday can hardly be appreciated, except in Germany. The belief prevailed there that he held war and peace in his hands, and that if he carried the majority of the Reichstag, there would be no war, while, if his opponents were successful, he would adopt a course towards France which would result in war. Upon the occurrence of war, however occasioned, hundreds of thousands of young men in all the walks of life, high and low, rich and poor, must abandon their business, drop their tools, take their places in the ranks, and expose their lives and limbs to the enemy's cannon. For example, there is a bank in Berlin having some five hundred clerks. Upon the outbreak of a war, one hundred and eighty-eight of these young men must drop their pens, shoulder arms, and march to the frontier. Such a draft upon its working force immediately disorganizes the institution, and the same effect is produced in every large business establishment. The fears of the young men, their friends and relatives, and of the proprietors of large business concerns, constitute a political bias in favor of the Government, of enormous strength. To whatever extent it is believed that Bismarck can control the storm, is his influence on the minds of voters augmented. It is a grave peril that menaces Germany when she is asked to surrender constitutional government on pain of a desolating foreign war.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, February 16, to TUESDAY, February 22, 1887, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC

ON Wednesday, the 16th, the President vetoed the bill "to enable the Commissioner of Agriculture to make a special distribution of seeds in the drought-stricken counties of Texas," which provided for an appropriation of $10,000 for this purpose. "I can find no warrant for such an appropriation in the Constitution," the President wrote in his message, "and I do not believe that the power and duty of the General Government ought to be extended to the relief of individual suffering which is in no manner properly related to the public service or benefit. A prevalent tendency to disregard the limited mission of this power and duty should, I think, be steadfastly resisted, to the end that the lesson should be constantly enforced that, though the people support the Government, the Government should not support the people."

The President, before he returned the Dependent Pension Bill to Congress, received a large number of letters requesting him to veto it; and after he vetoed it he received a large number of congratulatory letters, many of them from prominent veterans of the war.

By a ruling of the Speaker of the House of Representatives against a motion to permit the immediate consideration of the Blair Educational Bill, it has been made impossible for that measure to be considered in the House before the Forty-ninth Congress adjourns.

Both houses of Congress on Saturday passed the Trade-Dollar Bill. It provides that for six months these dollars shall be redeemed at their face value by the United States Treasurer or Assistant Treasurers, and be recoined into standard dollars; but "that the trade dollars recoined under this act shall not be counted as part of the silver bullion required to be purchased and coined into standard dollars as required by the act of February 28, 1878."

The Senate on Monday passed the House River and Harbor Bill with amendments, and the bill is now in the hands of a committee of conference. The House Committee on Military Affairs has reported a bill appropriating $5,000,000 for coast defences.

The Senate has adopted the conference report on the Anti-Polygamy Bill. The bill repeals the charter of the Mormon Church, and instructs the Attorney-General to institute proceedings to recover property not acquired by that corporation in accord with the laws of the United States. It has gone to the President. The prediction is made that, if it becomes a law, it will give the death-blow to polygamy and to the Mormon hierarchy.

The Senate has passed three bills for the better equipment of the navy and for coast defences. One appropriates $8,000,000 for the purchase of steel for ordnance and for armor, and for the erection of an army-gun factory at West Troy, N. Y., and $5,000,000 for the construction of fortifications, making a total of $13,000,000. The second bill (Mr. Cameron's) sets apart $15,000,000 for the construction of ten protected steel cruisers, $2,000,000 for the payment of bonuses for speed beyond the contract requirements, and $4,800,000 for the armament of the vessels, a total of $21,800,000. The last (Mr. Hale's bill) appropriates $15,000,000 for the construction of heavily-armored vessels, or armored floating batteries, or rams, to be used for coast and harbor defences, for torpedo boats and the like. The total appropriations which will be made if these four bills pass the House and are approved, will be more than $58,000,000.

The Tehuantepec Ship Railway Bill, so amended that the United States shall not guarantee the interest on a part of the share capital, passed the Senate on Thursday by a vote of forty-six to seven.

The House Committee on Invalid Pensions has made a unanimous report favoring the passage of the Dependent Pension Bill over the President's veto.

The members of the Congressional Conference Committee on the Inter-State Commerce Law are agreed that the law forbids the issue of a railroad pass to any person. It was at first thought that passes could lawfully be issued to preachers by the roads to which the law applies.

A petition has been presented to the Legislature of Texas protesting against the investigation by the Senate Committee on Privileges and Elections of the conduct of the election last fall in Washington County.

In the New Jersey Assembly the Democratic contestants for disputed seats have been seated, and many fruitless ballots have been taken in the effort to elect a United States Senator.

The long contest in the West Virginia Legislature to elect a United States Senator is not yet ended.

The Legislature of Nevada has passed, with only three opposing votes, a resolution proposing a constitutional amendment the adoption of which will disfranchise all members of the Mormon Church in that State.

The Judicial Committee in the Senate of Pennsylvania has reported favorably on a bill making two-thirds of the jury sufficient to acquit or convict in criminal cases.

A bill has been introduced in the Legislature of New York providing for the erection of a monument on the battle-field of Gettysburg to each of the regiments and batteries from the State which took place in that battle, the cost of each to be not more than $500.

The Brooklyn Civil-Service Reform Association held its annual meeting Thursday evening, when a statement was made by a special committee that a "serious irregularity" had been discovered in one of the examinations conducted by the municipal Civil-Service Commissioners. The report also showed that Mayor Whitney had created seventeen new positions exempted from examination, for some of which examination seemed to be practicable and desirable.

The New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor have sent a petition to both branches of the Legislature and to the Governor, for the enactment of a high-license law, and vigorous efforts have been made by other organizations and by many prominent individuals to cause the passage of the bill that has been introduced.

Fully 4,000 men who engaged in the great strike in New York and the adjacent cities were left idle last week after the strike was declared ended, and many of them are not likely to find work for a month or more to come. No provision has been made for their support by District Assembly 49 of the Knights of Labor, and they must shift for themselves.

The strike of the street-car drivers in Boston and its suburbs continues. In Cambridge three cars were stoned on Sunday. The police discovered a large collection of bricks, paving-stones, and other missiles on the roof of a house on one route which were intended for violent use if the cars were run at night.

The full returns of the election of Mayor of Philadelphia on the 15th are: Fitler (Rep.) 90,497, Keim (Dem.) 62,204, Philips (Labor) 1,664.

The resignation of the Hon. E. R. Hoar as President of the Board of Overseers of Harvard University has been accepted, and a committee has been appointed to nominate his successor.

The Canada Pacific Railroad west of Winnipeg is blocked with snow, and trains may not be able to run regularly before May 1. A number of engines have been abandoned. Trains have been abandoned also in Dakota on account of the snow. On Thursday there was such a severe storm in Colorado that a number of trains were blown from the tracks. Parts of Chicago were inundated, and people were obliged to leave their houses. Ice gorges in Michigan have caused destructive overflows. The continued cold weather in many places in the far West has made a serious fuel famine.

One wire, extending in a circuitous route from Chicago by way of Deming, N. M., and Los Angeles to San Francisco, was the only medium of telegraphic communication on Friday night between the cities of the East and the entire country west of the Rocky Mountains. The series of storms between the Missouri River and the Rocky Mountains, lasting three weeks, has been without a precedent since the telegraph company's lines west of Chicago reached the dignity of a system.

The lowest estimate of the loss of cattle in Montana this season is 25 per cent., and many cattle men say that 40 to 50 per cent. have perished. One owner has lost 10,000 out of a herd of 25,000.

The Chicago, Milwaukee and St. Paul Railroad Company has equipped two passenger trains between Chicago and Milwaukee with apparatus for heating by steam from locomotives. The experiment has so far proved successful, but it has not yet had the test of severe weather. The company is also building an iron heating car to carry a boiler for generating steam for heating the train and to run next the engine. This is the first experiment made on any long line of railroad to dispense with stoves in passenger cars. Bills have this week been introduced in several State Legislatures to prohibit the use of stoves.

Gen. Robert B. Potter died at his residence in Newport on February 19. Having made a brilliant military record during the war, at its close he was assigned to the military command of Rhode Island and Connecticut, with headquarters in Newport, where he was a great favorite in military and social circles.

FOREIGN.

The most important event on the Continent during the week was the German election on Monday. During the political campaign the excitement became every day more intense. The Emperor sent an autograph letter in support of the candidature of the Prince of Hohenzollern against a Triennate opponent. The *North German Gazette*, Prince Bismarck's organ, declared that the Reichstag would again be dissolved if the Government did not secure a majority at the elections. All the Government administrators of the districts promulgated formal instructions to their subordinates, in which they attacked the Liberals very freely. The Liberal leader, Richter, answered them in an open letter, to show the absurdity of their statement that those who voted against the Septennate were enemies of the Emperor and of the Empire. The authorities forcibly stopped a New Liberal meeting at Berlin on Sunday, just as Herr Richter was about to speak. The audience of several thousand persons afterward marched through the streets cheering for Richter, and many arrests were made.

The election on Monday resulted in the return of a majority for the Government. But in Alsace-Lorraine the Septennate candidates were defeated, and this is considered an ill-augury of peace, and as likely to lead to the adoption of severe measures in those provinces. Herr Windthorst was reëlected. The total Socialist vote shows an increase of 500,000. It is reported in official circles that the Emperor will summon the Reichstag to meet, without waiting for the supplementary elections to be held, as soon as verified returns show the election of a sufficient number of Deputies to constitute a quorum. The supplementary elections will be held on March 3.

On the Emperor of Germany's birthday, March 22, his youngest great-grandson will be

christened, and the betrothal of Prince Henry of Prussia to Princess Irene of Hesse will be proclaimed.

Several workmen's unions and Socialist societies at Pesth started a fund to assist German candidates who opposed the Imperial Government in the recent election. When Premier Tisza heard of the movement he forbade it, saying that Hungary was too intimately connected with Germany to sanction such opposition to the German Government.

The Emperor of Austria has held two councils of war. Twenty thousand applications have been received for officers' commissions in the Hungarian Landsturm. Rich women are seeking positions in the ambulance service. The Budget Committee of the Reichsrath, by a unanimous vote, have agreed to the credit of 12,000,000 florins for the equipment of the Landwehr and the Landsturm.

The relations between Austria and Russia are reported to be so much improved that it is no longer expected that Austria would make a Russian occupation of Bulgaria a *casus belli*.

The Franco-German situation is again declared by all the Continental correspondents to be one of great tension. "I fear," says the Paris correspondent of the London *Standard*, "that the sanguine mood prevailing just now is destined to be somewhat roughly dispelled at a not very distant time, when the country will be brought face to face with very unpleasant realities on the Franco-German frontier. Generally great excitement is said to prevail, and preparations of all kinds are being advanced rapidly, the population being almost in a panic."

There was a riot at Saarburg, Lorraine, on the 18th. A crowd of youths paraded the streets singing the "Marseillaise," and a conflict arose, in which a police constable was killed. Many inhabitants of Alsace-Lorraine have applied to the Austrian Government for citizenship, in the hope to escape military duty in the event of war. The German authorities have arrested in Mühlhausen several persons suspected of being connected with the French Patriotic League. Work on the fortifications at Verdun has continued night and day. All commerce has been suspended at Metz, except in food. The inhabitants are storing their houses from cellar to garret.

Despatches from St. Petersburg say that in Russian Government circles the conviction is gaining ground that war between France and Germany is inevitable. As a fresh defeat of France might involve disastrous results to Russia, the Czar's Government will, it is said, in the event of war, preserve entire liberty of action. It will not support France as an ally, but may, by a firm, reserved attitude, prevent Germany from sending the whole of her army west of the Rhine, and, even if France should be defeated, attenuate as much as possible the effects of the disaster. For these reasons, it is declared, Russia will await the outcome of the different phases of the Bulgarian crisis with the greatest calmness; and it is supposed that this intention on the part of Russia explains the dallying in the negotiations for the settlement of the Bulgarian question now being carried on at Constantinople. The *Journal de St.-Pétersbourg* directly denies that Russia has impeded the settlement of the Bulgarian difficulty, and says: "The British Blue Book shows who is responsible for the original disturbance in Bulgaria. The English press should seek the cause elsewhere than in Russia."

An extensive plot has been discovered at Odessa for a Polish uprising in the event of a Russo-Austrian or Russo-German war. Many imperial officers and officials are implicated. Twenty persons have been arrested.

Saturday, the 19th, being the seventieth anniversary of the birth of King William of Holland, the people made it a holiday. The people of The Hague presented his Majesty with a casket, an address, and a Bible.

Dr. E. Schmit von Taverna, counsellor of the Austro-Hungarian Embassy at Berlin, has been appointed Austrian Minister at Washington in the place of Baron von Schaeffer, who has for some time been absent on leave.

King Humbert has issued an order to his army, in which he says that the Italian troops who displayed such gallantry and steadiness in the recent battles with the Abyssinians shed honor upon the Italian Army, and that their bravery will be imperishable in Italy's military history.

Signor Depretis has submitted the following Cabinet list to the King of Italy: Count di Robilant, Foreign Affairs; Signor Saracco, Interior; Signor Magliani, Finance; Signor Viale, War; Signor Brin, Marine; Signor Grimaldi, Public Works.

Archbishop Walsh of Dublin has subscribed $50 to the defence fund in behalf of Messrs. Dillon, O'Brien, Redmond, Crilly, and others.

The jury which sits on the case of Mr. Dillon and his associates at Dublin is made up of eight Protestants, one Quaker, and three Roman Catholics. It is expected that the jury will disagree, and the failure to convict the campaigners, it is thought, will be used by the Government as proof of the necessity for a coercion act.

Great excitement was caused in the House of Commons on Thursday evening, when Mr. Parnell's motion not to consider the rules of procedure before the Government should have disclosed its proposed legislation for Ireland was rejected by a vote of 242 against 107. Mr. Dillon, one of the defendants in the trial of the traversers at Dublin, made complaint of the jury panel, and the Speaker ruled him out of order because a previous motion had been made on the same subject. There were other attempts to continue the debate on the address in reply to the Queen's speech, but the address was adopted by a vote of 283 to 70. The situation developed by the Speaker's ruling is extremely serious, for it opens the way for the Government, whenever it anticipates an unpleasant discussion, to block it, by having a motion filed for debate on the same subject at some distant time.

Resolutions have been adopted at several popular meetings in Ireland protesting against the ruling of the Speaker of the House of Commons under which Mr. Dillon was not allowed to speak of jury packing.

Maj. Edward James Saunderson (Conservative), member of Parliament for North Armagh, has published a letter in which he declares that, if home rule be granted to Ireland, the Loyalists of that country have ample assurances from England that they will not have to battle alone against the Irish Cabinet.

The British Government has ordered the mounting and manning of artillery at all the forts on the Shannon, some of which have not been occupied for years.

A conference of the leaders of the Conservative party was held on Monday, at which Lord Salisbury expressed the hope that the Government would be able, by reforming the rules of procedure, to restore to the House of Commons its capacity for work and its reputation for courtesy, "after which," he added, "we shall be able to deal with the question of local government in Ireland and with other measures. In any case, all bills will be postponed until after the conclusion of the proceedings for reform of the procedure rules and action on the estimates. The Government expects to present the budget during the first week in April." The Prime Minister predicted a long long lease of office for the Conservatives. On the same day Sir William Vernon Harcourt said that the Round Table conferees were still laboring to reunite the Liberal party on a basis which should contain no deviation from Mr. Gladstone's fundamental principles respecting the Irish question; and the Liberal victory at Burnley was received with great delight by the Liberals, which they interpreted as foreshadowing the doom of the Unionists everywhere.

Mr. Gladstone, addressing a crowd at a railway station in Wales on Saturday, urged that the Welsh demand a settlement of the Irish question in order to secure attention for their own local concerns.

While the Recorder of Galway was giving a dinner party at his residence in Kildysart, at which two magistrates were guests, the police found on one of the window sills a box of dynamite with a burning fuse attached. The fuse was quenched just in time to prevent an explosion.

On Feb. 16 and the two following days, in all the chief cities of India impressive ceremonies were held in commemoration of the Queen's jubilee. In the Christian churches and in the native temples and mosques there were thanksgiving services. As many as 25,000 prisoners who had been incarcerated for debt or for offences against the civil or military law, were set free.

Mr. W. H. Smith said in the House of Commons, in answer to an inquiry, that it was not intended to release Irish or other convicts on the occasion of the Queen's jubilee. The release of prisoners in India in commemoration of the jubilee had been ordered by the Government in accordance with an Oriental custom. The order did not apply to Great Britain.

It is reported that the Queen will, during her jubilee year, establish an order of decoration, specially intended for the recognition of literary, artistic, and journalistic merit.

In the House of Commons Mr. Labouchere moved to censure the Government for its Bulgarian policy. The motion was negatived without a division.

The London *Times* advises that no time be lost in effecting a settlement of the fisheries dispute between the United States and Canada before the fishing season opens.

Bishop Keane of Richmond, Va., congratulated the Pope in the Vatican on Sunday upon the ninth anniversary of his pontificate. The Pope, in his discourse, described the Baltimore Council as an honor to America and to the whole Church.

Negotiations between Spain and the United States for a new commercial treaty have been suspended by Spain until the American Congress shall have taken action with regard to the tobacco and sugar duties.

The lottery loan which the Congo Free State proposes to issue in Belgium will be divided into shares of 125 francs each, bearing interest at 5 per cent. The amount of the loan will be 150,000,000 francs.

Henry M. Stanley has arrived at Zanzibar on his way to rescue Emin Pasha.

Advices were received at San Francisco on Sunday of an eruption of the Hawaiian volcano Mauna Loa. The eruption began on January 16, when a column of fire shot up from the south crater. Two days later the whole district around the volcano was shaken by an almost constant succession of heavy earthquake shocks. Nothing was seen of lava until January 18, as it found an underground passage. On that day, however, it broke into view, and three great rivers of it took their course to the sea. One stream reached the ocean in two days, and the others were reported as not far behind in their course. Great destruction of property was caused, but no loss of life. Later advices are that the eruption had ceased on February 8, and that earthquake shocks were felt until January 26.

Sixty lives were lost by the recent floods at Brisbane, Queensland. The damage to property was very great.

Members of the Dominion Parliament were elected on Tuesday, and a small Conservative majority was returned.

THE NEXT PARTY ISSUE.

We cannot help thinking that the very recklessness with which Congress is trying to get rid of the surplus and prevent the reduction of taxation, combined with the demands of "Labor" on both the Federal and State Governments, is likely before long to make the question of the proper limits of the province of Government a party issue in a larger and more serious sense than it ever has been before. It divided the Whigs and the Democrats, it is true, in the early part of the century, but the wildest claims made by the Whigs for Government interference were trifles compared to the demands made on the State by the advocates of the paternal system to-day. The latter have got far beyond the aid to infant industries with which their fathers would have been content. Temporary aid from the Treasury for infant industries has grown into permanent aid to an unlimited extent to all industries, young or old, feeble or prosperous. The demand for popular education, to fit young Americans for the battle of life and the practice of the elementary virtues, is rapidly growing into a demand that the Government shall see to it that there is no battle of life, but that every poor man is taken care of and delivered from all temptation, from the cradle to the grave. In fact, we are, as President Cleveland pointed out in his veto of the Texas Seed Bill, almost brought face to face with the question whether the people shall support the Government, or the Government support the people.

The country is being ravaged in every direction by that extraordinary modern delusion that there is somewhere, in every country, an immense reservoir of the good things of this life, of which the great capitalists keep the key, but which Government, if it pleased, might throw open to the people. There is no such reservoir or store. There is no fact better ascertained than that if we were all to stop working and saving, in three years we should be a mob of ragged paupers, dying of cold and hunger in dilapidated buildings. Mankind cannot lay up great stores of either food or clothing. When the race is doing its best, with all the machinery at its command, it can only get two or three years ahead of its wants. Nature follows it up with the whip of necessity, and lashes it into ceaseless industry.

This great and chief hallucination contains or tends to another—that there is somewhere a depot of great administrators, from which the Government can draw all the officers it would need, to enable it to take care of all its citizens in health and disease, provide them with light work at good wages, and see that their homes are healthy, and that their vices or follies do not interfere with their success in life. All the schemes for making the Government "support the people" assume the existence of an indefinite number of candidates for office such as one never sees in office in our day, and such as all the corporations in the land search for vainly with the offer of enormous salaries.

Congress seems to have laid aside all scruple about nourishing these delusions. Almost all its legislation on social or economical questions during the last ten or fifteen years has tended to foster the belief that the good time coming in America was to be a time when everybody would be taken care of by somebody else, and when finally we should all draw subsistence and even luxuries from Government stores, produced by machinery worked by Government officers, and distributed, together with a reasonable amount of paper pocket money, to all who said that work tired them. This tendency cannot go much further without furnishing a very burning question to politics—such a one as has not been presented to the country since the abolition of slavery. The tariff was pretty sure to breed such an issue sooner or later, but its appearance is being greatly hastened by the "labor problem." Voters will, before very long, be called on to settle more clearly and definitely than ever the exact amount of work which the Government is to do for the private citizen in this country, and to remind people in some emphatic way that the Government is itself nothing more than a collection of plain men, like the rest of us, temporarily put in charge of a public subscription towards the general expenses, called the taxes. The extraordinary craze, too, which many politicians are encouraging, that people who save are public enemies, to be abused and abandoned to the fury of mobs, and compelled to support or take care of those who will not save, must be stamped out. It will be stamped out vigorously whenever it is submitted to the popular vote, and it looks now as if it would be submitted very soon—that is, as if the people who want the Government to support them would be emboldened to take the field as a political organization.

A GREAT CHANCE FOR LABOR REFORMERS.

We would respectfully remind all persons among us who have, during the past year or two, been interesting themselves in the condition of the laboring poor in this city, and especially those persons of intelligence and education who tried to make Henry George Mayor of New York as a general protest against the abuses of our municipal government, and all who see in the recent disturbances between employer and employed a demand for some radical change in the relations of these two classes—we would remind all these that there is now a chance for them, no matter what kind of reform they aim at, to make a good beginning in their work. The High-License Bill now before the Legislature will be, if it passes, the first step in any proposed solution of the labor problem, no matter what that proposed solution may be. No matter what plan of social regeneration a man may have, he must admit that the greatest of the evils from which the laboring poor now suffer is intemperance. Granting that all the charges made on behalf of the laborer against the capitalists and the monopolists are true; granting that all the stories told about legislative discrimination against labor are well-founded; granting that the rich are as heartless and indifferent as the poor say they are; granting that the present social organization is as unjust as Anarchists say it is, the fact remains that improvement in the laborer's condition is impossible without cutting down his drink bills. No social arrangement which man can make can benefit people who get drunk. No matter what wages you pay a drinking man, neither his condition nor that of his family can be improved thereby. There is no use in providing extra holidays for men who use them to get drunk. There is no use in cutting down the day's labor from ten to eight hours, if the two hours gained are spent in a rum-hole. There would be no use in making arbitration compulsory, if one of the parties was likely to be kept from obeying the decision by liquor. There would be no use in handing over all the property in the world to laboring men, if they drank as much as they do now. They would soon dissipate it, and add nothing to the store.

So also in this city there is not the smallest use in reforming the charter as long as liquor-dealers remain a power in politics. It is they who prevent the execution of the laws, who fill the courts and jails with criminals, who thrust corrupt men into high places, who are at the bottom of all the shameful "deals" and bargains which make so many good men despair of our Government. We owe to them more than to any one agency the filth of the streets and the wretchedness of our tenement-houses. The ignorance and folly which put thousands of poor men into the hands of the rapacious scoundrels who organize the strikes, are their doings. The violence and disorder by which every strike is accompanied, are their work also. Every group of strikers watching non-union laborers with murder in their hearts and eyes have a liquor store behind them, and are half full of bad rum, brandy, whiskey, or gin. It was the liquor-dealers who supplied the boodle Aldermen; it is their influence which keeps up the constant tinkering of the city charter at Albany. It is they who send thither the most powerful lobbies in support of every bit of legislation which the sober, honest, industrious, and intelligent portion of the community dreads. And they do not simply supply an existing demand for liquor—they spread the craving for it. They enlarge their own market every day. They set up their bars beside every school, and catch the boys of the community as soon as they begin to think of being men. They attack labor at every point at which it can be most easily damaged. They make it unreliable, wasteful, shiftless, improvident, unskilful. When a steady man has a good place, they get him kicked out of it for drunkenness; when a laborer's home is neat, orderly, clean, and comfortable, they convert it into an abode of squalor and filth, like the hut of the savage. There is no thinking man to-day in New York who does not know that if the liquor bills and liquor-dealers of this city could be cut down even two-thirds, there would be an improvement in our social and political condition which would astonish the whole country.

We therefore most earnestly ask those, of whatever way of thinking, who have at heart the elevation of the poor, to give the High-License Bill their active and energetic support. No matter what they aim at ultimately, they must see that no real improvement in the laborer's condition can be effected by law-making in a community which is ruled by

liquor-dealers—that is, by men directly interested in the promotion of a habit which impoverishes and degrades. Let us all join in delivering the city from this awful curse. After that our ways may again separate, but we shall at least be able to discuss our differences before more intelligent and self-respecting audiences.

THE RULE OF THE CRIMINAL CLASSES.

THERE is a movement on foot among the decent Democrats in Baltimore to secure the assistance of the Legislature of Maryland to rescue the city from the control of the criminal classes. In pursuance of this endeavor Mr. John K. Cowen recently made a speech which was reported in the Cecil *Democrat*. To this speech, or to some part of it, the Baltimore *Sun* took exceptions, implying that Mr. Cowen's picture of the situation of Baltimore as a city governed by law-breakers and assassins was overdrawn. Mr. Cowen has replied in a letter, several columns in length, addressed to the *Sun*, in which he particularizes some of the facts upon which his speech was based, and by which the Democratic Mugwumps of Baltimore expect to justify their appeal to the Maryland Legislature. This appeal, it should be remarked, is not a petition for general reform to be reached through outside agency and intervention of the gods, but merely such amendment of the election laws as shall enable the people of Baltimore to secure honest and free elections at all times, and a true return of the votes cast.

The picture drawn by Mr. Cowen of the existing state of Baltimore politics is considerably worse than anything we can now recall in the history of municipal governments. It is distinctly worse than the Tweed régime in New York, because it adds murder to ballot-stuffing and the commoner forms of political debauchery, as an instrumentality for gaining and retaining power in the city government. In order to find any parallel to Mr. Cowen's narrative we must go back to the conflicts of Milo and Clodius in the last days of the Roman Republic.

Mr. Cowen seeks to establish three propositions, viz.: that in the primary elections in the city of Baltimore the candidates for State and municipal offices are selected by men of criminal character and by criminal means; that in such elections the majority does not govern, but that men of criminal record falsify the count, and, by different methods, *distinctly criminal*, reverse the will of the people; that the city officials who get office by these means recognize in their appointments their dependence upon the criminal class, and act in accordance with its demands. Mr. Cowen relies upon common rumor to prove that the primary elections of the Democratic party in Baltimore are carried by frauds committed by criminals for criminal purposes and with criminal means. The only instance cited is that in which Eugene Higgins took a conspicuous part, and which was pretty thoroughly exposed at the time when Higgins received an appointment in the Treasury Department at Washington.

Coming to the elections held in pursuance of law, Mr. Cowen first analyzes the character and records of the judges appointed to receive and count the votes of the respectable citizens of Baltimore in the last municipal election: Michael McCloskey, judge of election in the Eighth Ward, had been indicted and convicted of crime, and was further disqualified under the law by holding a city employment; Emil Telle, Ninth Ward, indicted, convicted, sent to jail, and pardoned; Michael Rolf, Tenth Ward, indicted for keeping a policy shop and found guilty, also indicted for assault with intent to kill, the Sheriff having become his bail and the case not being pushed; Henry Wich (Republican judge), First Ward, indicted, convicted, served in jail six months; Thomas Philbin, Fourteenth Ward, indicted nine times between November 24, 1882, and October 8, 1886; Robert Blunt, Sixth Ward, indicted and convicted as late as March 20, 1885; Charles P. Logue, Tenth Ward, indicted eight times between April 12, 1881, and July 3, 1883; Edward Kelly, indicted for assault with intent to kill and convicted of assault June 20, 1884. One of the judges, name not given, had been convicted of enticing young girls, under fifteen years of age, to houses of prostitution, and another had a mistress who had been convicted and sent to the penitentiary for eighteen months for the same offence. Two of these rascals, having a very long and dark criminal record, committed a murder while the Supervisors were making the appointments of judges of election. Instantly the Supervisors destroyed all the papers that might have showed how they came to appoint such characters to such responsible places; and in order to make sure of getting all the evidence out of the way, they destroyed even the official list of the judges, so that a correct list has never been published. The name of Higgins here turns up again. Says Mr. Cowen:

"We ask how it comes that when Curran has broken the solidity of a big ward, two of the most notorious cutthroats in the city are selected from outside the party, given offices in that ward, and immediately murder the man giving trouble? Do the Supervisors explain? Far from it. They immediately destroy the only evidence that can throw any light upon the matter or establish their own innocence, if they be innocent. It is not too much to say that they act precisely as the pickpocket does—throws away the purse as soon as he has gotten the money out of it. We ask why does Higgins come all the way from Washington down to Locust Point to tell a witness of that tragedy that it is a matter of no account and will 'blow over'? Again no explanation. Gentlemen, that fact, until it be explained, can have but one meaning, and that is that the murder of Curran was a thing for which the organization was responsible, was done as its measure, and that the murderers must be protected. Do you know any other explanation? If you do, I shall be interested to have it. We ask, What need has the party for a thing of darkness like Higgins at all, and why should he be kept in office at Washington against the remonstrance and to the disgust of the whole country?"

The transactions of this precious lot of election judges in their several precincts after they entered upon the performance of their duties are recited in detail. Every kind of fraud to make the return of the votes different from the true one was resorted to, with the ascertained result of falsifying more than 9,000 votes in the last municipal election. Mr. Cowen closes his letter with the simple inquiry whether the people of Maryland desire to have their chief city given over in permanence to the rule of the criminal classes. If such is their preference, they have only to leave things as they are. But really there is no such thing as permanence in this kind of a government. The next stage will be fighting in the streets between different bands of the criminal classes, like the battle between Milo and Clodius and their gladiators in the Appian Way.

"*THE SOLDIER VOTE.*"

THE only reason why Congress passed the Dependent Pension Bill was because Congressmen supposed that support of it would "make them solid" with "the soldier vote." The general public did not appear to take much interest in the matter, but the Washington claim agents had worked up an apparent demand for the measure on the part of the veterans, and it was solely the idea that support of the bill would strengthen Senators and Representatives with the soldiers among their constituents, which gave it an overwhelming majority.

The theory upon which this action was based, baldly stated, is that the ex-soldiers of the Union Army are open to bribery, and that their votes may be captured by special appropriations for them as a class from the public Treasury. This theory has been generally held by the politicians ever since the war, and has now come to be accepted as gospel by the average Congressman of either party. The alarming growth of the pension list, which, but for the President's veto, would have given us a standing army of beneficiaries far larger than the standing army of fighting men in such great Powers as France or Germany, was due not to disinterested love of the Union veterans, but to a belief that they were so mercenary in their character that they would support any public man who voted them money, and oppose any public man who voted against any such grant.

And yet, like so many other traditions, this theory has no foundation in fact. Indeed, it has been demonstrated over and over again that the facts are directly opposed to the theory. Both positively and negatively it has been proved beyond possibility of doubt that "the soldier vote" is not a bribable vote; that the man who tries to secure it by championing unjustifiable pension bills does not succeed; that the man who stands by his convictions in opposing such measures gains rather than loses among the soldiers themselves. The occasion is timely for citing some notable illustrations of this truth, which just now so much needs to be brought out.

In the Forty-fifth Congress the Democrats had a good majority in the House, and the Chairman of the Pension Committee was Americus V. Rice, an Ohio Democrat. Mr. Rice's Committee reported the Arrears of Pensions Act—an utterly unjustifiable measure, under which the vast sum of $218,000,000 has already been distributed—and the Democratic House passed it with a whoop. In 1877 the Democrats had elected their candidate as Governor of Ohio by 22,000 votes, and in 1878 the contest for minor State offices had been so close that Democratic success in 1879 appeared probable. To make assurance doubly sure, the Democrats resolved to capture "the soldier vote" by nominating Gen. Rice and Gen. Ewing, another old soldier who had sup-

ported the Arrears Act, for the first two places on their ticket. The result was that Foster, a civilian, was elected Governor over Ewing by 17,129 votes, and Rice was beaten for Lieutenant-Governor by 15,598 votes. Such was the sequel to the championship of the Arrears Act.

For two or three years past a little band of greedy schemers, who appear to "run" the Grand Army organization in Massachusetts, have been diligently pushing the "service pension" project, which would place on the roll every man who ever served three months in the Union Army. The self-respecting veterans of Massachusetts were hostile to the job, but on the surface it appeared to be popular with the soldiers. Such was the conclusion of Congressman Lovering of the Sixth District, and accordingly he became the zealous advocate of the scheme. In 1884, Lovering was elected over the Republican candidate by 265 plurality; in 1886, after two years' effort to capture "the soldier vote" by pushing the service-pension project, he was defeated by 728 plurality.

The moral of Lovering's defeat was happily enforced by the fortune at the same election of Mr. Henry B. Peirce, for several years Secretary of State in Massachusetts. Mr. Peirce had made himself conspicuous by a manly fight against this job, and the schemers declared that he should be "snowed under" by "the soldier vote." Election came on, and the result of their threat was this: For Governor on the Republican ticket Mr. Ames had 122,346 votes; for Secretary of State Mr. Peirce had 122,684 votes.

Even more striking was the result of a similar issue in the Rochester Congressional District last fall. The service-pension scheme had somehow got a foothold among the Grand Army men there, and Mr. Baker, the Republican candidate, came out unequivocally and enthusiastically in favor of it. Mr. Bacon, the Democratic candidate, being directly questioned on this very subject by a deputation of would-be pensioners, answered not only that he did not favor such a measure, but declared that he was "resolutely and unalterably opposed" to it. The publication of this answer, so far from injuring him, brought him hundreds of Republican votes, even from soldiers, and carried his total several hundred above that for Judge Peckham, the Democratic candidate for Judge of the Court of Appeals, while Baker ran behind Daniels, the Republican candidate for Judge, the totals being: For Republican Judge, 13,254; for Republican Congressman, bidding for "the soldier vote," 13,170; for Democratic Judge, 10,050; for Democratic Congressman, "resolutely and unalterably opposed" to a pension job, 10,509.

The reception of President Cleveland's pension veto by the Union veterans shows that his action in this matter is to receive similar treatment by all self-respecting soldiers. The *Evening Post* publishes a number of the letters which he received before his decision, praying for a veto, and after his veto thanking him for it. "It originated with claim agents and professional pension-seekers," wrote one old soldier, "and is not the cry or plea of the great body of veterans. The only cry they have now is that you will spare them the honor of having served their country because they loved her, and not as mere bounty and pension-seekers." The heartiness of the praise awarded him by Republican ex-soldiers is especially noteworthy. "Many times I have had occasion to commend your manly course," writes one; "but I write now to thank you, as an old soldier and a patriotic citizen, for your veto of the Dependent Pension Bill." "I write to thank you for vetoing the Dependent Pension Bill," says another. "I volunteered (under the call of President Lincoln) on the day after the attack on Fort Sumter, entering the ranks when I might have had an 'office,' and I think I have some right to speak as a volunteer soldier." As for the political effect of Mr. Cleveland's action among old soldiers, "A Cavalryman's" letter in the same paper undoubtedly represents the drift in saying—

"President Cleveland is entitled to the gratitude of the country for vetoing this iniquitous measure, and also for exposing the fraudulent character of so many of the private pension bills passed by Congress. I am opposed to him in politics, but he can have my vote next time if no better Republican than 'Jim' Blaine can be found to oppose him. In my judgment he has made a good President, and his general policy has been to ignore mere politics and serve the best interests of the people."

It is good to have the fact demonstrated that the old soldiers are, first of all, good citizens, and that "the soldier vote" cannot be captured by demagogues offering great bribes from the public Treasury. If it were otherwise, if our Union veterans were really the mercenaries they have been taken for by the demagogues, the prospect would be most gloomy, for they constitute an army of voters now, as they did an army of soldiers twenty-five years ago. But happily they do not differ from good citizens who were not soldiers, and they share that feeling which prompts one man to write Mr. Cleveland as follows:

"I am a Republican of over thirty years' standing, and during all that time have known of no act of any administration that has pleased me more than that of vetoing the Pension Bill lately passed by Congress. It is the most flagitious and cowardly measure I have ever known, and I sincerely thank you for vetoing it."

ARE ENGLISHMEN INTERESTED IN POLITICS?

LONDON, February 11, 1887.

THE question with which I have headed this letter may seem, at first sight, a strange one. No one who takes up an English newspaper, no one who reads an English magazine, no one who peruses the speeches of English politicians, can doubt that England is in the midst of a political crisis which excites the keen interest of the English people. The existence of the crisis is past denial; what is much more doubtful is the keenness of popular interest.

Let there, however, be no mistake about my meaning. It were the idlest folly to waste the columns of the *Nation* in maintaining the idle paradox that Englishmen took no interest in public affairs. It were almost equally silly to argue that because men and women in England pursued their private business, and enjoyed their private pleasures, while something like a revolution was impending over the country, they did not really care whether home rule was or was not granted to Ireland. No political change ever arouses the kind of universal and intense interest which historians are too apt to attribute even to petty party contests. In the very height of the Reign of Terror, millions of Frenchmen pursued, we may be sure, the calm tenor of their lives, undisturbed by fear of the guillotine or by aspirations after an ideal republic. During the Lord George Gordon riots the theatres of London were, I believe, open, and respectable spectators contemplated with calm curiosity the fires kindled by the mob. But though it be a truth, and an important truth, that the storms of politics always leave the peace of private life to a great extent undisturbed, it is also true that the degree to which citizens of a country are occupied with the welfare of the state differs immensely in different ages and in different countries. My inquiry is certainly meant to suggest the inference that Englishmen are far less interested in the matters which concern Parliament than were their forefathers, and perhaps than are at this moment the inhabitants of other countries.

One fact is as certain as anything can be which depends upon merely historical evidence. During the eighteenth and the earlier part of the nineteenth century, the class of Englishmen whose wishes determined the destinies of the nation were intensely and even passionately occupied in public affairs. Every foreigner—such a man, for example, as Voltaire—who visited England, was at once struck with the political spirit of English society. Partisanship, violence, or corruption could with more or less reason or plausibility be charged against English party leaders and their followers. The one charge which no one ever brought either against the nation or against its statesmen, was the vice of indifference or apathy. Goldsmith was not a subtle or a profound thinker. Lightness of thought, as of touch, is the characteristic quality of his work. But if he took life lightly, he observed it acutely, and any one who peruses either "The Traveller" or 'The Citizen of the World,' will see at once what was the impression made upon Goldsmith by the world around him. It seemed to him, as it no doubt really was, a world of politicians, and of politicians who, though they might gamble away the fortunes of their country, pursued the game of politics with the passionate enthusiasm of gamblers. No doubt the classes who found their chief interest in public affairs were in the main the classes who shared the power and the gains of Government. But the spirit of the wealthy affected the tone even of the poor. The exquisite account given by 'The Citizen of the World' of the conversation between the imprisoned debtor and the drunken soldier is, as evidence of a state of feeling, worth hundreds of heavy dissertations by learned historians. The debtor is determined to take up arms against French invaders, because Frenchmen were slaves who knew nothing of liberty. The soldier, who interlards his conversation with the hottest oaths, is resolved to die in defence of his country because Frenchmen are Papists and would, if victorious, destroy English religious freedom. Satire is not to be read like an affidavit, but the exaggerations of a satirist must be based on truth. If debtors in England were not always devotees of a freedom which they did not themselves enjoy, and if drunken dragoons were not invariably zealous Protestants, we may yet be assured that, in Goldsmith's time, the men who filled the prisons and the army—English regiments, by the way, were in George the Third's time constantly recruited from the hulks—were, like the rich and the noble, inspired by the sentiment of intense pride in the civil and religious liberties of England. "When a butcher," says Johnson, "tells you that his heart bleeds for his country, he feels no real sensation." This is true, but when butchers shed even rhetorical tears over the fate of their country, we may be convinced that the mass of the people glow with the passion either of patriotism or of party spirit.

Johnson, Burke, Boswell, Goldsmith, all the members of the Club, were more or less typical representatives of English society, and no one who reads Boswell's pictures of the men among whom he moved, can doubt for a moment that the vast majority of them were what would now be called violent politicians.

If we come down to a later time, we still find public matters occupying almost to excess the attention of the nation. Whoever will take up any biography of the men who lived between say 1800 and 1848, will be struck with the keenness of their feeling about every great political movement. The advocates of the Reform Bill believed that an alteration in the constitution of Parliament would introduce a political millennium. The opponents of reform thought that the abolition of rotten boroughs was but the first step towards a reign of terror, and it is quite certain that what leading men thought and said (not only, be it remarked, in public, but also in their private letters and journals) was said and thought by thousands whose names are forgotten, or have never been known beyond the circle of their families. Arnold was a clergyman and a schoolmaster, living in the quietest of English counties, yet he certainly, unless my memory deceives me, expressed in 1829 or 1830 a fear lest the prevalent violence of party feeling should lead to something like civil war. The virulence of party invective with regard even to the highest persons in the state was, half a century ago, something to which modern political controversy can afford no parallel. Invective is, it is true, often unreal, but words are, after all, the sign of feelings, and the rhetoric of party abuse gives some, though by no means a conclusive, proof of general interest in the result of political conflicts.

Contrast, now, the fact to which I have tried to direct attention, with at any rate the superficial phenomena of modern English society. England is in the midst of a movement which, whatever be its issue, must vitally affect the Constitution of the country. A proposed alteration in the English Constitution is, in Ireland at least, closely connected with social changes. Politics proverbially become exciting when they touch on matters connected with the rights of property, and no one, whatever be his party bias, dreams of denying that in Ireland the agrarian question and the political question are closely connected together. Discussions about home rule are for the moment merging in disputes about the Plan of Campaign. Nothing, it will be admitted, more surely embitters party spirit than the introduction of religious differences into the field of public affairs. This element of bitterness is not wanting to the home-rule controversy. The position and rights of the Irish Protestants, and the influence or policy of the Catholic priesthood, cannot be put out of sight by any one called upon to make up his mind for or against home rule. To all this may be added that, behind differences of view as to the government of Ireland, lie hidden, or only half hidden, essential differences of opinion or of sentiment as to the government of England, and indeed as to the whole relation between the state and individuals.

Here, it might be thought, we have every element which ought to excite the keenest interest, not to say the most vehement passion, throughout the length and breadth of Great Britain. Now, no sensible man will assert that public feeling has not been stirred. A careful observer may think—and, as it seems to me, with reason—that the time of excitement and passion is coming nearer and nearer. It would cause me much pain, but no great surprise, to find that, as the contest about home rule grows hotter, differences of opinion on public affairs may disturb the harmony of private life. All I can say is, that hitherto it has been very difficult to find signs of unmistakable interest on the part of the general public in the great political battle which is conventionally supposed to engross universal attention. It is almost impossible to believe that our fathers or our grandfathers would, on such an occasion as the present, have displayed anything like the calmness of their descendants. Prudence, moderation, and self-control are admitted virtues. No one can rate their political value too highly. But they are moral graces, it must be admitted, which men are apt to display with most ease in reference to any subject which does not greatly touch their feelings. Calmness is apt to be allied with indifference, and the political calmness of modern Englishmen suggests a waning interest in politics. Of the causes which may have produced this decline in the political spirit of the nation, I hope to say something in another letter. AN OBSERVER.

Correspondence.

PUBLIC AND PRIVATE INTEREST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A burst of applause from the country has followed the veto of the general Pension Bill. The courage of the President has rescued his constituents from the folly, not to say the wickedness, of the inorganic mass of Congress, swayed by the intrigues of wire-pullers, of whom the pension agents are only one sample, It is an interesting illustration of the relation which the President, as the representative of the whole nation, bears to the anarchy of local and private interests. But, after all, it is only *negative* action. As the oyster does not seek its food, but lies with its mouth open till the food tumbles into it, so the President must remain passive till the freaks of Congress furnish him material for digestion or rejection, the choice being generally as to the least of two evils. He has to sit an idle spectator of ground and lofty tumbling, till the scuffling acrobats fall outside of the arena, and then to thrust them back again.

But if this negative action excites such interest through the country, just imagine what *positive* action would do. If only the ringmaster could apply the whip directly to the animals, or (to be parliamentary) if, through his chosen agents, he could publicly demand and insist that Congress should take up and consider with some system and definiteness the state of the finances, of the tariff, of the navy, of the Indians, and so on! It might be thought that the position of the President would itself become less dignified and important, or what Napoleon called, in reference to the Abbé Sieyès's constitution, that of a "cochon à l'engrais," but this does not follow. He could announce his own policy clearly in his messages, and his Cabinet would be merely his servants to carry out that policy, holding their places only as long as they did so, or, in other words, would be responsible to him and not to Congress. It does not appear that he would be any less dignified in relation to legislation than he is (and there is nothing like it in the world) as the chosen representative of sixty millions of people.

One thing is made clearer by this event, and that is, that in proportion as the President does his duty, as he is less governed by party politics and more by considerations of the national interest, he becomes less the representative of one party against the other, and more that of the country against Congress. Hence, it follows that it is of no use to look to Congress to increase and extend his power over their deliberations. That must be done by popular agitation and a direct appeal to the people by somebody or some organization, to force the hand of Congress in this direction.

I am tempted to add a comment on the letter of your correspondent, "L. N. D.," who argues that no progress can be expected from Congress, because he finds that in thirty-five years' experience the members from his district have been of a very inferior class, and yet, he thinks, quite equal to those from the rest of the country. The reason is very simple, that members are not chosen for what they do at Washington (for unless they are of a kind to descend to pure intrigue they can do nothing), but on account of their management of the political machine at home. Any one who will read the account, in Woodrow Wilson's 'Congressional Government,' of the fate of a member who tries by honorable public action to promote any measure of public interest, will easily see the reason of this.

When the public business is so systematized and organized that it can be taken out of the committee-rooms to the open sessions of the houses; when the motives, the action, and the influence of members can be seen and appreciated, not only by their constituents, but by the country; when ability can thus make its mark, and honorable distinction be gained, then the conditions of election will be changed, and the standard of character of members be steadily raised. But that can only be done by placing the conduct of business in the hands of responsible executive leaders—that is to say, responsible, not to Congress, but to the country. G. B.

BOSTON, February 21, 1887.

ETHICS OF LAND TENURE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A learned friend of mine, with earnest aspirations for the highest private and public morality, in tracing the wordy rhetoric of 'Progress and Poverty' to its real origin in the ninth chapter of Spencer's 'Social Statics,' seems to me to have somewhat confused the quality of practical discrimination, respecting which our sober race entertains a pretty good opinion of itself. It is not surprising that many who, like him, have been accustomed to follow with conviction the thoughts and conclusions of Mr. Spencer, should continue to yield their minds to him when he comes to extremely doubtful ground; and it is perhaps the ability and originality of his arguments on the morality of land tenure which induced Mr. Henry George to think them worthy of appropriation.

But Mr. Spencer is by no means the only scientist who has stumbled on strange paths, and it is not unnatural for his arguments to lose their force when they wander from the firm ground of experienced investigation to the more complex questions of public ethics and economy. While mathematical argument may be safely based on the fixed and solid facts which are accessible in the natural sciences, we know that definite and unshifting facts in social ethics are few in number, and subject to no end of qualifications, changes, and exceptions under the shifting circumstances of civilized social life. Mr. Spencer says: "We have here nothing to do with considerations of conventional privilege or legislative convenience. We have simply to inquire what is the verdict given by pure equity in the matter; and this verdict enjoins a protest against every existing pretension to the individual possession of the soil," because "the right of mankind at large to the earth's surface is still valid, all deeds, customs, and laws notwithstanding." It is for that reason, stated in different forms and with all the consummate argument of which that great teacher is master, that he concludes, "Equity, therefore, does not permit property in land."

But no individual, however eminent, has any right to set up his own standard of so controverted a subject as "equity," and condemn all conflicting public law and usage. What is pure equity? What is equity, pure or impure? Had it ever in any age, or has it now, any common or accepted definition? Those spiritual religionists who think that solution of ethical questions is obtainable through prayer, by the special interposition of the Deity in each heart, have their view of it, while Mr. Bentham and his followers insist that equity, conscience, and words of kindred meaning only express the standard of strictly utilitarian social policy prevalent at the time and place, which standard constantly varies from age to age, and between different societies during the same age. Between those wide extremes exist a myriad definitions of every shade, each supported in learned essays and by a host of followers. Who is to decide between them? Manifestly, every seeker after truth, each for himself and on his own responsibility. No mortal being, whatever his own convictions, has a right to set up his particular ideal of equity, and square down to its doubtful and narrow edge the polity, usages, laws, and conscience of the rest of mankind. There never was, and cannot be, any common standard of "equity." Can the same standard prevail, for instance, in war and peace—with the preacher in his pulpit and the policeman in a riot—with the girl at a ball and the sailor shipwrecked among hungry savages? Surely not. How, then, shall we presume to try any right by an arbitrary standard which varies among different societies and peoples, and changes its meaning from generation to generation?

So much for "equity" as a standard. But it is a still more pernicious fallacy to treat land tenure as a question of equity at all. Nature has given many other things to "mankind at large," *i. e.*, to him who first appropriates, and equity has no more to do with the appropriation of land than with that of a deer or a fish or a lump of coal. It is a question not of equity but of social policy. Fully three-fourths of the globe is unoccupied by civilized inhabitants, and its treasures of soil, minerals, and forests are unappropriated and therefore not yet required. When in future ages every acre shall be billeted with its inhabitant, then it may become necessary, as with the overladen boat at sea, to decide which shall be sacrificed. But even in such case, since all have an equal right to life, it is policy and not equity which must pronounce the stern decree. But, for ages to come, perhaps during the existence of the human race, it is open to any man who will work and save, to exchange his savings for a part of the earth's surface; and whether the occupancy thus acquired shall be exclusive and perpetual, is not a matter of ethics, but of policy. And the moment we come to treat it as such, and proceed to examine such policy by the abundant light of history and experience, we shall immediately appreciate the facts that no form of civilization ever arose without it; that it has been invariably associated with all social progress; that every race which failed to appreciate or enforce it has been superseded by better ones; and that (outside of abnormal religious enthusiasm) nothing noble, strong, or good ever asserted or maintained itself except by the daring and effort of individuals largely incited by ambitious hopes for themselves and dependents, of which the acquisition and tenure of land was first and chief.

In every free society, municipal law but expresses the standard of social equity and policy prevailing at the place and time, and it is simply matter of fact and observation that, from the beginning of history, social progress, notwithstanding local and temporary exceptions, has, in the long run, been in exact proportion with the efficacy of opinion and law in maintaining rights of property once acquired in the most fixed and responsible of all earthly possessions. I. J. W.

PHILADELPHIA, February 15, 1887.

THE LABOR VOTE IN PHILADELPHIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The labor vote at the Philadelphia municipal election on Tuesday last has a significance which would seem to merit attention. Philadelphia is preëminently a city of organized labor, and there is probably no other community in which so heavy a vote would be polled on any question (if such there be) in which the interests of labor could be recognized as antagonistic to those of the rest of the citizens. For months the labor agitators have been busy in organizing a political party and boasting of the impression which they would produce at the polls. On the eve of the election Mr. Henry George was brought here, and addressed a meeting computed to number not less than 3,000. The result was, that in a total poll of about 155,000 the leading candidate on the labor ticket received 1,664 votes. It is evident that labor agrarianism has no promising field of development in our distinctively industrial community.

Various causes could doubtless be named as contributing to this, but the leading one is not far to seek. In Philadelphia the most noteworthy social fact is the exceptionally wide distribution of property. From statistics furnished to me by the Assessors' Office, it appears that the number of individual owners of real estate may be estimated at about 90,000. If each of these represents a family averaging six members, it thus appears that one-half the population is directly interested in the land as owners. Besides this, through our system of "Building and Loan Associations," which in great measure play the part of savings banks, vast numbers not landowners are interested in land-ownership through mortgages held by the associations. Such a community is not likely to listen with favor to the theories of Mr. George, who, though a native of our city, very naturally prefers to live in the more congenial atmosphere of New York.

Very closely connected with this is another social fact of importance. The number of separate dwelling-houses in Philadelphia is, in round numbers, 182,000. Of these about 40,000 are valued, including the lots, at less than $1,000, and about 60,000 at between $1,000 and $2,000. As a rule, among the temperate industrial classes, every family expects to have a house to itself, and those who occupy rented houses live in the hope of some day owning their own rooftree, for which, under our system of building, every facility is furnished. Those who are not landowners, therefore, have at least their little outfits of furniture and their hopes of future ownership. Such men offer poor material for socialistic and agrarian agitation. What they own they have earned by hard labor and thrifty self-denial, and they are not disposed to share it with the shiftless, the idle, and the improvident.

What is called the labor question is too complicated a problem to be solved by a single factor; but I think the above facts show how at least one of its most menacing aspects is capable of solution, and of solution in a manner conducive to the elevation of humanity. Of course peculiar difficulties are presented by the topographical features of New York, rendering minute subdivision of property impossible; but there are few other American cities of magnitude in which the methods which have proved successful in Philadelphia would not in a generation produce the same results.—Respectfully yours, H. C. L.

PHILADELPHIA, February 17, 1887.

OFFICE-HOLDERS AS POLITICAL WORKERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the first number of the *Epoch* is an interesting discussion of the question whether public officers should actively engage in party politics. Elihu Root speaks for the Republican, Carl Schurz for the Independent, and Edward M. Shepard for the Democratic view of the case. The last, it must be said, is rather an excuse for the alleged inconsistencies of the President than a discussion of the question.

I do not wish here to enter upon the merits of the case, but merely to examine the principal consideration which leads Mr. Root to the conclusion that public officers should engage in party politics: "What we need in American politics is not so much to prevent intelligent people from doing their political duty, as to induce them to do it," he tells us. "Our general tendency is from the condition of a people who were eager to govern themselves, to that of a people who are willing to be governed by others."

Perhaps both propositions are true. Nevertheless, why is it desirable that intelligent citizens should engage in politics or that the American people should govern themselves? Is political activity or self-government an absolute good, a desirable end, or are they good only as they aid in bringing about needed legislation and good government? And if the latter, is it not equally clear that it is honest and conscientious, as well as intelligent, participation in politics and government which is calculated to secure these ends? It follows that it is highly desirable to eliminate or restrain the ignorant, prejudiced, and dishonest vote, or to have it directed and controlled by men of the other class so as to do as little harm as possible.

Mr. Root seems, therefore, to affirm the following propositions:

(1.) Public officers form the most honest, intelligent, and conscientious portion of the American people.

(2.) This class has a strong tendency to shirk that political activity which the country needs at their hands.

(3.) The active partisan effort of public officers, paid by the people and including State and municipal governments, controlling a patronage of more than two hundred million dollars annually, will tend to eliminate, restrain, or wisely direct the ignorant, dishonest, and purchasable vote.

With these ideas, he ought to hold, further, that it is the duty of the President to issue an order requiring all Federal office-holders to exert themselves to the utmost, and use all means at their command to subserve party interests.

H. E. W.

A BLIND GUIDE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue for February 10 you say, upon your highest editorial authority, that, during the political campaign of 1884, an Episcopal rector of Erie, Pa., was dismissed from his parish because he refused to vote for Blaine. You will pardon me, I hope, when I challenge the statement. No such incident occurred there during the campaign of 1884, or at any other time, either to an Episcopal rector or to a pastor of any other denomination. I have been intimately acquainted with the local history of Erie for years.

Were the zeal of the *Nation* as ardent for truth as it is to find something mean to say about Blaine, whether true or false, its readers would be more certain that some of its other "facts" are not made from similar Erie whole cloth.—I

have the honor to be, sir, very respectfully yours, EUGENE M. CAMP.
PHILADELPHIA, February 12, 1887.

[We did not say what Mr. Camp charges us with saying, but we find to our regret that in what we did say we were misled by a Blaine organ. In an unguarded moment we gave credence to what we read in its columns about the matter in question, but now learn, on inquiry, that its statements were just about as "ardent for truth" as those so frequent in the Blaine press of the time on the subject of Plymouth Church and Mr. Beecher. Mr. Camp will forgive us, we are sure, on our solemn promise never again to believe an unsupported assertion of a Blaine newspaper.—ED. NATION.]

NEVADA ORANGES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the current number of the *Century* magazine, the writers of the 'Life of Abraham Lincoln' speak of Nevada as "that land of silver and cactus, of the orange and the sage-hen." As to the silver, the cactus, and the sage-hen, the description is doubtless correct, but the reference to the orange assumes an extension of the citrus belt that will cause profound surprise to the residents of the Pacific Slope. This slip in regard to Nevada prepares us for the misspelling of Sutter's name (Suttar appearing for Sutter) in the allusion to California, and makes us hesitate to set down the error as an oversight of the proof-reader.—Sincerely yours, J. ELMORE.
LITTON SPRINGS, CAL., February 8, 1887.

THE WRONG JOHN COTTON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The following literary discovery is announced in the *Sunday Record*, Boston, February 13:

"I must not close, my dear Everard, without mentioning a Theocritus that I recently found in an English catalogue in which I was hunting for some editions of the poet to add to my collection. This little volume bears the date 1683; but what makes it so curious and interesting to me is the fact that it is dedicated to Dr. John Cotton, our first Boston minister. This furnishes a point of view in regard to Cotton which is certainly not the common one; and it amused me greatly when I first noticed it. The first words of the dedication are as follows: '*Nobilitate, Virtute, Eruditione ac summa Humanitate conspicuo Viro, D.D. Johanni Cottono Equiti Aurato & Baronetto. Maximo Literarum Literatorumque Patrono, Domine suo benevolentissimo, ac summa observentia in perpetuum colendo, Author S.P.D.*' I am sure I never before thought of Amaryllis & Berenice in connection with that old Puritan. The edition itself is disappointing, but the long dedicatory introduction is very interesting, and will amuse you sometime, when we get a chance to talk some things over together in the old way by the fire.

"Very faithfully yours,
"W. M. FULLERTON."

I say nothing of the strangeness of a dedication in 1683 to a man who died in 1652, because this edition might be a reprint. But I do wonder at the care taken to style Rev. John Cotton of Boston a knight and baronet, because, from modesty no doubt, he carefully concealed those honors during his lifetime. And I wonder how this appropriation of honors pleased the worthy Sir John Cotton, Bart., of Connington, grandson of that famous Sir Robert who founded the Cottonian Library. This Sir John succeeded his father (Sir Thomas) in 1662, and died December 12, 1702. Very strangely, his monument bears an inscription showing that he was fond of literature, and that he gave the library to the public use. But, of course, he was not the person mentioned in the foregoing preface.

By the way, it might have been noted that this Sir John Cotton, Bart., had a son John who married the daughter of that typical Yankee, Sir George Downing, of whom New England is both proud and ashamed. This connection with the Theocritus, though rather far-fetched, is at least substantial, and might have been dragged in safely to tickle our vanity on a Sunday morning.
POCOMAS.
BOSTON, St. Valentine's Day.

THE INTRODUCTION OF THE ELECTIVE SYSTEM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: President Charles Kendall Adams, in his article in the *Contemporary Review* for January on "University Education in the United States," speaking of the gradual relinquishment of the old-fashioned curriculum, and of the unsatisfactoriness of the plan of "parallel courses," says: "All of the more prominent universities, however, have felt themselves obliged to seek the same ends by other means. Harvard University has been the leader of this third movement, and the means by which its ends have been accomplished is known as the 'Elective System.'"

It is rather surprising to see such a statement at this late day and from such a source. Surely it is not too much to expect that one in high position, writing in a prominent review on this topic, should know what university did take the lead in this matter, as it has known no other system from its foundation by Thomas Jefferson. No better correction of the error can be given than in the words of Prof. Noah K. Davis, in an article in the February *Forum*, "Religious Exercises in State Schools." Speaking of the system of voluntary religious exercises in the University of Virginia, he says:

"Here then, we have the experiment fairly and fully tried through sixty years. While, just now, other colleges are timidly groping their way toward freedom in religious exercises, as well as toward elective studies, as though these were untried and dangerous experiments, there, the elective system throughout, and absolute freedom from any religious constraint, have long been constantly practised, with such results that no intelligent observer has ever dreamt of a wish to restore mediæval shackles, either in education or in religion. Virginia is a slow old State, they say; not making much progress. It may be so. But it would seem that, in some things, before pushing on farther, she can afford to wait till the rest catch up."

Respectfully yours, A. H.
UNIVERSITY OF MISSISSIPPI.

THE DEGREE OF A.B.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Not only is the college degree of A.B. delightfully indefinite, but it is worse than indefinite. For, while the public are taught to believe it a symbol of good work done in some of the departments of the college menu, in fact it often means nothing more than that its receiver has managed to remain four years at college without having been guilty of any violent disregard of college laws, and has shown during that time that he has tried to study some one or two subjects.

When academies are permitted to give college degrees, a two-fold injustice is enacted. Such a giving of college degrees is unjust both to the public and to the poor student, who will sooner or later learn to his sorrow the great difference between his A.B. and, for example, that from Yale.

While I, too, "am a thorough believer in the elective system, yet I do not believe that any one is entitled to the degree of A.B." who has not done a certain amount of brain work, who has not been educated up to a certain point. It is by no means necessary that A have done the same work in kind as B for him to receive the same degree; but it is necessary that they be equally educated, equally equipped for future work along their respective lines. For example, just how much French and German is an equivalent for a certain amount of Greek is for the gentlemen of the faculties of our colleges—not academies—to decide. That the equation cannot be made with mathematical truth, is no argument against the approximation of the truth. Let us learn something in this matter of college degrees from our cousins across the water. JESSE T. LITTLETON.
BELLE HAVEN, VA., February 16, 1887.

DISGUISED ADVERTISEMENTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: One of your recent numbers had an article calling attention to the wrong many newspapers did their readers by publishing advertisements in the form or guise of reading matter, without anything to show its true character.

I think this must have escaped the notice of the publishers of the Boston *Advertiser* and *Transcript*, as yesterday both printed the enclosed advertisement of one of the biggest stock-jobbing electric enterprises going, in such a way as to lead the unwary to suppose it to be merely a matter of public interest; and in the *Transcript* copy the illusion was shrewdly made more complete by placing it directly under the staring heading "Postscript," as if it had just come over the wires from New York and was altogether too important a matter to keep back a moment. When such a generally high-toned and deservedly respected paper as the *Transcript* lends or sells itself to this kind of deception, it is time that its readers protest.

It may be claimed, in defence, that no deception was intended, and that the true character of the article was evident. This I cannot admit. If it made no difference in its value to the advertising party, why was it not marked "advertisement"? and how does the offence against business morality differ, except in degree, from accepting money for writing financial articles for the purpose of "booming" worthless stocks?
L.
BOSTON, February 16, 1887.

THAT RUSSIAN BEGGAR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Here is another of Plastonoff's pusillanimous schemes. It bears the same heading as that reported in the *Nation* of February 17, and runs thus:

"KIEW, October 15, 1886.
"DEAR SIR: Supposing to translate into the Russian your great work, 'Two Years in the Jungle,' I ask your permission for translation. Should you favor me with an affirmative answer to this request, I hope you will be good enough to send me a copy of the book, with your autograph.
"I am, dear sir, yours most respectfully,
"ROMAN PLASTONOFF."

The scheme was a good one, for it flattered my personal vanity most powerfully. But the artful dodger calmly reposing in the last sentence was too apparent to be overlooked, and the little scheme miscarried. With me Mr. Plastonoff is out of pocket to the extent of his postage and his time. At first I resolved to write him a sarcastic reply, but on second thought it seemed that the game was not worth the candle. Now that I know the extent of his dishonest scheming for books, thanks to the *Nation*, it will afford me great pleasure to reply to his request in a manner befitting the occasion.—Yours very truly,
WILLIAM T. HORNADAY.
UNITED STATES NATIONAL MUSEUM, WASHINGTON, February 19, 1887.

Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS' spring announcements include Laveleye's 'Balkan Peninsula'; 'Scotland as It Was and as It Is,' by the Duke of Argyll—an illustrated octavo; 'Two Years in Europe,' by Prof. Rodney Glisan, M.D., likewise illustrated; the following in the "Nations" series—Persia, by S. G. W. Benjamin, Assyria (in continuance of Chaldea), by Z. A. Ragozin, Ancient Egypt, by Prof. Rawlinson, Alexander's Empire, by Prof. J. P. Mahaffy; a new series, entitled "English History as Told by Contemporary Writers," edited by F. York Powell; 'The Memorials of Half a Century,' by Bela Hubbard; and 'Sketches in Song,' by Prof. Geo. L. Raymond of Princeton College.

Under the title of "The Theological Educator," Thomas Whittaker will publish at short intervals a series of manuals, edited by the Rev. W. Robertson Nicoll, M.A., in conjunction with other British scholars and theologians. 'A Grammar of New Testament Greek,' 'The Thirty-nine Articles,' 'Preaching,' 'The Creeds,' 'A Manual of Christian Evidences,' are some of the forthcoming issues.

From the Government Printing Office we have the great volume of the Fish and Fisheries Commissioner's Report for 1884. It embraces the usual variety of matter, from details of the operations of the Commission on sea and land to an account of driven wells for the water supply of the station at Wood's Holl, and an experimental discussion of the comparative digestibility of fish flesh. The third volume in the series called 'Mineral Resources of the United States' has appeared for the year 1885. Natural gas, fertilizers, mineral paints, building stone, besides the precious and base metals, are some of the topics discussed from a practical point of view, with the free use of statistics. More readable than either of the foregoing works, in a literary sense, is Lieut. Schwatka's 'Military Reconnoissance in Alaska,' undertaken in 1883. It is illustrated with tolerable process cuts from photographs, and with numerous charts, and has much to relate of scenery and population from Chilkoot Inlet, Alaska, to Fort Selkirk, B. C. Only the native tribes visited are described, but these fully, according to instructions. The report is not long, the charts exceeding it in bulk. The Bureau of Navigation puts out No. 83, a pamphlet on 'The Use of Oil to Lessen the Dangerous Effect of Heavy Seas.' The evidence already accumulated is so strong that neglect to resort to this use, or to make regular provision for it, must be thought highly culpable.

'The Pilgrimage to Parnassus, with the two parts of the Return from Parnassus: Three Comedies performed in St. John's College, Cambridge, A. D. 1597-1601,' edited from MSS. by the Rev. W. D. Macray, M.A., F.S.A. (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan), is a volume of especial interest to Shaksperian students, as well as to all students of the old drama. The third part has been several times published, but the text of this issue is more authentic, and the two opening parts are altogether fresh. The new passages in reference to Shakspere show once more his popularity, and especially the vogue of 'Venus and Adonis,' though the praise of "sweete Mr. Shakspeare" is put into the mouth of a pretender to knowledge. There is a good deal of interest in the notices of contemporary university life and of the "poor scholars'" condition in the world, as well as in some of the realistic low characters. It is a very noticeable and valuable addition to the illustrative literature of the time, and renews the hope that there are yet new finds to be made even in the well-worked field of Shakspere reference-books.

Though partaking of the nature of an advertisement, Mr. M. N. Forney's 'Locomotives and Locomotive Building' tells not only the history of the Rogers Works at Paterson, N. J., but of the development of the American engine out of and away from English models. It is very fully illustrated, even to "organic" details, and makes an interesting chapter in the annals of American inventiveness, industry, and enterprise.

The 'Public School French Reader,' published by Cassell & Co., is edited by M. Guillaume S. Conrad, French Master at Portsmouth Grammar School. It is quite elementary and well graded, and so abundantly provided with grammatical synopses and tables of all kinds that a pupil might begin the study of French without the use of any other book, especially as it has a complete vocabulary, with full grammatical and etymological notes. Words occurring for the first time are in large type, and all peculiarities of language are in italics. Everything seems done to make the text-book agreeable to the pupil, but instructors might be glad to know where the extracts are taken from; of this there is no indication.

'Le Livre: l'illustration—la reliure' is a short historical account of the development of the printed book. It is published in the "Bibliothèque de l'Enseignement des Beaux-Arts," and is by M. Henri Bouchot (Paris: Quantin; New York: Christern). The author, who is attached to the *département des estampes* of the Bibliothèque Nationale, says modestly that his work has no pretention to enlighten the learned, but addresses itself rather to an audience interested in the artistic aspects of the subject. For this purpose the decoration of books has been specially treated, and more particularly all that relates to the designers and engravers who have adorned them since the invention of printing. The numerous illustrations of the volume are taken from rare works, and generally seem to be those which have not been extensively reproduced. The narrow limits of a single volume, however, prevent any satisfactory presentation of the decorative arts as applied to books, for 'Le Livre' is a sketch of the subject extending over the whole period of more than four and a-half centuries since printed books have existed.

Bernard Quaritch, 15 Piccadilly, London, is extending his unsurpassed series of sale catalogues with 'Monuments of the Early Printers in All Countries.' Part i embraces books from Germany and the Low Countries; Part ii, those from Italy.

The Columbia Library School was opened in this city on January 5, with twenty pupils from without Columbia College, some coming from as remote points as San Francisco and Birmingham, England. New York City and State furnish seven, Massachusetts five, etc. Four-fifths are women. Three hours of direct instruction are given in the old library of Columbia College. The lectures cover a wide range of topics, *e. g.*, "Character and Dialect in Fiction" (W. H. Bishop), "The South in the Past and in the Future" (E. S. Nadal), "Molière" (G. A. Scribner), "Egypt 2,000 Years Ago" (Mytton Maury), "The Poetry of Wordsworth" (T. M. Coan), "The Argument against Classical Study" (H. T. Peck), besides the special discourses on library economy, as, "A Library's Maximum of Usefulness," "As Regards Books," "As Regards Readers" (W. E. Foster).

After twenty years of persistent accumulation, the State Historical Society of Wisconsin has raised a binding fund of $20,000, whose income will now become available for the first time. The thirty-fourth annual report also states that the bound newspaper files in the Society's library number 4,942.

Special stress is laid on the collection of newspapers in the report of the librarian of the American Antiquarian Society at Worcester, Mass., printed in the new volume of Proceedings (vol. iv, Part 3). This society has a number of duplicate files ready for exchange. The *pièce de résistance* of these Proceedings is Dr. Charles Deane's minute inquiry into the history of slavery and the slave-trade in Massachusetts, provoked by the foolish remark of a North Carolina Senator in regard to the responsibility of Massachusetts for the introduction of slavery into this continent, as "the nursing mother of the horrors of the middle passage." In slave-trading it is notorious that Rhode Island easily led all New England.

Vol. 20 of the *American Law Review* (St. Louis: Review Publishing Co.) reaches us in an imperfect form. We trust that other copies of this work may not have a page torn out of them, and be otherwise defective, like the one which lies before us. This volume has various articles on codification, on both sides of the question, readable but not very important, although from eminent persons. The wretched compilations which some are seeking to impose upon the State of New York as codes of law do not get their full deserts of condemnation. Nor is the point sufficiently pressed against the codifiers, that the first thing to do is to understand our existing law far more thoroughly than we do at present. There are several articles of merit in this volume, *e. g.*, on "Special Interrogations to Juries," "Warranties and Conditions in Sales," "Extradition," "The Treaty-making Power," and others; but we have not noticed any that equal several of those in the last volume.

The first numbers reach us of the *Railway and Corporation Law Journal*, published in this city. "The essential features of this journal," we are told, "will be the publication of the English and American corporation and railway cases. It will give either full or abbreviated reports of all railway and corporation decisions handed down after January 1, 1887." No doubt this will be useful, and it may be a successful venture. But we doubt the necessity for adding to the already over-numerous periodicals which clamor for the lawyer's money.

Prof. Shaler broaches, in the *Harvard Monthly* for February, a scheme of scholarships for post-graduate courses, the fund being in the keeping of Harvard, but the filling of the scholarships being left to a certain number of colleges which can be trusted to select worthy beneficiaries. No doubt he is right in speculating that this would tend to the greater frequenting of the colleges in question, and so effect missionary work in the cause of the higher education.

Walford's Antiquarian, published by George Redway, London, is enlarged for the year 1887, and is a handsome, well-printed octavo. The first article in the January number is an account of Domesday Book—historical and descriptive—with a cut representing the book itself and the chest in which it is kept. An article on "Madcap Harry" and Sir John Popham, by Charlotte G. Boger, undertakes to show that Chief-Justice Popham furnished, in his own pranks and escapades, the materials from which Shakspere made out his account of those of Prince Hal. An article entitled "Tom Corygate and his Crudities" contains some entertaining incidents from the European journey of Tom Corygate—a very rare book, published in 1611. In the February number a short article entitled "The Defence of England in the Sixteenth Century" embodies the results of an unprinted report made in the Napoleonic times—that England, against the Armada of 1588 vessels manned by 27,128 men, had a fleet of 195 vessels, with 15,334 men; of course the Spanish ships were much the most powerful. "A Forgotten Crom

wellian Tomb" tells of the tomb of Anna, daughter of Richard Cromwell, and contains considerable interesting matter about her father. The articles in this periodical are mostly short and readable, and there are several good reviews of books and a large number of antiquarian items.

The last number of the St. Petersburg *European Messenger*, the leading Russian magazine, has an article by Gen. Przewalsky summarizing the results of his fourth journey in Central Asia, an account of which is soon to be published. The population, whose numbers he estimates at 9,000,000, inhabiting a tract of 120,000 square miles, four-fifths of which is desert, is divided into two classes, the nomads and the permanent dwellers on the oases at the foot of the mountains. While there are differences in race, religion, and manners, there is much in common with the Tanguts, Turcomans, Dongans, and Khirgiz. They are all characterized by extreme laziness and egoism, and are destitute of all ideas of honor, virtue, or duty. The immorality and the government of the sedentary people are far worse than those of the nomads. A large part of the article is taken up with Central Asian politics, the author asserting that the influence of Russia is greatly on the increase in these regions, except in Thibet. "I was able to convince myself, at every step of my last journey, that in all the cities and oases of Eastern Turkestan the inhabitants dream day and night of the better state of things which Russia will introduce." In closing, he advises a more energetic policy against Chinese intrigues.

Russia, which thus far has been free from the beyond-sea colonizing mania which has seized the other European Powers, seems to have been unable to resist the universal tendency. A Russian colony, numbering 1,800 persons, is ready to settle in New Guinea, provided the sanction of the Government can be obtained.

The London *Graphic* for January 29 has an illustrated article by Dr. Felkin on the Emin Pasha Relief Expedition, with a fine portrait of Emin. The article itself is little more than a reproduction of a portion of his paper in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine*. It is hoped that Stanley will reach Emin by the middle of June. The blockade of the Sudan, which has now lasted for more than three years, is about to be raised, and commercial intercourse between Egypt and the upper Nile region will be renewed. Whether this measure will add to the dangers of Emin's position remains to be seen.

'Franz Lieber, ein Bürger zweier Welten. Von Dr. Hugo Preuss,' is the title of one of the most recent numbers of the "Sammlung gemeinverständlicher wissenschaftlicher Vorträge," edited by Rud. Virchow und Fr. von Holtzendorff (Hamburg: J. F. Richter, 1886). Dr. Preuss is an ardent admirer of Lieber. "The name of Francis Lieber," he says, "is of good repute in the literature of political science. He is esteemed by scholars as a profound and original thinker on this subject. But beyond the circle of workers in his special department he is as yet but little known among us in Germany; and yet his memory deserves to be cherished, not only in the annals of science, but likewise in the minds of his countrymen at large. . . . His mission in America was that of an envoy of German science. The political and social life with which he came in contact, as a citizen of the New World, he grasped and penetrated with the scientific and ethical spirit which, as a citizen of the Old World, he took with him over the ocean. . . . All his writings are illumined and warmed by lofty ideas of perfecting the human race and developing freedom. . . . Such a man belongs not merely to the people among whom he labored during his lifetime, but, above all, to the people who faithfully cherish the memory of his creative conceptions and the bright example of his noble life" (pp. 7–8). Dr. Preuss also quotes the words of Holtzendorff: "For me he (Lieber) marks the culmination of universal political knowledge (*politischer Weltbildung*), in which all the spiritual powers of ancient classical culture, Italian art, German science, English love of freedom, and American independence had coalesced into one harmonious whole" (p. 9). The author then gives a brief account of Lieber's life and works (pp. 9–44). The pamphlet will doubtless contribute very much toward making Lieber as well known and esteemed in the land of his birth as he is in his adopted fatherland.

With parts 4 and 5 is concluded the 'Kulturgeschichte des deutschen Volkes' composed by Dr. Otto Henne am Rhyn, and published by Grote in Berlin (New York: Westermann). When we consider the popular design and character of this work, and compare it with the "subscription books"—we mean the common run—foisted upon our own people, we can but be impressed with the difference in the appeals to literary taste and the love of beauty. Dr. Henne am Rhyn's 'History of German Civilization' is faultlessly printed, and most intelligently and bountifully illustrated, so that it is hardly too much to say that a purchaser ignorant of the language of the text would find entire satisfaction in the woodcuts, photographic facsimiles, and chromo-lithographs, which so vividly portray manners and customs, civic, military, and domestic life, famous cities and famous men. It is an education merely to study these pictorial accompaniments of a narrative penned by a learned scholar and antiquarian.

A parallel enterprise of the same eminent Berlin firm, the 'Allgemeine Weltgeschichte,' reaches the conclusion of its tenth volume in the 65th part, which, like its immediate predecessors, is wholly given up to the Napoleonic era. All our remarks above on the 'Kulturgeschichte' apply to this broader undertaking, the work of many authoritative hands. The illustrations deserve like praise, and are correspondingly plentiful.

'Argot and Slang,' a new French and English dictionary, by Prof. Barrère of the Royal Military Academy, Woolwich, is about to be issued by subscription as an *édition de luxe*. Each English rendering is followed by an English slang equivalent, and the work will possess a certain philological interest, not to say even readability. Its utility in reading modern French fiction is also urged in the prospectus before us.

— The number of books added to the Astor Library last year was 3,689, of which 2,720 were bought. The whole number of books, not including pamphlets, is now 225,179, making the Astor the fourth library in the country in the number of its volumes. In the character of its books it probably ranks well alongside the Harvard and the Boston Public. The Congressional Library, the only other that exceeds it in the number of its volumes, swells its list, as is well known, with a large number of works that increase its size rather than its worth. The number of books added to the Astor was considerably less than the annual increase of the four or five years preceding; but the library received many valuable accessions, and it still maintains its list of current periodicals, especially foreign, which is very large and important, but perhaps hardly as well known as it should be. Another volume of the new Astor Catalogue has been published within a few weeks, and this carries the work along through the letters E–K in 956 pages, and is consequently smaller than vol. i by 152 pages. The work maintains the same high character of the cataloguing, and the same elegant appearance of the page, that we noticed in the preceding volume. It is also executed on the same general principles; but we understand that the limit to the books included has been largely extended, so that, while no date later than 1880 is to appear in the work, it yet will include a large number of accessions received later than 1880. In this volume the entry "Great Britain" covers the greatest number of pages—more than twenty-nine. Next comes "Free Masons," with over seven. A few subject entries are printed under both these heads, and under the first they are mainly anonymous. Biographical works and works on American local history are treated pretty fully under the proper subject headings; but these entries, while a convenience and a foretaste of what a subject-catalogue would yield, serve mainly to emphasize the true nature of the catalogue, as expressed in the title, namely, that it is a catalogue of authors and books.

— It may be well here to correct an error which, in view of Mr. Little's statement in the preface to vol. i, it would hardly be necessary to correct had it proceeded from an inferior source. We refer to Mr. Vinton's essay on the Catalogue, which was read before the American Library Association last year at its Milwaukee meeting, and which was afterwards printed without correction in the *Library Journal*. In it he said that the present work is to include all the books in the Library. He then went on to specify a certain book as strangely wanting. But the preface to vol. i distinctly said that the Catalogue was a continuation of Dr. Cogswell's four-volume catalogue of 1857–61. The title-pages of the new work also bear the word "continuation." A reference to the old and not superseded catalogue would have shown that the Library owns the work said to be wanting. Mr. Vinton also said, in his somewhat curious notice, that the Catalogue "gives every book under the first word of the title." The Catalogue puts anonymous works under the first word of the title, not an article or preposition, but other titles are extremely rarely put under their first words. It will, moreover, be found to be the rarest exception, if such titles are not the titles of collectioas, which are likely to be as well known, or better known, by their first words than by the names of their editors. The present Catalogue is rapidly advancing to completion, and it is thought that the whole work will be in the hands of readers at the Library in considerably less than two years more.

—Mr. Otto Schroeder has some new ideas about language, which he publishes in the January number of the *Preussische Jahrbücher*. His thesis is that, in language, whatever is is right; that inconsistencies, irregularities, varieties, and other obstacles to uniformity are not evils to be deplored or borne with patience, but are intrinsically good. It is to be hoped that Mr. Schroeder will not visit the United States, for, in addition to the dreary uniformity noticed by Europeans in other fields, we might thereafter be held up as an instance of the bad effects of uniformity of language. France, again, has for centuries been pursuing a centralizing policy in this matter, and there are persons who think the French language more convenient, and expressive, and comprehensible than the German. Indeed, there are even Germans who wish to "improve" their language. But these are, for the most part, according to Mr. Schroeder, not real Germans, but merely dwellers in the northeastern provinces—that is, Germanized barbarians. Mr. Schroeder agrees with previous writers that there must be two varieties of language in any country, viz., the *Volkssprache* and the *Schriftsprache;* but he objects to these names, and proposes to substitute for the latter *Litteratursprache*. Long before the songs of Homer were written out, he remarks, their language was

as different from that of the listeners, in different places, as it was afterwards. The same is true to-day of the peasants at the extremes of Germany—Rügen and the Black Forest—whose dialects are as different as possible, but whose songs are in a language they can neither write nor speak.

—Mr. Schroeder, of course, recognizes the fact that language is an organism, and hence constantly in the process of development; but he holds that all changes other than natural ones—that is, all that are not inevitable, unforeseen, and unintended—should be discouraged. The literary language, he thinks, is a very good thing, but the efforts of schoolmasters and others to make it coincident with spoken language are absurd. There is, however, something worse than the pedantry of the schoolmasters, and that is what he calls the "paper" style—*i. e.*, a form of expression other than colloquial about every-day matters. It is a long way, indeed, from the literary to the paper style, but, when the road is well paved, progress is rapid, says the proverb, and the pavement is here the new orthography. Our critic is as kindly disposed towards differences in spelling as he is towards deviations from uniformity in grammatical construction and in phraseology—sees, in fact, no objection to everybody's spelling as he likes, provided it is sanctioned by local or traditional usage. The "paper" enthusiast would prefer phonetic spelling; not, however, for its own sake, but because so soon as he has convinced the world that it must spell phonetically, behold, the world finds itself without any guide except the existing written language, so that, instead of spelling as they pronounce, people will have to pronounce as they spell.

—In 1883 Mr. D. A. Rovinsky brought out what was pronounced to be one of the greatest artistic and scientific publications of Russia, on the subject of old woodcuts, entitled 'Russian Popular Pictures.' This placed in the hands of native and foreign investigators materials in the line of popular art such as had previously been nearly inaccessible. The price was high, but the book sold so fast that it is now almost impossible to obtain a copy. Mr. Rovinsky has followed this up with another work on Russian art, which has been in course of publication since 1882. It consists of three parts, an atlas of drawings, a volume of descriptive text, and one of studies, each of which, by itself, would have constituted a great service to art. It is planned on a very large scale, and contains portraits, views, historical and social plates, plates prepared for the history of Russian engraving, representations of silversmith gravers' work, and prints from other ancient and original plates. A few of the reproductions are in colors, including some in oil of the False Dimitri and Marina Mnishek. This publication is in the line of 'Monuments de la Monarchie Française [1729–1793],' 'Monuments Français Inédits [1806],' and 'Monumentos de la Monarquia Española,' all unfinished. People in Russia and elsewhere are accustomed to think that all ancient representations of the Russians were made by foreigners, but this impression is erroneous. The most ancient of all are fundamentally Russian, and Russian iconography dates from Svyatoslav's Collection, a manuscript of 1103, one of the most important, most artistic, and most original monuments of Russian antiquity. Engraving began in the sixteenth century, but for a hundred years it remained in the hands of foreigners, so far as the presentation of historical and social subjects was concerned. The Russians knew how to engrave, but devoted themselves exclusively to religious subjects, and from the appearance of the first printed book, the Moscow 'Apostles,' in 1564, to the end of the seventeenth century, their engravings showed only holy personages—bishops, apostles, King David, and so on—almost all the books printed being of a religious character. Such an iconographic gallery as Mr. Rovinsky's has never existed anywhere, up to the present time. In it the Russian people are depicted, now by their own countrymen, now by foreigners, in their most intimate aspects, with portraits, costumes, the hearts of cities and the interiors of dwellings; with the emperors and the army, intellectual leaders, friends and enemies, both great and small, and their historical and domestic doings, collected from all over Europe and Russia.

—Under the heading of "A New Departure in Oriental Literature," a brief summary has been given, in No. 1028, of a noteworthy tale translated from the Hindûstânî. We refer to an English version of the 'Taubatu n-nasûh,' executed by Mr. M. Kempson, late Director of Public Instruction in Northern India. The original work, as was observed, is admirably fitted to supersede, for initiation in a knowledge of Hindûstânî or Urdû, the text-books which have long been in ordinary use. Not to speak of their insipidity and impurity, the Hindûstânî has undergone an amazing development since the days in which those text-books were written. In fact, viewed linguistically, they are much as Dryden would be to a foreigner who wished to acquire an acquaintance with English for practical purposes. But the 'Taubatu n-nasûh,' when we designated the end which it might subserve, was available only in slovenly Indian lithography, and unaccompanied by those aids which a commencing student finds indispensable. Mr. Kempson has now brought it out in a handsome volume, and has attached to the text not only a vocabulary, but abundant miscellaneous annotations. He has acquitted himself of his task well, yet not so well as could be desired. One cannot but wish that he had spent more time over his editing, and had been at more pains regarding sundry minutiæ, such as diacritical marks and punctuation. As to terseness and finish of expression in his notes, too, he has hardly given himself sufficient trouble about them. However, be the shortcomings of his work what they may, it will prove eminently serviceable to the learner. That it stands highly recommended is evidenced by the fact that the English Civil-Service Commissioners have prescribed it to be read by selected candidates for the Indian Civil Service. The 'Taubatû-n-nasûh' is published by W. H. Allen & Co., London.

STEPHENS'S FRENCH REVOLUTION.

A History of the French Revolution. By H. Morse Stephens, Balliol College, Oxford. Vol. I. London: Rivingtons; New York: Scribners.

In Dr. Arnold's correspondence may be found a letter to Carlyle on the then newly published 'French Revolution.' Arnold, it is manifest, is carried off his feet by the genius of an author whose powers were for the first time revealed to the public. He dwells on the lifelike sketches with which the book abounds. He insists upon its wisdom, its poetry, and its insight. We have no doubt that Mr. Morse Stephens has received many letters of congratulation on the appearance of his 'History of the French Revolution'; we have no doubt that he has received much praise, and justly earned praise, for the first fruits of his labors. But it would greatly surprise us to find that any competent critic had written of Mr. Stephens's book in anything like the terms used by Dr. Arnold of Carlyle's masterpiece. Of dramatic power, of poetic genius, there is not a trace in Mr. Stephens's volume. His merits are real and noteworthy, but they are not the excellences, nor are his defects the faults, of Carlyle. It is of importance to state this plainly in the very forefront of any account of Mr. Stephens's work. Readers who go to his pages expecting to find a poem in prose, or a sermon for the times, based on the lessons of the French Revolution, will meet with nothing but disappointment. What they will find is a solid—a hostile reviewer might say a heavy—account of the results which may be obtained by careful study of the best and latest authorities on a great and perplexing crisis in the annals of Europe. They will find a work, not of imagination, but of information; a book which, if it does not charm, certainly instructs, and which, to an intelligent reader, will appear a treatise full both of importance and of interest.

The importance of Mr. Morse Stephens's work is twofold. The book is, in the first place, a summary of the immense additions to our knowledge of the French Revolution acquired during the last fifty years. The mere lapse of time has done something to place men and events in their right point of view. When Carlyle wrote, the Revolutionary storm was not over; neither Tories, Whigs, nor Radicals could look calmly at events which were near to the generation who witnessed the carrying of the great Reform Bill, and which, moreover, told in one way or another upon the political contests of the moment. Croker hated reform because he remembered the Revolution, and his detestation of revolutionists was intensified by the feeling that the French Revolution was the beginning of the movement which was, before his eyes, destroying the supremacy of the English Tories. Carlyle himself, when he wrote his 'French Revolution,' was in fact influenced by the enthusiasm of his day. His narrative was written with a purpose, and his real, though unconscious, aim was to prove that the spirit of the Revolution was the denunciation of cant and the destruction of shams. The sentiment of Carlyle is now nearly as dead as the sentiment of Croker. It is neither more nor less easy to tell the facts of the Revolution which sent Louis XVI. to the scaffold than to tell the history of the Great Rebellion which led to the death of Charles I.

Nor is it due only to the advantage of distance that we can see Louis XVI., Lafayette, Mirabeau, the Girondins, or the Jacobins in a light very different from the light in which they were regarded by the last generation. Our actual knowledge is immensely increased. The Revolution has been studied, and is being studied, with the most profound care by inquirers, each of whom investigates a different part of the drama, each of whom looks at it from different sides and with different prepossessions, and each of whom may base his conclusions upon different information. When we add to all this that the publication of memoirs, the revelation of diplomatic documents, the collection of large masses of facts bearing on the local incidents of the Revolutionary struggle, have given to modern writers on the Revolution materials for understanding its course which were inaccessible to Alison, Carlyle, Thiers, or Lamartine, it is hardly too much to say that the man who tells the tale of the fall of the French monarchy, and of the foundation and overthrow of the French Republic, has something like a new narrative to tell—or, if the story be not changed, he must rest it on new evidence. It is as placing before English readers this mass of new facts that Mr. Stephens's book deserves to be called important; but the work has, in the second place, a negative importance from its promising to give the deathblow to a whole mass of errors which have nearly transformed history into legend.

The source of these delusions, whatever be the form they take, is one and the same. It is the notion that the so-called French Revolution,

which ought in reality to be considered a mere portion of the European Revolution, was an event quite unlike anything else to be found in the records of mankind; that the motives which governed leaders and people were not the motives which affect the course of ordinary life; and that the actors in the sanguinary drama of which the main scenes were exhibited in Paris, might be heroes or monsters, but were in any case giants of more than human mould. This radically false idea has begot a host of opposed, but in character similar, misconceptions. Hence has arisen the astounding Revolutionary legend. Jacobins whose policy was, in its stupidity no less than in its cruelty, the policy of savages, have been credited with high statesmanship. The rhetoric and the pedantry of the Girondins have passed for the highest form of political virtue. The victories of the republican armies have been painted, even by Carlyle, as miracles. Nor have the assailants of the Revolution escaped the disturbing effects of the Revolutionary atmosphere. Marie Antoinette has been credited with wisdom and insight; the nobility have been portrayed as men only too much influenced by sentiments of humanity; the *ancien régime*, which was hated by every one who knew it from experience, has been defended or extolled by writers who enjoy the benefits derived from the Revolution, and who fancy that evils of which we have now forgotten the existence, could not have been intolerable when they existed. If the delusions of revolutionists and of anti-revolutionists are ever to be dispelled, the work must be done by a writer such as Mr. Morse Stephens. His very defects are for this purpose an advantage. He is not carried away by the dramatic aspects of his subject; he feels as much interest in details as to the state of the French navy or the singular constitution of the French army, as in the taking of the Bastille or the flight to Varennes. Hence he constantly recalls to his readers that even a revolutionary struggle has, like everything else in the world, its prosaic side, and that the tumults at Paris constitute nothing like the whole of the great movement of which they were in reality little more than the outward sign.

Readers who acknowledge the importance of such a contribution to historical knowledge as Mr. Stephens's work, may perhaps be inclined to think that a book which destroys the legendary romance of the Revolution must be devoid of interest. But this notion is grounded on the mistaken fancy that history cannot be interesting unless it has the charm of a novel. To intelligent inquirers the interest of inquiries into the past consists in the addition which such inquiries make to knowledge of mankind. A reader must be either singularly stupid or singularly well informed who does not admit that his knowledge is increased by a perusal of Mr. Stephens's 'French Revolution,' and with regard to personages whose names we all mention glibly enough, but who to most of us are, after all, little better than names. How many persons, for instance, could really give anything like a definite account of Mounier, of Rabaut-Saint-Étienne, of Grégoire, or even, to speak plainly, of Lafayette? Yet each one of the celebrated men whom we have named, and a score more, were personages who in their time played (or seemed destined to play) no small part during the earlier stages of the Revolution, and about every one of them facts can be learned from Mr. Morse Stephens which are worth knowing. Nor in our judgment is it a small gain that our author fixes a student's attention upon the character and career of men who, like Mounier, did not ultimately exert a permanent influence on the course of French history. The heroes of the drama, Mirabeau, Danton, Robespierre, Napoleon, and a few more, are sure to engross enough attention. Their figures become so prominent that one is apt to think that their character, their virtues or faults, determine the fate of the French nation. A little reflection on the careers of men who, though they started well, did not attain anything like lasting fame, is a salutary corrective to the overestimate of the weight exerted by the genius of individuals.

Mounier is a typical example of our meaning. For a short time he was one of the most conspicuous among Frenchmen. He played a leading part in the affairs of Dauphiné, which formed a curious but now forgotten prelude to the great Revolutionary tragedy. He was, as it happened, acquainted with England, where he had learned to study and admire English institutions:

"He had carefully studied Blackstone and De Lolme, and looked upon the English Constitution as a whole without understanding that it had been the growth of centuries of compromise, and that it was in many points both more practical and less logical than his authorities stated. Confiding in his knowledge of political theories, Mounier had boldly taken the lead both at Vizille and at Romans, and had won the greatest political reputation in France; but the vanity of the man, and the incurable narrowness which always distinguishes a theoretical politician, prevented him from becoming a leader at Versailles."

This very commonplace statement of commonplace facts recalls what is in constant danger of being forgotten. At the commencement of the Revolution the men of weight were moderate constitutionalists; the nation aspired to the blessings of constitutional government. Could France have been polled, there almost certainly would have been a majority in favor of establishing a constitution like that of England. Nothing like the English Constitution was established, and mainly for two reasons. Frenchmen like Mounier saw English institutions through the utterly misleading light of theories propounded by Blackstone and De Lolme. The English polity was, further, in fact an aristocratic constitution masked under the forms of a monarchy. No scheme of government was more radically unsuitable for a people like the French, who did not in reality dislike monarchical authority, and who thoroughly detested aristocratic privilege. But the failures of French statesmanship will never be understood unless we bear in mind the very fact of which Mounier's career is a memorial, that the moderate reformers of France were as much misled by false views of the English Constitution as were Republicans by utterly ill-founded admiration for the institutions of Rome or of Sparta. It is difficult to say whether Blackstone or Plutarch were the worst guide to a Frenchman in search of the best of constitutions.

Mr. Stephens, again, throws fully as much light upon institutions as he does upon individuals. Nothing in his book is better than the account of the elections to the States-General. We all know in a vague manner that the convocation of the old French Assembly was a revival of an utterly forgotten institution; but we must study the matter in some detail before we can see how completely the existence and the nature of the States-General had passed out of human memory when, in an ill-fated moment, Louis XVI. attempted to revive an old institution in order that it might perform the new task of remodelling everything in France. If any man were to propose the restoration in England of the unreformed Parliament as it existed in 1800, or that the United States should resume the position of the American colonies before the War of Independence, he would be pronounced fit for Bedlam. Yet the proposal would be in one sense less wild than the scheme actually adopted by Necker. The nature of the unreformed Parliament can be ascertained (there are men still living who remember its existence), and that Parliament actually did govern Great Britain and Ireland. Any one who pleases can make out the relation which existed between England and her colonies till the American colonies revolted against the assertion of Parliamentary supremacy. But in 1788 no one in France really knew what had been the constitution of the States-General, and the States-General had never in reality been the permanent government of France. As you read Mr. Morse Stephens's first chapter, you see that it was the King and his Ministers who, in reality, set the example of substituting Utopias for really attainable political aims. The convocation of the States-General was, as it was conducted, the maddest of mad experiments, and, as one reads the details of the elections, any one can perceive that the first and fatal error of the King and his advisers was to let loose every element of discord and confusion while refusing to guide the Revolution at a time when the nation asked for nothing so much as for guidance. At the very moment when the necessities of the times demanded a strong government, and while the Crown was still popular, the army and the navy, the forces on which the Executive had to rely, were allowed to fall, in consequence partly of old abuses, and partly of rash reforms, into utter disorder. No single chapter of our author's work is better worth reading than the essay (for it is nothing less) on the French Army and Navy. It explains two or three things which must have often puzzled thoughtful students. It shows, for example, how it happened that the old army, while it did not save the Crown of the Bourbons, was nevertheless the body which supplied the great generals and conspicuous officers of the Republic and the Empire. It also brings to light a matter naturally overlooked by Englishmen, that the triumphs of Nelson and his companions were due, in part at least, to the mismanagement which had disintegrated the old navy of France.

One problem which, so to speak, sums up most of the speculative questions raised by the earlier stages of the Revolution, receives careful consideration from Mr. Morse Stephens. Had Mirabeau planned out a policy which, but for his death, might have saved the monarchy, or (what is, oddly enough, really the same thing) which might have saved the Revolution, from failure? Our author gives as near an answer to this inquiry as is possible. Mirabeau, it is certain, entered into definite relations with the Court. It is also certain that he received pecuniary payment for his services. We may further add to this that there is little reason for supposing that he sold his principles. He was bought, but he was not corrupted. He joined the Court, it would appear, with a view of carrying out what he held to be sound policy. He wished, as our author puts it, to restore order, but not to restore the old order of things. He had, moreover, a distinct policy, and a policy which, if it varied in form, preserved throughout the same essential characteristic. The King was to become the guide of the Revolution; he was, surrounded with force and dignity, to retreat openly from Paris. "Why should we fear civil war?" said Mirabeau. "Civil war—it will be the means of saving the King, who will be lost without hope if he continues to stop in Paris." His primary idea was an open appeal from Paris to the country. When he found that the Court had not the boldness to adopt his great scheme, he proposed a less daring but more subtle plan for discrediting the Assembly, and, by force of provincial opinion, compelling its dissolution. The King the leader of the country, and the country the supporter of the King against Paris—this, under different shapes, was Mirabeau's policy. Could it have succeeded?

When we ask this question we must, if we keep the facts brought out by Mr. Morse Stephens in view, keep distinct two different inquiries which are liable to be blended together. Could the

Crown have been saved if the King would have been guided by Mirabeau as Victor Emanuel was guided by Cavour, or even to the extent in which, in 1783, George III. was guided by Pitt? As far as any matter which cannot be tested by experience admits of an answer, we believe it to be all but certain that our reply should be in the affirmative. The King was popular; monarchy was not hated by the French nation; the reforms for which the people really cared were exactly that class of reforms which might have increased rather than diminished the influence of the Crown. Louis XVI. might well, under the guidance of a statesman, have anticipated all that was permanent in Napoleonic institutions. Was Mirabeau's policy, as things stood—including under the term "things" the character of the King and of the Queen—a policy which had a fair chance of success? We hold, and we take it that Mr. Morse Stephens holds with us, that this inquiry must be met with an unhesitating negative. Neither King nor Queen would trust the one man capable of aiding them. The childish romance that Mirabeau was captivated by Marie Antoinette rests on no basis. The idea that a singularly unwise woman, who never, throughout her career, recognized greatness of any sort, perceived the genius of Mirabeau and was willing to give him her confidence, is, it would seem, demonstrably untrue. His specific plans, moreover, assumed that the provinces could be played off against Paris. The assumption was not unnatural, and the later history of France since 1848 certainly shows that when once the country, as represented by the Government, can be rallied against the capital, the capital may be forced to give way. But it is in the highest degree doubtful whether, even under the leadership of Mirabeau, the provinces would have resisted the supremacy of Paris. No party throughout the great Revolution which relied on provincial support escaped ruin. The Girondins were the country party, and the Girondins were destroyed by the Mountain. The Jacobins fell, not because the provinces rose against their tyranny, but because the Terrorists were divided, and Paris at last supported the Convention against Robespierre. The later annals of the Revolution, the much neglected history of the Directorate, lead, unless we are mistaken, to the same conclusion—that, towards the end of the last century, the party or man who was victorious in Paris became of necessity the ruler of France.

The examination into the later phases of the Revolutionary struggle will, we venture to predict, exhibit in a specially favorable light Mr. Morse Stephens's historical powers. Meanwhile we are glad to express our high appreciation of a work which will, when completed, form such a manual of the history of the Revolution as does not at present exist in the English language. Mignet has supplied something like it for Frenchmen, but Mignet's work was written many years ago, and was therefore not based upon our present large store of information about the Revolution.

THE GREVILLE MEMOIRS.

A Journal of the Reign of Queen Victoria. From 1852 to 1860. By the late Charles C. F. Greville, Esq., Clerk of the Council. 2 vols. London: Longmans, Green & Co.; New York: Worthington Co. 1887. Also, in one volume. D. Appleton & Co.

It is impossible to resist a feeling of melancholy as one lays down these volumes. Never was the author of a journal more unobtrusive of his own personality, or more successful in winning the regard of his readers. As we draw toward its close we are oppressed with foreboding; we note with pain the signs of increasing age and depression, the longer and more frequent breaks in the narrative, the gradual withdrawal of the author from the world in which he had so long played a considerable though silent part. When he finally takes leave of us, his parting words are full of gloom: he declares that he closes his record "with a full consciousness of the smallness of its value or interest, and with great regret that I did not make better use of the opportunities I have had of recording something more worth reading."

This third part of the Memoirs adds little to our knowledge of history. It covers a period in which great events occurred—the war of the Crimea, the Indian Mutiny, and the Italian war—but it does not tell us much that is new. As history it even fails to be interesting. We have an accurate reflection of diplomatic life—the listening to contradictory reports derived from equally trustworthy or untrustworthy sources, the bickering, the indecision, the vacillation and the deceit of ministers, and the possible and probable views of sovereigns. All this is very agreeably told, and many side-lights are thrown upon the details of the political history of Europe during the era of Napoleon III.; but these details are, for the most part, unimportant. In spite of the opportunities for obtaining information possessed by Greville, he seems to have known little more than the newspapers. He is constantly changing his opinion about the possibilities of peace or war and the disposition of this potentate and that ambassador, and he is repeatedly obliged to abandon his most carefully formed judgments. To listen to him is like watching the shadow and sunshine of an April day. We may form an infinity of speculations as to what the weather will be, but they will most of them be wrong, and it will not be of much consequence if they are.

So far as English political history is concerned, or rather the secret history of the cabinets of the day, their making and unmaking, Greville is at least upon his own ground. But his view is a narrow one. He apparently has no clearly defined political principles, and his judgments are based almost entirely upon personal considerations. From his revelations we are led to think better than before of Aberdeen and worse of John Russell. He did not like Palmerston, and often speaks of him with great severity; but he shows and admits that a man of inferior character may have the great political merit of availability. Further than this we do not observe that he furnishes us much information that cannot be obtained from other sources, nor does he contribute much in the way of anecdote for our entertainment. We may therefore concur with the author in his estimate of the value of his work considered as a chronicle, and even join in his condemnation of his own negligence in the use of his rare opportunities. But these are matters of less consequence than he supposed; for while he is trying to tell us about the men and events of his day, we are thinking of him—watching his manner, learning his principles of judgment, and analyzing his mental and moral constitution. Had he anticipated this he would not have written, or, if he had, what he wrote would have lost its value. Modesty would have restrained him or self-consciousness would have ruined his work. But he had no such anticipation; we learn incidentally that he had the gout and went to all the horse races, but the details of his personal life he never dwells upon.

In illustration of his aristocratic temperament we may quote his remarks upon the death of Lord Beauvale; and we may observe, by the way, that these obituary notices of those whom he had known are of a very high order. There is nothing labored about them—the thoughts seem to have been written down as they came into the mind of the author; yet their literary form is elegant, and they remind us of those characterizations with which the great historians of classic times were pleased to adorn their pages. They constitute, in fact, the most meritorious portion of the book. Of Lord Beauvale (Frederick Lamb) he says:

"He was not so remarkable a man in character as his brother William, less peculiar and eccentric, more like other people, with much less of literary acquirement, less caustic humor and pungent wit; but he had a vigorous understanding, great quickness, a good deal of general information; he was likewise well versed in business and public affairs, and a very sensible and intelligent converser and correspondent. He took a deep and lively interest in politics to the last moment of his life, was insatiably curious about all that was going on, and was much confided in and consulted by many people of very different parties and opinions. He never was in Parliament, but engaged all his life in a diplomatic career, for which he was very well fitted, having been extremely handsome in his youth, and always very clever, agreeable, and adroit. He consequently ran it with great success, and was in high estimation at Vienna, where his brother-in-law, Palmerston, sent him as Ambassador. He was always much addicted to gallantry, and had endless liaisons with women, most of whom continued to be his friends long after they had ceased to be his mistresses, much to the credit of all parties. After having led a very free and dissolute life, he had the good fortune at sixty years of age, and with a broken and enfeebled constitution, to settle (as it is called) by marrying a charming girl of twenty, the daughter of the Prussian Minister at Vienna, Count Maltzahn. This Adine, who was content to unite her May to his December, was to him a perfect angel, devoting her youthful energies to sustain and cheer his valetudinarian existence with a cheerful unselfishness, which he repaid by a grateful and tender affection, having an air at once marital and paternal. . . .

"He nominally belonged to the Liberal party, but in reality he was strongly Conservative, and he always dreaded the progress of democracy, though less disturbed than he would otherwise have been by reflecting that no material alteration could possibly overtake him. His most intimate friends abroad were the Metternichs and Madame de Lieven, and his notions of foreign policy were extremely congenial to theirs. Here, his connections all lying with people of the Liberal side, he had nothing to do with the Tories, for most of whom he entertained great contempt. Brougham, Ellice, and myself were the men he was most intimate with. . . .

"He was largely endowed with social merits and virtues, without having or affecting any claim to those of a higher or moral character. I have no doubt he was much more amiable as an old man than he had ever been when he was a young one; and though the death of one so retired from the world can make little or no sensation in it, except as being the last of a remarkable family, he will be sincerely regretted, and his loss will be sensibly felt by the few who enjoyed the intimacy of his declining years."

It is hard to say which is the more striking—the intimacy between the Liberal ambassador and Metternich, the Conservative feeling and contempt for the Tories, the friendships so "much to the credit of all parties," the absence of all virtues of a "moral character," the sincere regret of Greville, or the passionate grief of the young wife, who, after devoting ten years of her life to nursing an old roué deprived of the use of his limbs by his own excesses, hopes to be relieved of the remainder of it "that she may (as she believes and expects) be enabled to join him in some other world." We cannot imagine any other world than this in which Lord Beauvale would be happy; but there is obviously nothing incongruous to Greville in the picture that he has drawn. It was taken from life—from the life that he was accustomed to and saw nothing strange in; and in his description of his friend he has revealed himself.

We would by no means give the impression that Greville was incapable of appreciating "merits and virtues of a moral character." His beautiful tribute to Lord Ellesmere would not have been out of place in a funeral sermon, and

much of his comment upon men and measures shows that he admired high aims and principles. But he was unable to look beyond the boundaries of his aristocratical world. He would have been well enough pleased, apparently, had the political arrangements of the Congress of Vienna remained unchanged. As he grew old, his dread of "progress," by which he understood the advance of democracy, increased, and he was annoyed that the oppressions of the Neapolitan despot should have received the official notice of other governments. So little sympathy had he with the longings of the Italian patriots for unity and freedom, that he regarded the establishment of the kingdom of Italy as a positive scandal. Yet in his day he had seen the necessity of reform in England.

We should be glad to quote his account of the life of Mme. de Lieven, but we can here only refer to it. Very pleasant in tone is what he has to say of Macaulay, and upon some points we should follow his judgment implicitly. He was above all a well-bred man, as well as a man of culture, and when he tells us that Macaulay was a thoroughly delightful and agreeable talker, we feel sure that those who have described him as an offensive and selfish monopolist have not been free from envy. What Greville says elsewhere of Rogers bears us out in this; but for our own part we are content to accept the opinion of a man whose discrimination in such matters was so highly cultivated as to have become instinctive. We quote a portion of his remarks upon this point:

"Nothing was more remarkable in Macaulay than the natural way in which he talked, never for the sake of display or to manifest his superior powers and knowledge. On the contrary, he was free from any assumption of superiority over others, and seemed to be impressed with the notion that those he conversed with knew as much as himself, and he was always quite as ready to listen as to talk. 'Don't you remember?' he was in the habit of saying when he quoted some book or alluded to some fact, to listeners who could not remember, because, in nineteen cases out of twenty, they had never known or heard of whatever it was he alluded to. I do not believe anybody ever left his society with any feeling of mortification, except that which an involuntary comparison between his knowledge and their own ignorance could not fail to engender."

We should be glad to quote further from this comment upon Macaulay—the estimate of his merits as an historian seems to us especially just—but our space does not permit. There is no end to the quotable passages in a book like this, and if the reader does not at once come upon what he wants, he has only to refer to the copious index at the end. It is easy to see where Greville's sympathies must have lain during our civil war, and we are undoubtedly spared some disagreeable reading by his discontinuing his journal in 1860. Nevertheless, we heartily regret that he stopped where he did. He could have shown us a side of things that we are not likely now to see, nor, at this interval of time, would his sentiments have been able to wound us.

RECENT LAW BOOKS.

An important and very valuable recent publication of the United States Government is the three volumes, entitled 'A Digest of the International Law of the United States, taken from Documents issued by Presidents and Secretaries of State and from Decisions of Federal Courts and Opinions of Attorneys-General.' It is printed in accordance with a resolution of Congress of July 24 last, "under the editorial supervision of Francis Wharton." This digest had been already prepared by Dr. Wharton when this resolution was passed; and it is now published with his name on the back and on the title-page. Dr. Wharton is well known as a legal author, and his former books have been marked by a peculiar neatness of appearance. But these volumes, from the Government press, look like a set of their poor relations. The editor must be a little chagrined, one would think, to come out in the squalid, inferior, *job-lot* dress (if one may so express it) that stamps what comes from the "Government Printing-Office." Dr. Wharton, however, is an official in the State Department, and it is in this character that he is now appearing. In substance these books are most useful; they must have cost the editor much labor. Dr. Wharton's industry and tact, and quick eye for what is interesting as well as serviceable, have stood him here in good stead. The volumes are mainly taken up with quotations from our state papers. Passages from other works are given, and many references to judicial decisions, with occasional extracts from them:

"In seeking for material I have turned every page of the volumes of records in the Department to which I have referred; and I have consulted in connection with them the various publications to be found in the annexed table. From these standards I have copied whatever in the way of principle bears on international law; and the extracts I have thus made I have arranged in the form of a digest, placing them chronologically under their respective heads. Of the materials that apply, in the way of principle, to the task before me, I believe I have omitted no passages giving the deliberate opinions of Secretaries from the beginning of the Government to the present day."

It would, of course, be idle to call the claims, speculations, and declarations, more or less conflicting, more or less judicious, of our high political officials, by the name of "law," even as that term is understood when "we speak of international law," and, therefore, the title of this compilation is in a degree misleading. The position of our Government, for example, as regards the Cutting case, is fairly open to question. The book, then, is in the main a digest of the *interpretations* of international law found in our archives. It is divided into twenty-three chapters, and deals with such topics as "Intervention with Foreign Sovereignties," "Citizenship, Naturalization, and Alienage," "Extradition," "War," "Piracy and Privateering," and many more. Statesmen, students, and lawyers will find the book an invaluable aid.

Dr. Wharton in various places expresses a doubt whether the children of Chinese born in this country are citizens under the Fourteenth Amendment; and controverts the statement of Calvo that they are. But he gives scant reasons in support of his view, and appears to have overlooked the case of Look Tin Sing, 10 Sawyer, 353 (1884), in which it was held in the Circuit Court of the United States (Mr. Justice Field of the Supreme Court giving the opinion) that such Chinese are citizens. To say, as Dr. Wharton does (§ 197), that "Chinese . . . are not capable of naturalization under our system," is inaccurate, or, at least, very misleading. Does anybody suppose that if Congress were to repeal to-morrow that part of its present law which excludes the Chinese from naturalization, there is anything in "our system" to prevent it? And as to the children of Chinese, born here, why are they not as much "within our jurisdiction" as an Englishman's children born here? Certainly no statute of Congress, in excluding their parents from naturalization, can cut down the operation of the Constitution upon the children. It would be an interesting question whether the children of tribal Indians, born off a reservation and within one of our States, are not citizens of the United States. The editor has not cited the important Indian case of United States v. Kagama, decided by the Supreme Court of the United States in May last (118 U. S., 375). The value of his useful volumes is seriously lessened by the want of an index of cases.

Mr. J. K. Kinney's 'Digest of the Decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States from the Organization of the Court to the Close of the October Term, 1884,' in two volumes (Little, Brown & Co.), is an excellent performance. The notes are carefully prepared and are unusually exact and accurate. An examination of several of them and of the author's method of subdividing the titles and of his cross references leads to the opinion that we have here the work of a good and accurate lawyer, and that his preface is true in saying that "no labor has been spared where it has seemed that labor would add materially to the value of the work, in either matter or arrangement."

'A Treatise on the Limitations of the Police Power in the United States, considered both from a Civil and Criminal Standpoint'—such is the title of a portly octavo (St. Louis: The F. H. Thomas Law Book Co.) by Prof. C. G. Tiedman of the University of Missouri at Columbia. It relates to an interesting, but vaguely defined, topic in constitutional law—the limits upon the legislatures as regards the police power which are fixed, in terms or by just implications, in our written constitutions. The author, like the good judge in the proverb, amplifies his jurisdiction, and takes occasion to discuss at large such topics as the right of eminent domain and the legal-tender laws. He dissents from the decision in the case of Juilliard v. Greenman, but not, as it seems to us, with any marked strength of argument or in a manner to indicate any minuteness of research. The doctrine of Munn v. Illinois, the elevator case, is condemned; and, indeed, the author writes with a certain missionary purpose to discourage that sort of decision and encourage the contrary:

"The principal object of the present work is to demonstrate . . . that, under the written constitutions, Federal and State, democratic absolutism is impossible in this country, as long as the popular reverence for the constitutions, in their restrictions upon governmental activity, is nourished and sustained by a prompt avoidance by the courts of any violations of their provisions in word or spirit. . . . If the author succeeds in any measure in his attempt to awaken the public mind to a full appreciation of the power of constitutional limitations to protect private rights against the radical experimentations of social reformers, he will feel that he has been amply requited for his labors in the causes of social order and personal liberty."

Mr. Tiedman's book is a useful one for the practising lawyer. He has stated the law and collected the authorities on a large variety of topics. But he has omitted to consider duly one matter of fundamental importance, as regards the purpose that he has stated in the passages above quoted; and that is, the grounds, nature, and just scope of the judicial power to declare a legislative act void. There is much reason to think that missionary work is more needed in the direction of toning up our people and their legislative representatives to a recognition of the merely *moral* restraints which the constitutions impose upon them, than in spurring on the judges to a sterner exercise of their power of annulling legislative acts. At any rate, in undertaking the last office, it is highly important to analyze carefully the nature of this important function and to point out its just limits. We commend this matter to Prof. Tiedman's attention against the appearance of a second edition of his book.

A new edition of Pomeroy's 'Introduction to the Constitutional Law of the United States, especially designed for Students, General and Professional' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), is now published—revised and enlarged by Edmund H. Bennett. The editor seems to have added something like a hundred pages to the text

of the book as left by the lamented author in his last edition of it; and he has given in an appendix of about eighteen pages abstracts of the latest cases in the national courts. The work of the editor consists mainly in a modest statement of the results of the later decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States, and in the incorporation into the body of the work of some matter placed by Pomeroy in an appendix. This has been done in a judicious way. We welcome a new edition of one of the most valuable, intelligent, and original treatises on the Constitutional Law of the general Government which we have.

In Prof. Hare's 'Law of Contracts' (Little, Brown & Co.) we have an important contribution to a subject which has already received in recent years the attention of the keenest and most accomplished legal scholars. It illustrates the very great benefit which trained and learned legal students have it in their power to confer upon their profession. An eminent English lawyer said recently: "One of the many difficulties which stand in the way of improving the law of England—perhaps I might say the great difficulty—may be thus expressed: Those who have acquainted themselves with its provisions have generally neither the time nor the inclination to undertake any other task than that of administering it as an existing system. . . . On the other hand, those who have not a professional acquaintance with law are almost certain to be baffled in any attempt which they may make to improve it, by their ignorance of the subject." Prof. Hare belongs to a class of persons who are "learned in the law" in something more than that cheap and merely complimentary sense with which we are so familiar, and whose time and strength are not mainly absorbed in the work of practice and administration. Such men owe their profession a debt which nobody else can discharge.

The present work is worthy of Prof. Hare's reputation and of the high office which he, and men like him, hold in the field of legal authorship. About a hundred pages at the beginning of the book are given to a lucid statement of the development and peculiarities of the Roman procedure and the Roman law of contract. Then follow a statement of the development of the early English law, and a comparison of the two systems, which are of very great interest and value. Chapters are added on "Consideration," "Unilateral and Bilateral Contracts," "Performance," "Dependent and Independent Promises," and other subjects. The last half of the book is, in great part, a treatise on the law of sales of personal property, "being a practical and important application," says the author, "of the principles of both [the Roman and English] systems." Students of the law of contract, and practitioners who would fix in their minds clear and solid conceptions, will find this excellent volume no less interesting than it is instructive. At p. 178 the opinion in McCulloch v. The Eagle Ins. Co. is attributed to Chief-Justice Shaw—an inadvertence; Judge Shaw was not yet on the bench. At p. 414 and elsewhere the author falls into a very common error in stating the doctrine of Crofoot v. Bennett. It is none the less clearly an error because eminent persons have made it before.

A second edition has appeared of Mr. George H. Smith's 'Elements of Right and of the Law' (Chicago: Callaghan & Co.). It is but a few months since we noticed the first edition of this interesting book. The rapid disappearance of that edition is accounted for in a brief note of the editor, who remarks that "nearly the whole" of it was destroyed by the burning of the premises of his former publishers. He has taken the opportunity "to thoroughly revise the work, and to add some authorities to those originally cited." And we are glad to observe that he has also now given an index of cases, although in a somewhat eccentric form, viz., as a part of the general index under the letter A—"Authors and Cases Cited."

In the fourth edition of Mr. Melville M. Bigelow's well-known treatise on the 'Law of Estoppel' (Little, Brown & Co.) there are several important additions. "The chief features," he says, ". . . consist (1) in a more clear and exact marking of the limits of the subject in various places, and (2) a filling out to the limits wherever there was found vacant territory. . . . A particular example of the latter work may be seen in the new section 7 (on Waiver) of the chapter on Estoppel by Conduct (pp. 633–641); one of the former, in the consideration of judgments in rem, in chapters ii, iv, and v." As regards the subject last named, the author makes a careful analysis of judgments in rem, and incorporates the sensible limitations to the doctrine of the conclusive effect of such judgments, as it is ordinarily stated, that are pointed out in one or two recent cases, especially the case of De Mora v. Concha, 29 Ch. D. 268, in 1885, and that of Brigham v. Fayerweather, 140 Mass. 411. The chapter on Waiver is instructive, and should be read in connection with two valuable new pages (446-448), discriminating this and other matters, often called estoppel, from that which is strictly so called. It is to be hoped that Mr. Bigelow will work out these closely connected but in strictness, perhaps, outlying parts of the subject still more carefully. There is no part of the law which is more interesting to-day than this cloudy country of estoppel. This and parts of the law of evidence have long been the favorite hunting-grounds of judicial legislation. Estoppel is a very difficult topic to handle, because of the ambiguity of the phrase, and because the law in all departments is so largely developing under cover of this word. The profession owes a debt of gratitude to Mr. Bigelow for his useful labors upon this very important subject. But much still remains to be done.

In Mr. F. F. Heard's 'Precedents of Pleadings in Personal Actions in the Superior Courts of Common Law' (Little, Brown & Co.), we have a work which might at first sight seem to be of only local use. The changes in the rules of pleading have been great in recent years, and different rules exist in different States; but, as the author remarks, "the effect . . . has not been to destroy the system or to change its essential principles." The forms appear to be brief and good. An introduction and notes, with extensive citations, add to the value of the book. Mr. Heard is a veteran at this sort of work.

The fifth edition of Washburn on 'Real Property,' edited by Joseph Willard and Simon Greenleaf Croswell (Little, Brown & Co.), is the first one that has lacked the benefit of its author's laborious and conscientious care in the preparation of it. It appears, however, under names which give assurance that competent learning, as well as acute and careful study, have been applied to the work of editing. This is as it should be in the case of a book so valuable and so widely used. We are told by the editors that much work has been done in condensing as well as in adding, and that they have mainly confined their additions to the notes. In number of pages the body of this edition has about a hundred and fifty pages more than the last one published in 1876. The table of cases has twenty-four pages more, in double columns, indicating an addition of, say, twenty-eight hundred cases.

'Ohio Corporations' (Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.) is the second edition of a book very useful, one would think, to lawyers of that State, prepared—with notes of decisions and forms for organizing and managing corporations—by Messrs. A. T. Brewer and G. A. Laubscher of the Cleveland bar. The extent to which corporations are resorted to in our days, and the importance of the law relating to them, are very strikingly illustrated by what is said in the introduction to the first edition of this book, published in 1884:

"Under Ohio statutes corporations may now be formed for any purpose for which individuals may lawfully associate themselves, except for dealing in real estate or carrying on professional business. The extent to which Ohio people avail themselves of corporate rights may be judged by the fact that in the year 1883 alone 1,334 companies were formed, with authorized capital of $209,000,000. . . . Corporations of various kinds are now (1884) being formed at the rate of at least *four* for every working day in the year."

'The Road and the Roadside' (Little, Brown & Co.), by Burton Willis Potter, is a small book of a little more than a hundred pages. About half the book is taken up with an attempt to state in a familiar way the Massachusetts law relating to the principal topics connected with roads. The other parts of this little treatise are of the nature of essays on "location," "repairs," etc., of no striking value. Of the law chapters the writer says that they "were written and read as a lecture at the County Meeting of the Massachusetts Board of Agriculture in December, 1885, . . . and have since been published in the Report on the Agriculture of Massachusetts for the Year 1885." The author was hardly well advised in reprinting them in a separate book.

'Railway Accident Law: The Liability of Railways for Injuries to the Person,' by Christopher Stuart Patterson of the Philadelphia bar (Philadelphia: T. & J. W. Johnson & Co.), is a good, useful, and, in the main, a carefully prepared book. A lawyer, a judge, or a corporation who has a case of the sort to which the book relates, will find here the result of an intelligent examination of many cases, by a writer of discrimination and independent judgment. The chapters, however, which relate to evidence and presumptions are thin and poor.

Mr. W. P. Preble, jr.'s 'Collisions in United States Waters' (Little, Brown & Co.) is a small book in two parts, containing, first, "a list of the cases decided by the Supreme Court of the United States involving maritime collisions"; and, second, "an alphabetical synopsis of the points of law and of fact decided, referring to the cases in the first list." It is arranged upon a somewhat novel plan. In the list of cases there is a compact statement of the facts of each case. In the other table the author endeavors, with almost superfluous pains, to guide the reader to whatever he may be searching for. Under the head of "Locality," *e. g.*, the place of each collision is given; and so under those of "Time" and "Nature of Collision" the cases are again tabulated. It seems to be a carefully prepared and useful book.

We can heartily praise the 'Historical Introduction to the Private Law of Rome,' by Dr. Muirhead, Professor of Roman Law in the University of Edinburgh (Edinburgh: Adam & Charles Black). It is a handsome octavo of something under four hundred and fifty pages, of which the writer says that "the following pages were written originally for the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' but had to be very much abridged in order to bring them within the limits of space the editor could afford to devote to their subject. He did me the honor to express the opinion that their publication *in extenso* would prove of service to various classes of readers. . . . This book is the result." It has every mark of embodying the results of the latest learning upon the subject. In point of interest and of a clear presentation of the topic, such as to meet the

wants of the general student and, in particular, of careful students of our own law, we have met no book in our language so satisfactory as this. It is divided into five parts, dealing with the Regal Period; the Jus Civile, from the establishment of the Republic till the subjugation of central and southern Italy; the Jus Gentium and Jus Honorarium—in the latter half of the Republic; the Jus Naturale and Maturity of Roman Jurisprudence—under the Empire, until the time of Diocletian; and the Period of Codification—from Diocletian to Justinian.

In regard to the famous passage in the Twelve Tables which appears to purport a right on the part of creditors to cut up the body of a debtor, Dr. Muirhead has an interesting discussion. He thinks, as others have thought, the notion of a literal division of the body among the creditors to be wholly inadmissible, notwithstanding the consent of antiquity in that interpretation. The word *secare* may well enough mean *distribute*, as in the phrases *bonorum sector* and *sectio personæ*, meaning the distribution of an estate.

"On consideration of the whole matter," says the author, "the explanation that most commends itself to me is this—that where there was but one creditor concerned, and the two months of provisional detention expired without payment, intervention of a *vindex*, or compromise of some sort, the debtor definitively became his creditor's free bondman in virtue of the magisterial *addictio;* but that where co-heirs were concerned, as bondage and service to all of them would have been inconvenient, if not impossible, when they were not to continue to possess the inheritance in common, the debtor was sent over Tiber and sold as a slave, and the price got for him divided amongst them. If one or other got more than his fair share, no harm was done; for the disproportion would eventually be redressed in an action of partition."

To bring about this reading, some heroic treatment of the text is necessary, which we will not stop to explain.

Retrospections of America. 1797–1811. By John Bernard. Edited from the Manuscript by Mrs. Bayle Bernard, with an Introduction, Notes, and Index by Laurence Hutton and Brander Matthews. Illustrated. Harper & Bros. 1887.

JOHN BERNARD'S earlier recollections, which included only his experience in his own land, were edited from his papers many years ago, by his son, and this volume of his American life is made up mainly of extracts from the same originals, also prepared by his son, and now edited by the latter's widow. It covers only a portion of Bernard's career in this country, where he met with much popularity and success; but, owing to the long and frequent migrations of the theatrical profession in those days, the narrative for these few years includes life along our whole seaboard and in Canada. Mr. Bernard not only made his autobiography a record of his own doings and observations, but he used it apparently as a receptacle to empty his memory into, without much regard to whether his facts and stories were first or second-hand. Consequently one meets with a number of venerable jokes and well-worn anecdotes of the Revolutionary and Constitutional period, and some of an older date. He mingled in good society, and therefore had opportunity to learn something of our distinguished men and of the tone of the wealthier class, while he had a quick and humorous eye for the life of the country people. He is apt to leave narrative for dialogue, and he heightens and colors his "characters" in a theatrical manner; but the description he gives of the people and their ways is lively and realistic, and the satire is of the sort to be readily excused. The planters of the South owe him no thanks for the account he gives of them, but the Yankee peddler and the New York merchant are equally luckless; he discriminates well enough between the native bent of the various parts of the country, and is able to give their due to the Virginian and South Carolinian and the New Englander, while his general temper towards all the Americans is open and one of hearty good-liking. He spent a considerable part of the time covered by this volume in Boston, in the management of the Federal Street Theatre, but unfortunately in the years of the Embargo, and consequently of no profits, though elsewhere in the country, he says, the theatres made money. His sketches of the players and their peculiarities are very telling, and give us a good deal of information. Of manners he offers, indeed, a few illustrations, but not much that is of great novelty; his forte as a humorist interferes with his exactness as an observer, and he is perpetually on the edge of caricature and often transgresses. This makes his book more readable, and he has spiced it well with adventure and anecdote.

He had one notable encounter with Washington near Mt. Vernon. The two assisted in righting a vehicle that had met with an accident, and, after some little time of such fellowship in action, Washington recognized the actor, introduced himself, and invited Bernard to his house to rest a while. The account of the interview of an hour and a half is very interesting, both for the closeness and exactness of Bernard's observation, and for the "feeling of awe and veneration" which, he says, irresistibly stole over him. Two remarks of Washington are noticeable. "When I mentioned to him," says Bernard, "the difference I perceived between the inhabitants of New England and of the Southern States, he remarked, 'I esteem those people greatly; they are the stamina of the Union, and its greatest benefactors. They are continually spreading themselves, too, to settle and enlighten less favored quarters. Dr. Franklin is a New Englander.'" The second relates to the abolition of slavery—"'an event, sir, which, you may believe me, no man desires more heartily than I do. Not only do I pray for it on the score of human dignity, but I can clearly foresee that nothing but the rooting out of slavery can perpetuate the existence of our Union, by consolidating it in a common bond of principle.'"

The notes by Messrs. Hutton and Matthews are very slight, and the introduction is merely a brief, business-like preface, containing the dates of Bernard's life (he returned to England in 1819 and died in 1828), and the facts with regard to the manuscript and the previous publication of parts of this volume in periodicals some years ago. The work is really a valuable illustration of our early theatre, as well as thoroughly entertaining.

Talks with Socrates about Life. Translations from the 'Gorgias' and the 'Republic' of Plato. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1886.

BEING asked his opinion about the institution of a thorough course of English studies in the universities of England, Mr. Bright, whose own English notoriously owes nothing directly, though it owes very much indirectly, to the study of the ancient classics, is bold enough to say, in a recent number of the *Pall Mall Gazette*, that when reading Plato in Dr. Jowett's translation he was stirred to greater admiration of Dr. Jowett than of Plato. "I have been more astonished," he says, "at the wonderful capacity and industry of the Master of Balliol than at the wisdom of the great philosopher of Greece." Those who know Greek are not all of the same opinion with Mr. Bright, and, in spite of its manifold excellences, Dr. Jowett's translation does not satisfy every mind, assuredly not the mind of the author of the volume entitled 'Talks with Socrates about Life,' which is really a new rendering of a large part of the 'Gorgias' and the opening of the seventh Book of the 'Republic,' and proceeds from the same hand to which we owe the companion volumes, 'Socrates' and 'A Day in Athens with Socrates.' The plan is the same, the execution the same. The translator is evidently under the stress of a mission, and honestly believes with many of us that Plato has yet some work to do for them that are without.

About a third of the 'Gorgias,' if we may trust a rough count, is given in abstract, the rest in an easy, graceful rendering, which shows close study and refined instinct. Dr. Jowett's way of making short cuts is not followed, but, to relieve what many moderns consider the tiresome prolixity of Plato's dialectic, the reasoning is summarized from time to time. Perhaps this may be well enough for the larger public for which the work is meant, but the breaks give an uncomfortable feeling of uncertainty, of incompleteness, that is not compensated by the small economy of space; and the better plan would have been to give the argument in the margin—an indispensable thing for Plato—and to let the reader do his own skipping. To be sure, the bulk of the 'Gorgias,' which is the longest of the Platonic dialogues, always excepting, of course, the 'Republic' and the 'Laws,' may be pleaded in justification of the abridgment; but for our part we do not like to see any support given to the notion that Plato's leisurely unfolding of his thought is due to the rawness of his dialectic method. This is of a piece with the other favorite theory, that the peculiar style of Thucydides is due to the unformed condition of Attic prose; and in popularizing Plato the translator does injustice to an unusually good rendering by giving it the amateurish form of a selection.

Of course it would be easy to find fault with this and that translation. We might say that the translator feels the Greek too much, that too much meaning is put into common words, which is the besetting sin of Conington and other "vivid" and "picturesque" interpreters. "Fingerhut" and "Handschuh" amuse the novice in German. After a while, if they do not become mere counters for "thimble" and "glove," they fall into the German sphere of vision, and lose their oddity for ever. And so to press the etymology of words in any language beyond the national consciousness is a decided mistake. For instance, "Looking forward to the Truth," the sub-title of the book, is far more to us than τὴν ἀλήθειαν σκοπῶν was to Plato. Whether it would have been possible to bring out the dramatic peculiarities more fully—to give one style to Polus and another to Callicles—is a matter that cannot be discussed without illustrations, and certainly cannot be discussed here. Nor can we show where a firmer grasp of syntax would have given a sharper edge to translation. The Platonic variety of vocabulary is well preserved, but this is not so noteworthy, as it might be proved that the eager quest of variety, so characteristic of English style, comes into it by lineal succession from Plato himself.

The introduction and notes will be found helpful by those for whom they are intended, and it is pleasant to see that the sympathy with Plato goes so far as to make the translator withstand the redoubtable Grote, whose defence of the sophists through thick and thin has really done harm to the views which he advocated, unless one is philosophical enough to be amused at the Jack-in-a-box fashion in which the sophist question pops up in the most out-of-the-way places. It were hardly to be expected that the translator should appreciate the importance of Thrasymachus, who was something more than "the pretentious bully whose only weapon is invective," for the real importance of Thrasymachus is to be sought elsewhere, and to acknowledge that Plato

is a sad caricaturist would not harmonize with the cult vowed to Plato's memory. Perhaps, also, a demurrer might be entered against the preference given to Gorgias before Protagoras as a gentleman. Surely nothing could be more gentlemanly than the way in which Protagoras closes the discussion, and the effect of the dialogue that bears the name of the Abderite is, on the whole, more pleasing. The 'Gorgias' is doubtless the more important work philosophically, and the meaning is not so concealed in the form as is the case with the 'Protagoras'; but to the lover of the artist Plato there is something too suggestive of the big drum in the 'Gorgias.' But the impression which a given dialogue of Plato produces, like the impression of a landscape, is very much an affair of mood and of light, and cannot communicate itself through translation.

American Literature, 1607-1885. Vol. I. The Development of American Thought. By Charles F. Richardson. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1887.

THE reason why Mr. Richardson has put the least attractive portion of his work foremost was, presumably, because it is a law of historical narrative to begin with the beginning. It is apparently a history that he means to write, although this volume exhibits also the characteristics of a critical survey, an enlarged manual of facts, and an encyclopædia with authors' biographies and illustrative extracts. It is not a straightforward consecutive narrative, and yet it is more a history than anything else namable. The author excludes from treatment all fiction and poetry, which he reserves for subsequent examination. There remains to be considered the literature of thought as distinguished from that of imagination, and no one needs to be told that American thought was at first theological, then political, and passed slowly into its present literary and scientific stage. Mr. Richardson, who desires to treat literature in a large way, has analyzed the race inheritance of the colonists and the influencing environment of soil, institutions, and religious faith, and has traced the development, by expansion and assimilation, of the original English stock into the American nation. Consequently, as was natural, he adopts in his narrative the order of history: first, the records and diaries of the colonists; secondly, the works of the theologians; thirdly, the writings of the statesmen and orators; and then, in somewhat mingled array, Irving, Emerson, the critics, historians, humorists, ending inevitably in the "miscellaneous."

The plan is too large for the materials. The nation has not expressed its life in literature so fully that its organization and growth can be summed up in a history of its literature. In the colonial period, where the facts are few and simple, the author sets them forth excellently, with theology as the thought-product of the age; but no one knows better than he that these sermons and treatises are no part of literature. On the other hand, when the times of Webster and Lincoln, of Irving and Emerson, are reached, where the facts are many and complex, the author's grasp of them relaxes, his reference to them is meagre, and he silently drops history for criticism. In proportion as he ceases to be a sociologist, he becomes a reviewer. His work, after he gets into it, is truly no more than an account of the principal books written on this side in all departments, with some details of the lives of their makers and some excerpts by way of sample. It is a valuable work; and in being less comprehensive than an avowed encyclopædia, and less exclusive than a history of pure literature, it fills its place as a useful larger manual.

One thing, however, is very noticeable in its pages, and confers distinction upon it. In his introduction the author discusses what he calls the perspective of American literature. He deprecates the illiberal patriotism which exalts our books because they are ours, and he repeats the obvious truth that our authors must at last measure with those of other lands and of past times, no less now, when it is the English fashion to praise us, than in the early days, when it was so much in vogue to blackguard us; and he sets out to pass judgment in this catholic way on the dead and the living. What he says is admirable in truth and in temper; it is a sign of enfranchisement from colonialism, of a genuine culture spreading in the community, when conviction and purpose of this sort are found in a work of the secondary class; and the author keeps his word, but not quite heroically. He frequently remarks that the books with which he is dealing are not literature, but he includes them; and though he reprehends Mr. Stedman's good nature in allowing the names of the lower ten thousand to constitute literary annals, he is not wholly blameless in this same matter. In particular he has a weakness for burdening his pages with a theological weight, until one fancies that the fossil age in our literature never came to a happy end.

After making all allowance for one who is attempting to write five hundred octavo pages on American literature, and yet exclude all works of imagination from view, one cannot but think that, to reverse the poet's line, Mr. Richardson knew better than he builded. He, too, has exhibited the genial temperament, the large toleration, the easy-mindedness which he deplores in others; but rather, be it said, in admitting the candidates than in allowing their claims. The discriminative spirit, the sense of what the English and other nations have accomplished in letters, the honesty to admit that dead and dying names are in fact perishable, always enter into his criticism. Our literature began with Irving, and the debt due to him is justly felt to be large; but it is a new thing to find a writer compressing his voluminous works into the narrow compass of the 'Sketch-Book,' and deciding that this small and early book is what survives. And if Irving is thus looked on, what becomes of the Knickerbocker School? It is not, however, so hard to tell the truth about the wholly dead, as about those who, though buried, still live in the memory of friends. It takes more courage, humorous as it seems, to doubt that Ripley was a fine critic than to deny that Irving was a great historian; and he must be brave indeed who would pluck a Pleiad from the starry crown of Margaret Fuller. But as to Dr. Ripley, Mr. Richardson modestly suggests that "one can hardly assign to this veteran American critic a high or permanent place in our literary history," and, growing bolder, ventures to speak of "the essential hollowness of one who for so long a time seemed 'the Nestor of American criticism.'" With Margaret Fuller the writer's caution is almost comical: "Of the influence exerted by Dr. Ripley, who did not write a single book of high rank, I have just spoken. *Equally notable* . . . was that exerted by Margaret Fuller." Mr. Richardson is anxious to do justice to individuals, and at the same time not to discredit the Muses; and between the two he has as hard a task as any critic need wish to be delivered from. It is not often that he has the pleasure of pointing out some service to our literature which has been forgotten or underestimated; but once he does so, and very justly, in calling attention to Longfellow's early influence as an expository critic in making foreign literatures known here and arousing an interest in them.

This temper, this trial at writing a history of American literature which shall be truthful and set forth our achievement in just comparison with that of other countries, this willingness to submit to a universal standard of criticism, are invaluable traits; and for their sake we would gladly have said nothing but good of a book which seemed to us so defective and unfortunate in its plan. The useful results which may follow when this method is applied frankly to our works of imagination, as it will be in the second volume, one need not forecast. In this volume the greatest reputations are not dealt with, except Irving's and Emerson's, and the latter is not shorn of its halo, though the direction of future criticism is to be discerned in the remark upon the essential narrowness of view involved in his religious revolt. The historians are admirably treated, with fulness, distinctness, and vigor; the critics, except for Lowell, would make a poor showing; and the humorists are dismissed with scant grace. It is upon the sentences, not too softly turned, which remind Frank Stockton and Mark Twain of their mortality, that attack might easiest be directed; yet the utmost of the author's contention seems to be that humor cannot dispense with literary art if it would be lasting. For the faithful investigation which is everywhere patent, and for the sound judgment and excellent proportion of the work, one must make due acknowledgment; but much more for the spirit of its criticism. What the writer has to say of our poets and novelists will be awaited with interest; but without that supplement, the present volume offers a broad, sensible, and scholarly view of American books which have won distinction in any field, and will be very helpful to the study of our literary past.

The Synthetic Philosophy of Expression, as Applied to the Arts of Reading, Oratory, and Personation. By Moses True Brown. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

THIS eccentric work is another illustration of the fact that every science has to pass through a stage of vague mysticism corresponding to alchemy and astrology. For although Mr. Brown prints the names of Darwin and Mantegazza on his cover as a sort of motto, he adds—evil omen—the name of Delsarte; and his book does not remove the peculiar impression made on the mind by this ill-assorted triad of names. The author has carefully read a number of modern scientific works, and often quotes from them so felicitously that one cannot but wonder that a mind which evidently appreciates the import of facts, should constantly indulge in wild flights of rhetorical nothingness, and weave a network of artificial and complicated distinctions and classifications that almost out-Hegel Hegel. After noting the assertion of the author's belief that the pendulum of evolution will ultimately swing back from Darwin to Swedenborg (!), the reader is quite prepared to find his physiognomic theories about on a level with the discredited bump-phrenology and the vagaries of Carus and Lavater. The author's hobby is a certain trinitarian formula, which is made to do service everywhere in defiance of common sense, psychology, and physiology. He tells us that man "manifests three natures," the vital, the *mental*, and the emotive—notwithstanding the fact that modern psychologists agree in using the word mental as comprehending all phenomena of the mind. Then he goes to work and divides every part of the body into "zones," one of which has a "vital," another a "mental," and the third an "emotive" significance. To take a few illustrations: "The natural language of the head is Mental, of the torso Emotive (!), of the limbs Vital." Then the torso is again divided into three zones, with corresponding differences of expression. Concerning the arm we read that "the Vital moves all parts of the arm from the centre at the shoul-

der," "the Emotive from the centre at the elbow," "the Mental from the centre at the wrist." This sort of thing is continued with amusing naïveté on every part of the body. But there is a point at which even Mr. Brown feels tempted to "draw the line." After noting that some of Delsarte's pupils represented the master as teaching that "in expression, the eyebrow is Mental, the upper lid is 'Moral,' the lower lid is Vital," he, though with awe and trepidation, ventures to suggest that this may *possibly* be a case of blind adherence to "the universal formula." These are specimens of the quasi-scientific puerilities that make up the greater part of a book which, if condensed to a twenty-page essay and freed from all metaphysical jargon and efforts at cosmic generalization, would have been readable and suggestive.

The Functions of the Brain. By David Ferrier, M.D., LL.D., F.R.S. Second edition, rewritten and enlarged. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1886.

THE first edition of Dr. Ferrier's work, noticed in the *Nation* of June 14, 1877, page 355, contained references to eighty-eight writers. That the second refers to two hundred and thirty-eight is evidence of the intense cerebral activity which has characterized the last decade. It may seem that this is sufficient reason for the increased bulk of the present volume; yet, while the additional illustrations are mostly welcome, and more space was undoubtedly needed for the presentation of the results of the author's own later experiments and reflections and for the discussion of controverted points—as, for example, "the visual area" and the question of "functional substitution"—much might have been compressed or even altogether omitted so as to keep the book at a convenient size. For neurophysiologists and most members of the medical profession, much of the anatomy is needless, particularly the elementary and practically repeated accounts of the fissures and gyres of monkeys and man on pages 235-240, 470-480; on the other hand, the details are inadequate to the needs of the laity, especially with the omission of the "Diagrammatic Summary" on page 290 of the first edition, which might have been easily made acceptable. It is equally difficult to account for the omission of the unique and instructive "Crowbar case," since it would seem to accord with the author's views respecting the inhibitory function of the prefrontal lobe. An even less commendable reduction is in the index, which was admirable in the first edition, but, excepting the names of writers, extremely defective in this. A well-known American clinician is not cited at all; another's careful contribution is hastily and unfairly said (page 293) to be "characterized by numerous gross inaccuracies;" and the volume is literally disfigured by contemptuous allusions to the opinions of a German neurologist whose works are commonly held in respect. There are, indeed, too many passages which might well convince the disinterested reader that the pursuit of experimental physiology does not insure appropriate methods, careful manipulation, accurate observation, logical deduction, scrupulous recognition of adverse results, or even courteous treatment of antagonists.

Mathematical Teaching, and its Modern Methods. By Truman Henry Safford. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 1887.

THIS little brochure, one of the earliest of a series of monographs on education, prepared, or to be prepared, by distinguished instructors for the use of the teaching profession, should be read and pondered by every professor and teacher of mathematics in the land. The author has two qualifications for writing on the subject which are not often combined in one person: he is a skilled applier of mathematics in that branch of science where most extensively used, and he is a practical teacher of the subject. We might add a third qualification, that of a philosophic observer, able to analyze the current defects of teaching as shown in the work of his pupils, and to see how they should be cured.

What he tells us is already well known to all who have had to train graduates of our schools and colleges in the practical use of any branch of mathematics, whether arithmetic or the calculus. All our teaching of the subject is too abstract and unpractical. The very bias toward instructing the common boy in nothing but the useful, which we see so strongly developed in school boards, defeats its own object by leading to a system that cramps more than it enlarges the mental powers. The wearisome passage through a graded series of arithmetics in which the subject is taught over and over on the same plane, changed only by the introduction of more perplexing problems as the pupil advances, is not so conducive to an understanding of numbers as half the quantity of teaching might be when combined with elementary algebra and graphical representations of the principles involved.

The only fault we find with Prof. Safford's discussion is one which it is difficult to avoid in such a work—a lack of explicitness and point in showing how mathematics should be taught. The teacher who goes through the book will see well enough what is wrong in our present system, but we fear he will be perplexed in deciding how he is to correct the wrong. He will find many good words about Grube and his method, but how is he to find out who Grube is and what his method is? Some of our teachers think that a student of solid geometry ought not to use a material figure to represent the lines and planes he is reasoning about, because he ought to have all the necessary conceptions ready-made in his own mind. These teachers will find very wholesome instruction in the importance of "objectivity" in teaching, and the necessity of object lessons; but it hardly suffices to have the author suggest the use of the stereoscope, the walls of the class-room, the magic lantern, etc. We question whether Prof. Safford does not lay too much stress on teaching the facts of geometry, as though mere facts were any more fruitful here than in any other branch of knowledge. The greatest defect in all our mathematical teaching, so far as immediate results are concerned, is that it does not give the student a clear and ready conception of the numbers and magnitudes he is working with and talking about. Such expressions as "seven per cent.," "three-thirteenths," and "two right angles," are to him little more than meaningless phrases, which he knows how to use, but which do not represent any accurate quantitative conceptions in his own mind. What we want is a system of quickening such conceptions; and we cannot but wish our author had shown more explicitly how this is to be done.

A Tramp Trip. How to See Europe on Fifty Cents a Day. By Lee Meriwether. Harper & Bros. 1887.

THE author of this very interesting and instructive volume visited Europe apparently for the purpose of investigating at first hand the condition of the laboring people of the Continent, and has made a formal report to the United States Labor Bureau. In order to mingle with the people more directly and intimately, he made a large part of the journey on foot, or by water in the steerage, and lived as inexpensively as possible. In this narrative, which is always sprightly and alive, he tells the incidents of his tour from New York to Naples, thence north through Switzerland to South Germany, down the Danube to Constantinople, and north again through Russia to St. Petersburg, and by the Berlin and Amsterdam route to England. The bulk of the book is made up of his experiences in Italy, the Danubian provinces, and Russia; and, seeing these countries in so unusual a way, he naturally has a large number of adventures and strange incidents to relate. The object he had in view, however—the condition of the poor, the rate of wages and scale of daily subsistence—is always before his eyes; and he seems to have done his work very well. The chapters, consequently, afford an admirable illustration of Mr. Edward Atkinson's recent statistical articles, and are profitable reading in connection with them. What the state of the peasantry of Europe is, one knows well enough in general terms, but it is always a surprise to find the special features of it; and when they are set forth with such directness and plainness as they are here, it is an invigorating surprise. One could quote hundreds of facts, were it useful, from these pages; and could select particular characterizations—the Roman shepherd, the Bulgarian peasant, the Neapolitan foreman—admirably drawn without any literary art or philanthropic feeling to color the simple facts seen by a young American observer. The bearing of the tariff and of military expenses is constantly borne in mind also, so that the work is unfairly represented by its title, which does not give the right idea of the nature of the contents. As a book of mere travel it is very practical and readable. When the writer ventures on the ordinary tourist topics of museums and antiquities he is less successful, but such passages are few, and there is comparatively little of journalistic sensationalism. The actual life of the country and its prominent phases, seized in a rapid journey (for though on foot the writer made brief stops), are the substance. The description of the steerage passage down the Danube and the chapters on Constantinople are particularly vivid.

The book is, altogether, quite out of the range of and above ordinary volumes of travel, and will give a fair, comprehensive idea of the hard labor and miserable poverty of the European masses. To do this was worth all the trials and hardships of the plucky explorer, who seems to have enjoyed his uncomfortable days with a light heart. A comparative tariff table is affixed in an appendix, and, from the frequency with which the author ridicules the idea that a tariff makes high wages, it would appear that he hopes his observations will enforce the gospel of free trade. Certainly, protectionists will get no comfort from him or his facts.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, A. W. Grant as a Soldier. St. Louis: The Author.
Channing, Ellery Grace. Dr. Channing's Note-Book. Passages from the Unpublished Manuscripts of William Ellery Channing. Selected by his Granddaughter. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Clark, Rev. F. E. Young People's Prayer-Meetings in Theory and Practice. Funk & Wagnalls.
Creighton, Prof. M. A History of the Papacy during the Period of the Reformation. Vols. iii. and iv. The Italian Princes. 1464-1518. London: Longmans, Green & Co. $4.
Dawson, E. C. James Hannington, First Bishop of Eastern Equatorial Africa. A History of his Life and Work. Author's Edition. A. D. F. Randolph. $2.
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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 175

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS 178

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:
The Money Power in Politics 180
The Love of Taxation 180
The Normirofka 181
The German Opera Season 182

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:
Five Years of the Land Law 183
The Princess de Ligne 183

CORRESPONDENCE:
Bishop Coxe's English Philology 185
The Derivation of "Saunter" 185
Old Clothes for the Free List 186
A Mutual Explanation 186

NOTES 186

REVIEWS:
Adams's Emancipation of Massachusetts 189
Oliver's Madagascar 190
A Modern Italian Sculptor 191
Recent French Books 192
Seventeen Lectures on the Study of Medieval and Modern History and Kindred Subjects 193
The Venerable Bede 194
The Republic of New Haven 194
A Half-Century in Salem 194
Legends and Popular Tales of the Basque People 195
A Practical Rhetoric for Instruction in English Composition and Revision 195
Nordafrika im Lichte der Kulturgeschichte 195

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 195

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Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1886.....		1,426,049 46
Total Marine Premiums.....		$5,235,299 99
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1886, to 31st December, 1886.....		$3,817,699 86
Losses paid during the same period.....	$2,206,588 68	
Returns of Premiums and Expenses.....	$841,378 15	
The Company has the following Assets, viz.:		
United States and State of New York Stock, City, Bank, and other Stocks.....		$9,382,375 00
Loans, secured by Stocks and otherwise...		707,100 00
Real Estate and Claims due the Company, estimated at.....		501,647 81
Premium Notes and Bills Receivable.....		1,568,134 20
Cash in Bank.....		285,254 68
Amount.....		$12,444,511 69

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 3, 1887.

The Week.

A GREAT many strange things have happened to the Democratic party during the past thirty years, besides the nomination of Horace Greeley for the Presidency, but probably nothing stranger than the suppression, at a Democratic dinner, of a letter from a Democratic statesman recommending the party to take up the cause of individual freedom against the tyranny of secret societies, composed of "irresponsible men unknown to the people, who are not officers chosen by the people, and who are not creatures of law responsible to free public opinion and to the constituted authorities for their action," and who make a practice of coercing citizens into joining their society by trying to prevent their earning a living, "by calling them opprobrious names, hunting them from shop to shop, and denying them employment on the fearful penalty of stopping all work, however pressing and important." This is the description given by Mayor Hewitt of the condition of a large body of American citizens known in the slang of the day as "Scabs." Their lives are literally lives of slavery. Every injury that can be done to them short of murder is openly justified by their tyrants. Moreover, they constitute the great majority of the class of manual laborers, and their oppressors are enabled to hold them in subjection owing to the fact that they are not organized, and rely solely on the law of the land and on public opinion for liberty and security.

The most careless reader of the history of the Democratic party would suppose that, in the prevailing scarcity of issues, it would eagerly take up the cause of this oppressed and outraged portion of the community, and smash the secret organizations which are seeking, before the Constitution is one hundred years old, to supplant or override the Government, and inflict the most fearful penalties without judge or jury. The party took its rise, almost as soon as the Government was founded, as the champion and defender of the rights of the individual against thrones, principalities, and powers of every description. "A man's a man for a' that" was its motto from the very beginning, especially if he was a white man. It has been preaching, in season and out of season, for eighty years, through all its sages and prophets, the doctrine that the larger the liberty of the individual man, and the less he was interfered with by government of any kind, the better for the community at large. Nevertheless, in our time, we are actually witnessing the strange spectacle, to which Mr. Hewitt has called attention, of "Democrats, holding very high positions, coquetting with this new and dangerous element in politics, and even attaining office by submitting to the humiliation of an apparent endorsement of the false and dangerous doctrines which have been put in practice at such fearful cost in our own midst within the present month."

There is no limit to the inebrieties of the official mind when once the habit is formed of indulging in Labor as a beverage. The saddest example is that of Gov. Hill, but he has many imitators in the Legislature, some of whom have been overcome to the extent of introducing a bill (Senate bill No. 65) making every Saturday in the year a legal holiday. Others, not quite so far advanced, have stopped at the point of making every Saturday a half-holiday, their views being embodied in Senate bill No. 70. There is no requirement in either of these bills that anybody shall stop working on Saturday, or desist from doing anything that he would do if Saturday were not a holiday. The banks, and the Stock Exchange, and the Clearing-house, and every business place may go on the same as before, and will go on unless a streak of idleness comes over the American people, which is now quite unexpected. The only thing either of these bills can do is to put obstacles and confusion of a legal sort into the pathway of business men, by making them pay their notes, and draw money out of the banks, and fulfil their contracts, twenty-four or forty-eight hours before the time agreed on. This is the only thing really compulsory in the bill. There are now six legal holidays in each year. It is proposed to add fifty-two more, not to relieve anybody from work, but merely to serve as fifty-two tubs to the whale, constructed and launched at the expense and loss of the business community. How great this loss must be, we can infer from the fact that the payments effected at the Clearing-house in this city amount to more than one hundred million dollars per day, and that it is proposed to require them to be made a day earlier than the contract of payment requires on fifty-two days in the year: *i. e.*, one day's interest on $5,200,000,000 is to be juggled with at the behest of Labor and without doing Labor any good. As New York is the general clearing-house for the whole country, the inconvenience and loss resulting from such a local measure would be spread abroad everywhere, and must result in diverting trade more or less from a place where such needless and wanton impediments are put in the way of commerce.

The question of passing the Pauper Pension Bill over the veto came up for decision in the House on Thursday afternoon, and the President was sustained by twenty-five more than the requisite number of Representatives. The total vote was 300, and 200 yeas would have been required to pass the bill, "the President's objections to the contrary notwithstanding," whereas only 175 were recorded in the affirmative, against 125 in the negative. Upon the original passage of the bill the vote stood 180 yeas to 76 nays, or considerably more than two-thirds in the affirmative. The final defeat of the measure is thus due to the changes produced by the President's attitude, no less than twenty-eight members who had hastily voted for the bill on its first passage having the manliness to confess their blunder and vote against it on Thursday. The significant feature of the division is the fact that the Republican vote in the House was cast solidly for the bill. It was so cast deliberately. When the bill first came up its vicious character was not generally understood, and it was supposed that public sentiment would sustain it. There was thus some excuse for the unanimous Republican vote in its favor originally; but, during the four weeks which have since passed, that excuse has been removed. The demoralizing nature of the measure has been exposed, and the leading Republican newspapers of the country, almost without exception, have condemned it in the most severe terms. With like approach to unanimity, the Republican press has endorsed the veto, and warned Republican Congressmen that the public sentiment of the country would sustain the President. The pretence that self-respecting soldiers—and the opinion of others is worthless—desired such a bill, has been swept away by the vigorous protests against the measure of such eminent Republican generals as Chamberlain of Maine and Cox of Ohio.

The President continues to veto private pension bills in unworthy cases. His latest message returns without his approval the bill granting a pension to Mrs. Sarah Hamilton, on the ground that her deceased husband died in 1883 of disability incurred in the army twenty years before. The widow's application was originally rejected upon the ground, which appears to be clearly established, that Hamilton's death was not the result of his military service; but Congress nevertheless passed an act granting her request. It appears from the army records that Hamilton enlisted September 2, 1862, deserted May 27, 1863, and his name was dropped from the subsequent rolls until February 29, 1864, when he was reported as a deserter in arrest. He was not borne upon the rolls for March and April, 1864; for May and June, 1864, he was reported absent in arrest; for July and August, present under arrest; and for September and October, present for duty. He was mustered out with his company May 24, 1865. Hamilton appears to be a good sample of "the rubbish of the army," as Gen. Bragg calls such men, and that there was a larger proportion of such rubbish than one likes to think, is clear enough from the number of such cases which Mr. Cleveland has blocked.

Mr. Cleveland never omits an opportunity to enforce the doctrine that the Government should not support the people. In vetoing the bill for a public building at Portsmouth, Ohio, he cites the claim of the promoter of the measure that there is not a Federal public building in the State of Ohio east of a line drawn on the map from Cleveland through Columbus to Cincinnati, and that, "when wealth and population and the needs of the public service are considered, the distribution of public buildings in the State is an unfair one." The President condemns this theory of expenditure for public buildings as unten-

able, pointing out that if an application for the erection of such a building is to be determined by the distance between its proposed location and another public building, or upon the allegation that a certain division of a State is without a Government building, or that the distribution of these buildings in a particular State is unfair, we shall rapidly be led to an entire disregard of the considerations of necessity and public need, which it seems to him should alone justify the expenditure of public funds for such a purpose. "The care and protection which the Government owes to the people," he adds, "do not embrace the grant of public buildings to decorate thriving and prosperous cities and villages, nor should such buildings be erected upon any principle of fair distribution among localities. *The Government is not an almoner of gifts among the people, but an instrumentality by which the people's affairs should be conducted upon business principles, regulated by the public needs.*"

The condition of the proposed constitutional amendment for a change of the date of inauguration from early in March to the end of April is this: The Senate has passed the resolution for such an amendment. In the House a resolution was introduced providing that an additional clause shall be incorporated, by which the term of a new Congress shall begin on the second Tuesday in the January succeeding its election, beginning with the year 1889, the terms of members of the Fiftieth Congress expiring on December 31, 1888, without any decrease of their salary. One effect of this change would be that the short session would be a month longer than now—from the beginning of January till the end of April, instead of from the beginning of December to the beginning of March, while the long term would not be impaired, as under the present system nothing is ever done until after the Christmas holidays.

Another effect would be, that the theory of members of the House "coming fresh from the people" would be put in practice by their taking their seats in two months after their election, to legislate upon the live issues upon which they were presumably elected, instead of waiting, as they do now, until December of the year following their election—thirteen months afterwards. Another advantage would be, that there would be no election between the sessions, but the record of members for both sessions would be fully made up, and the work of the Congress to which they were elected completed, before they were called upon to render an account of their stewardship. Under the present system a defeated Congressman generally feels at the short session, after his successor's election, as though he were no longer the representative of his people, and such members are notoriously more open to corrupt and demagogical motives during this session than they would be if they were making a record for their constituents to challenge. Moreover, the proposed change would remove a most anomalous feature of our present system—that which devolves the choice of a President, in case there is no popular election, not upon the House of Representatives just chosen, but upon one elected two years before, and often in the meantime repudiated by the people. These advantages are plain and great, and we perceive no counterbalancing defects. We are glad, therefore, to hear that there is a good prospect of an agreement between the Judiciary Committees of the Senate and House upon an amendment embodying both the change in the date of inauguration and that in the meeting of Congress, and we trust that the two branches will sustain this action of the committees.

An arbitration bill for the settlement of differences between railroad corporations and their employees has passed both houses of Congress. It provides that when both parties agree to arbitrate, the railroad company "is hereby authorized" to select one person, and the employee or employees another, and these two persons a third, who are to constitute a board of arbitration. They are to have the power to subpoena witnesses, and compel them to testify about everything but the "secrets" or "records" or "proceedings" of labor organizations. The arbitrators are to get $10 a day, and the witnesses the ordinary fees paid in United States courts. The power of the arbitrators is, however, confined to the announcement of their award. No penalty is provided for disobeying it, nor is any machinery provided for enforcing it. In fact, the only thing the bill does for the promotion of arbitration is the bestowal on the board of the power to send for persons and papers under compulsory process, and the assumption by the United States Treasury of the expenses of the proceeding. This is certainly important, and, where both parties are really anxious to lay their case before the public, will doubtless do much to bring arbitration about.

In nine cases out of ten, however, the Knights of Labor will not resort to it under this bill, because the strikes managed by the Knights are all, or nearly all, sympathetic strikes, or strikes undertaken by laborers who have no grievances in order to help laborers who have. Other strikes are set on foot and managed by the parties immediately concerned. A sympathetic or Knightly strike, however, on the Powderly principle that "the injury of one is the concern of all," will never bear examination before any body of rational men outside a district assembly. The rule that when a man hears that his neighbor has a row with his employer, he is bound to have a row with his employer too, or that when one debtor hears that another debtor has been treated harshly by his creditors, he is bound, although his own credit is perfectly good, to suspend payments, is one, of course, which will always be "dismissed with a smile" by any one fit to sit in a board of arbitration. Therefore, these sympathetic strikes and boycotts, which are really the only ones which cause much trouble or create any serious industrial disturbance, will probably be rarely if ever settled under this bill.

The annual farce in which the Department of State and the two houses of Congress take part, has been lately presented to the country with some slight changes. Heretofore, when the estimates for the foreign service were transmitted by the Secretary of the Treasury to the Speaker of the House, they were submitted to and considered by a sub-committee of the standing Committee on Appropriations, who, from the manner of their appointment, usually possessed no previous acquaintance with the subject, and who were intent only upon reducing the appropriation to the lowest limit. It was thought that, under the change in the rules by means of which the Committee on Foreign Relations was permitted to provide the appropriations for the diplomatic and consular service, there would be much less difficulty in securing decent allowances. But the main features of the farce have been nevertheless retained. In the first place, like the astute attorney who "lays" damages at twenty times the amount he hopes to obtain, the Department asked for money for this purpose and for that, trusting that at least something more than the usual sum might be granted. The Committee, more compliant than the sub-committee was wont to be, requested the House to look with favor upon nearly every item of the estimates. Of course, under the rules of that body which forbid increase of pay or provision for a new object in appropriation bills, every such item was voted down. Important consulates were left unprovided for, and changes, evidently in the interest of true economy, strenuously insisted upon by the Committee, were doggedly refused. In the Senate many of the stricken provisions were restored, and new ones were added "to bargain with."

What is to follow is the most amusing part of the performance. The House will reject without debate the Senate amendments, and a committee of conference will be suggested. The Senate will refuse to recede and will accept the conference. The two committees will meet in secret session, make some kind of a bargain, which will, perhaps, contain entirely new matter never before proposed in either house, and report, amid the confusion of the last days of Congress, as follows: "The Committee of Conference having met, after full and free conference, have agreed to recommend, and do recommend to their respective houses, that the Senate recede from its amendments numbered 1, 6, 25, and 64. That the House recede from its disagreement to the amendments of the Senate numbered 2, 5, 23, and 61," etc., etc. Without having any idea of the extent of the changes recommended in this report, it will be adopted without debate in both houses, after a hasty reading by the clerk. The bill as finally passed may not, and most likely will not, speak the mind of the Secretary of State, the Committee on Foreign Relations of the House, or the Committee on Appropriations of the Senate. For any defects, however glaring, or for any extravagance, however gross, it may contain, no one on earth will be responsible.

The Register of the Treasury has placed in the list of debtors to the Government, published a few months since, the name of Edmund Randolph, our second Secretary of State. It will surprise most people to learn that, in the early days of the Government, the Sec-

retary of State himself disbursed the funds provided for our diplomatic and consular establishments, and became personally responsible for their proper application. An arrangement was made about the beginning of this century by which fiscal agents, who have always been London bankers, disbursed these funds and became personally accountable to the Treasury for them. This custom still continues, though it has no special legislative sanction. In what precise manner Mr. Randolph incurred the large liability of over $60,000 we do not know, but it is a matter of history that a suit was instituted against him in 1797 for the recovery of this amount, which, after much difficulty, resulted in a judgment against him in 1804. This judgment was for about $53,000, with interest until paid. It seems that Mr. Nicholas, one of his sureties, entered into an agreement with the attorney for the Government for the discharge of this judgment by the assignment of certain bonds to the United States, secured by a lien on valuable real estate. This realty was in course of time sold and "bought in" by the Government for about $4,000, with which amount Mr. Randolph was credited, though at a subsequent sale this property yielded the United States over $10,000. It is understood that the various credits entered from time to time from the sale of bonds and land really amounted to as much or nearly as much as the original judgment, but to this had been added, when the last computation was made at the Treasury, which was more than fifty years ago, over $60,000 interest. Mr. Randolph's indebtedness was not, therefore, at all diminished when this last settlement was stated, and at the present day the accumulated interest is at least four times the amount of the principal.

Taking into consideration all the circumstances of this case, the doubts that were originally entertained by the court concerning some of the charges made by the Treasury against Mr. Randolph, the profit obtained by the Government in the land transaction, and the absolute impossibility of recovering another cent on the judgment, it would seem that a Congressional investigation concerning the propriety of blotting out this indebtedness would be in order. Indeed, the cancellation of all these balances, which have been standing on the books of the Treasury for seventy-five or a hundred years, from which we can hope to derive nothing, and concerning the correctness of which there is so much uncertainty, would be a wise step, and in many instances an act of simple justice to the memory of men who have added to our prosperity and renown. Such relief was granted to the late Mr. Arthur, as Collector of Customs at this port, and to others, without, as far as we know, a dissenting voice.

The Central Labor Union had a good deal of work on its hands on Sunday, for, in addition to denouncing Mr. Powderly, it denounced the majority report of the Legislative Committee which investigated the recent coal strikes, and also Judge Brown of the United States Circuit Court for his decision against the Knights who ordered that strike. Both the Committee and the Judge are arraigned for complicity in a plot to deceive the public, and put the blame for the strike on the industrious laborers of the community. The Judge gets the worst drubbing of all, for his court is set forth as a "tool in the hands of monopolists," and he himself as an agent in a "monopolistic system of anarchism." A resolution which was offered, declaring a boycott upon the entire "capitalistic press of the city," was laid over, probably because the oral Central Laborers were exhausted with the heavy day's work which had gone before. They have now in hand the following business: Repeal of the Penal Code; abolition of the courts; suppression of the entire press, with the exception of Labor's organ the *Leader*, and Henry George's *Standard*; complete reorganization of the Legislature in the interest of Labor; and the removal of Mr. Powderly as General Master Workman of the Noble and Holy Order of the Knights of Labor.

When Commissioner Flower of the Wisconsin Labor Bureau made his interesting inquiry into the condition of public sentiment regarding further foreign immigration, and discovered an unexpectedly strong feeling in favor of restrictive measures, many of his correspondents recommended that, as the first step, the State should abolish the Board of Immigration. This Board has maintained several agents in different parts of Europe, and has thus sought to attract as many Europeans as possible to the State, the theory upon which the system was established being that this was the surest way of promoting the prosperity of the commonwealth. A bill to abolish this Board was introduced in the Legislature early in the session and it has already become a law, having passed both branches without a dissenting vote. Such unanimity in the reversal of a long-established policy would be striking in any State, but it is peculiarly impressive in Wisconsin, which has more foreign-born than native voters; and the significance of the Legislature's action was still further emphasized by the fact that there are a number of foreigners among its members. Evidently a change in the American attitude towards immigration has begun.

We have already commented freely on the reformed English election procedure, explaining the strictness of its provisions, and pointing out the ease and certainty of their operation. Sir Henry James at Manchester recently made a speech of great interest on the working of the Corrupt Practices Act. The effect of the act has been that while in 1880, with 3,000,000 voters and only 419 constituencies, the total expense was about £3,000,000 sterling, in 1885, with 5,670,000 electors and 611 constituencies, the cost was only £780,000; and yet in 1885 the election was probably twice as expensive as it would be in future. Ninety-five petitions alleging corrupt practices were presented in 1880; in 1885 there were only two, and in 1886 only one. In fact, corruption at elections as heretofore known no longer exists. But Sir Henry pointed out a still remaining evil, the corrupting influence of the Primrose League and its rival associations—that is, the influence of women. He had been told that no form of act could reach this: "You could not schedule a smile." Yet he hoped to do something to attack this pernicious form of corruption. Perhaps the advocates of woman suffrage may find something in this. They may be trusted to say at least that if the case is so bad, it could not be worse if women had votes. But it is a poor argument that things would not be worse than a condition confessedly bad, against which some remedy must be found, while the fact is that things would be worse: feminine urgency would be increased if women were active participants in elections, while feminine urgency plus votes would be a much stronger means of corruption than the highest degree of feminine urgency alone.

When the Tories came into power in England, not knowing well what to do about the Irish land question, they appointed another Commission of Inquiry, doubtless more with the view of getting time to look around them than with the expectation that the investigation would throw any new light on the situation. The Commission has made its report, which is really a triumph for the Parnellites. It concedes that the fixing of judicial rents for a period of fifteen years under the Land Act of 1881 was a mistake, and recommends five years as a fairer term, thus virtually admitting Parnell's contention that the rents fixed in 1882 are now exorbitant. Worse still, it recommends also the admission of the leaseholders to the benefits of the Act. This exclusion of the leaseholders, who form a very large body of the tenantry, deprived the Act, the Parnellites maintained, of a very large part of its value; but the fact was, that Mr. Gladstone felt that the application of the Act to tenants at will was as far as he dared to go (in the then condition of English opinion) into the matter of interfering with freedom of contract. He doubted if he could carry a bill which would set aside leases. Now, this very thing is recommended by a Tory Commission.

The calamity that has fallen upon the Riviera is even more destructive and lamentable than that which visited the Island of Ischia in the summer of 1883. At this time of the year the shore of the Mediterranean, from Marseilles to Genoa, is thronged with invalids and pleasure-seekers from all parts of the civilized world. The cities of Cannes, Nice, Mentone, San Remo, Savona, and a multitude of lesser communities, not to mention the great gambling hell of Monte Carlo, are now at their maximum of population and prosperity. The delightful climate and rare natural scenery of the region, improved by the continuous labors of man from a period earlier than the foundation of Rome, and rendered accessible by the finest carriage-road in Europe, have made the Riviera perhaps the most attractive spot on the earth's surface. The consternation into which the throngs of visitors and the native population are thrown by an earthquake that has killed 1,000 people and is liable to recur at any moment, must reach the limits of human endurance. Even if there are no more shocks, the fright that the tourist class have received will prove a heavy blow to the prosperity of the region.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, February 23, to TUESDAY, March 1, 1887, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE House of Representatives on February 24 refused to pass the Dependent Soldiers' Pension Bill over the President's veto, the vote being yeas 175, nays 125. A two-thirds vote was required. One hundred and thirty-seven Republicans and thirty-eight Democrats, including the Greenback-Democrat, Mr. Weaver of Iowa, voted for the bill. Of these thirty-eight Democrats twenty have not been re-elected. Twenty-eight Democrats who voted for the bill on its first passage changed their votes to the negative in order to sustain the veto. The Republican members of the House all voted to override it.

Senator Sherman resigned the Presidency of the Senate pro tempore, and Senator Ingalls was elected to succeed him, and he entered upon his duties on Saturday.

The United States Senate Committee on Privileges and Elections has continued, at Washington, its examination of witnesses in its investigation of alleged election frauds in Washington County, Texas.

The Legislature of West Virginia failed to elect a United States Senator, and the Governor of the State has appointed D. B. Lucas, Democrat, to serve as Senator after March 4 until a successor to Senator Camden shall have been elected.

The deadlock of the New Jersey Legislature in its effort to elect a successor to United States Senator Sewell is not yet broken. Ex-Gov. Abbett is the leading Democratic candidate, and Senator Sewell the Republican candidate.

The Supreme Court of Indiana has decided that it has no jurisdiction over the question of the election of Lieutenant-Governor. The question whether there was really a vacancy in the office that could be filled by election in last November, was involved and argued, the Democrats holding that the vacancy was one that could only be filled by the election to be held in 1888, the regular quadrennial period for the election of Governor and Lieutenant-Governor. The Democratic presiding officer (Smith) continues to occupy the President's chair of the Senate. When the Republican Lieutenant-Governor (Robinson, elected in November) demanded the seat, he was put out of the Senate by the sergeant-at-arms amid much confusion. The House of Representatives refuses to recognize the Senate as now organized, and the course of legislation is blocked.

Gov. Lee of Virginia has called the Legislature to meet in extra session on March 16 to deal with the complicated financial condition of the State. The specific difficulty which has made an extra session necessary, is the continued effort of the representatives of the bondholders to compel the State to accept its coupons for taxes.

The Excise Committee of the New York Assembly has agreed on and reported the High-License Bill with amendments. The wine license was lowered from $500 to $100, making it the same as the beer license; the druggist's license was increased from $10 to $100, and the grocery-store license from $25 to $50. The highest license was kept at $1,000. In a test vote on the question of recommitting the bill to the Committee, the Republican members with six exceptions cast votes favorable to the measure, and all the Democrats cast unfavorable votes. An effort to make the bill a special order for Thursday was unsuccessful.

Two judicial decisions have this week been handed down which declare the illegality of the boycott. One was in the United States Circuit Court in this city, in the action of the Old Dominion Steamship Company against the managers of the Ocean Association, an organization of freight-handlers. Judge Brown laid down the doctrine that "all associations designed to interfere with the perfect freedom of employers in the proper management and control of their lawful business, or to dictate in any particular the terms upon which their business shall be conducted by means of threats of injury or loss, by interference with their property or traffic, or with their lawful employment of other persons, or designed to abridge any of these rights, are illegal combinations or associations, and all acts done in furtherance of such intentions by such means and accompanied by damage are actionable." The other decision was handed down by the Supreme Court of Connecticut, establishing the same principle, in a test case of the New Haven *Journal and Courier* against four members of Typographical Union No. 47 of that city.

The trial of Cleary, the fourth of the members of the New York Board of Aldermen in 1884 who have been indicted for bribe-taking, is proceeding. Jaehne, McQuade, and O'Neil have been convicted and sentenced to hard labor in prison and to pay fines. Judge Barnard has denied the motion of O'Neil's counsel for further stay of the execution of his sentence pending appeal.

There have been heavy snowfalls both in the Northwest and in the Northeast. On the 24th the severest storm of the winter was reported from Nebraska, and on the following day trains had to be abandoned in Minnesota. In Vermont, New Hampshire, and northern New York the railroads were blockaded; and the mountains of southwestern Virginia were deeply covered.

A successful test of a new steam-heating apparatus was made on Friday in passenger cars on the Milwaukee and St. Paul Railroad between St. Paul and Minneapolis. The device consists of the use of the exhaust steam from the dome of the engine, carried through pipes underneath the engine and cars, with a flexible coupling between each car. The thermometer registered 80° inside the cars when outside it stood at zero. The heat was distributed equitably, and seemed to be devoid of the dryness which is usual in coaches heated by stoves.

The season of German opera at the Metropolitan Opera-house in this city closed last week. Herr Seidl, the conductor, received from fifty or more patrons of the opera a "loving-cup," valued at $1,000, which, in point of design and artistic finish, is said to excel anything ever made in this country.

Commodore William T. Truxton, United States Navy, retired, died at Norfolk, Va., on February 25. He was born in Pennsylvania on March 11, 1824, and had served forty-six years in the navy, nearly twenty-two of which were spent at sea. He commanded the sloop *Dale* in the South Atlantic Blockading Squadron in 1862, the steam gunboats *Chocura* and *Tacony* of the North Atlantic Blockading Squadron in 1863–65; and he took part in the capture of Plymouth, N. C., in 1864, in the two attacks on Fort Fisher. Gen. Thomas W. Egan died in this city on February 24. During the war eight horses were shot under him, and he was twice severely wounded. He was made a Brigadier-General in the Union Army and afterwards brevetted Major-General. After his retirement from the army in 1866 he served for many years as a deputy collector in the Custom-house in this city. Mr. Robert Livingston Cutting, for many years one of the best-known men in Wall Street and a very prominent man in New York society, died at his home in this city on Friday.

FOREIGN.

By the German election, which was held on February 21, the numbers of seats won by the several parties are: National Liberals 92, including 2 Liberals who favor the Septennate; Free Conservatives 28, Old Conservatives 78, Centrists 90, German Liberals 11, Social Democrats 6, Guelphs 2, Poles 15, Protesters from Alsace 15, and 1 Dane. There will be fifty-nine second ballots. Herr Bennigsen will not accept the Presidency of the Reichstag, but will keep the leadership. A sensation has been caused by the summoning of the new Reichstag for the 3d of March, before the undecided elections are settled by second ballots. The Liberals estimate that the second ballots will result in the return of 24 new German Liberals, 14 National Liberals, 6 Conservatives, 2 Free Conservatives, 7 Ultramontanes, and 8 Socialists. It is expected that the Septennate Bill will pass the three readings without debate; and apprehension has spread among the National Liberals that Bismarck will make more demands upon them in the way of tax measures than they will be able to yield. Herr Richter has declared that the elections were carried for the Government by deceptions and coercion of all sorts. The failure of the candidates favorable to the Government in Alsace-Lorraine has provoked somewhat jubilant comment in Paris. *La Liberté* said on the 26th: "It can now be plainly seen that a blunder was made when the provinces of Alsace-Lorraine—and more especially the latter—were annexed by Germany. It is apparent that it would have been better to have neutralized the provinces, as was suggested by sagacious minds during the negotiations between France and Germany after the war of 1870."

The German Government has issued an order for the dissolution of the union of Alsatian choral societies, it being suspected that the union has assisted the objects of the French League of Patriots. It is further reported that the laws dealing with societies will be rigorously enforced; that the measure forbidding French military men to stay in Alsace except on a special permit will be applied to civilians, and that societies whose rules forbid the admission of Germans to membership, or societies which, as a matter of common knowledge, exclude Germans, will be dissolved. Some law is considered necessary to deal with French emissaries—press correspondents and others—who, it is claimed, have been acting as electoral agents, inciting malcontents, freely visiting fortifications, and doing the work of spies. Advocates of an effective Germanization desire the temporary suspension of electoral rights in Alsace-Lorraine, German education in the primary schools, and a Government administration in place of the Municipal Councils.

There was much less talk of war in Europe for some time after the German election was held than before. It is reported from Berlin that the speech from the throne on the opening of the Reichstag, which will be read by Prince Bismarck, will contain a pacificatory passage. Negotiations have been satisfactorily concluded for a renewal of the alliance between Italy, Germany, and Austria, which will expire next May. The Austrian Government has decided to forego the usual spring mobilization of the artillery and cavalry, so as not to awaken alarm; and the *North German Gazette* asserts with emphasis that Germany has no interest in the East, and will not meddle in any quarrel which may arise there. The Austrian Reichsrath and Hungarian Diet, however, have by unanimous votes passed the extra credits asked by the Government for the equipment of the army and the Landwehr and the Landsturm; and two workmen employed on a railroad in Austria have been arrested as Russian spies. Gen. Boulanger said on the day after the German election: "When the ballot-boxes speak as they did yesterday, after fifteen years of occupation, one may well ask whether Alsace would not burst into revolt were Germany to declare war on France." French and German Government agents are visiting all the fairs in the north of England, and making large purchases of horses suitable for military purposes. Simply expressing his "personal opinion," Gen. Wolseley said on Saturday: "I should say I feel sure that a vast and appalling war is a certainty in the near future. But whether it will be this summer or next, there is only one man in Europe who knows—that is Bismarck."

The latest despatches report the international situation as less hopeful of peace. Although M. de Giers, in an interview with the Turkish Ambassador, expressed the opinion that the European equilibrium would soon be restored, and that there would be no war, the German authorities are greatly irritated by Russia's announced intention to increase her import dues, and are considering sharp counter measures. It is reported that incessant preparations are in progress in Poland. The forts are equipped with rapidly shooting guns, and the rolling-stock of the railroads is increased.

Owing to the war scare, German emigration to America has greatly increased, the emigrants coming chiefly from Hesse, Würtemberg, and Baden.

Among foreign personages who died during the week was Cardinal Jacobini, Pontifical Secretary of State (February 28). He was born at Albano in 1832. After holding less important ecclesiastical positions, he was made one of the "Consultors" of the Propaganda, and in 1874 he was chosen by Pius IX. as Nuncio at Vienna, which was at the time a position of no small difficulty. On September 19, 1879, he was created Cardinal, but he was kept for some time at the Austrian capital to carry on the negotiations with Germany and Russia, and to regulate the new ecclesiastical arrangements for Bosnia and Herzegovina. In 1880 he was recalled to Rome and appointed to the office of Papal Secretary of State, the duties of which so recently made him prominent, when he was called on to issue manifestoes to the bishops and clergy of Germany. The death was announced on the 25th of William Hensen, the German epigraphist, who was the associate in much of their work of Mommsen and Rossi, and was Secretary of the Institute of Archæological Correspondence. Richard Caulfield, the distinguished Irish archæologist, died on the 24th. He was editor of the *Journal* of the Royal Historical and Archæological Association of Ireland, the author of a number of archæological books, chiefly on Irish subjects, and a member of most of the European archæological societies.

It is reported that, in return for the Pope's recent friendship, Germany has consented to act as mediator between the Italian Government and the Vatican. The Vatican's proposal is that part of Rome, including the "Leonine city," shall become the absolute property of the Pope.

At a meeting of the Taxation Reform Association held at Berlin on Monday, a resolution was passed favoring the abolition or reduction under international treaties of bounties on sugar.

An earthquake did great damage to property in southern Europe on the morning of Feb. 23, and caused the death of more than 1,000 persons, most of them in the Italian provinces. The movement was from west to east, and the severest shock was of fifteen seconds duration. The area of the disturbance was from Nice to Genoa. Bajardo and Diano-Marina were the only places destroyed. Cervo was damaged. The Riviera was crowded with tourists and persons of distinction. When the first shock occurred, the streets of Nice were thronged with persons in ball room costumes returning from the carnival ball. The King of Italy, the Pope, and the French Government have sent money to aid the injured. On the 26th a slight shock was felt at Charleston, S. C.

Later despatches from the region shaken by the earthquake report that San Remo is deserted. At Bussana only a church steeple remains standing. At Bajardo 230 victims were buried in a common trench on Sunday. A gloomy feeling prevails among business people, who fear that the Riviera may never again be a health resort. A chasm has opened in the ground near Nice, from which a stream of hot muddy water bubbles up. Portions of the coast have sunk and other portions have risen. The building inspectors have condemned two-thirds of Mentone.

A rumor is credited in English political circles that an agreement has been more nearly reached between Gladstone, Hartington, Morley, Chamberlain, and Parnell than at any time since home rule came within the range of practical politics. The suggestion is even made of a possible reunion of Hartington and Gladstone in the event of the introduction of a coercion bill by the Conservatives.

Mrs. Gladstone presided on Friday over a meeting to form a Women's Liberal Federation. In her address she said that the women of Great Britain who were anxious to work for the Liberal cause and the progress of justice should be organized and united. Mr. Gladstone has made a permanent reduction of rent on the large farms at Hawarden.

The Right Hon. Henry Matthews, Secretary of State for Home Affairs, in a speech at Birmingham, intimated that Lord Randolph Churchill would rejoin the Government after the adoption of the budget.

The trial at Dublin of Messrs. Dillon, O'Brien, Redmond, and other Irishmen for their connection with the "plan of campaign" was concluded on February 24 by a disagreement of the jury. They will be tried again in April.

The report of the Royal Commission on the Irish land question has been made to the House of Commons. The chief recommendations are (1) that the term of judicial rents, fixed by the Land Act at fifteen years, be reduced to the statutory term of five years, all whose rents were fixed five years ago having the right to go into court at once for a revision of their rents; (2) that all leaseholders be permitted to go into court and have the judicial rent fixed by the Land Commissioners. The Commissioners report that intimidation in the shape of boycotting prevails extensively, but they abstain from making any recommendations on the subject. As to the congested districts, they recommend that the excessive population on the western seaboard should be reduced by migration or emigration.

The House of Commons has busied itself with a discussion of the rules of procedure. Mr. Parnell moved the exemption from closure of measures increasing the stringency of the criminal law in Ireland. Sir Michael Hicks-Beach declared emphatically that the Government declined to entertain such a proposal. Mr. Parnell said that unless such an amendment were adopted, the power would be given to any minister commanding a majority to carry the second reading of a coercion act without a word of protest from the Irish. The motion was rejected by a vote of 264 to 155. Subsequently Mr. Parnell moved the exemption from closure of all proceedings in committee of supply, which also was defeated. During the general debate on closure Mr. T. R. Buchanan (Liberal Unionist), Member for West Edinburgh, said that in the United States Congress moving the previous question was much used to close debate. This was done regardless of the Speaker's approval, the Americans acting in the belief that the Speaker's wishes should be left out of consideration in such cases. He strongly favored the adoption of the American form of closure. Mr. R. T. Reed (Liberal), member for Dumfries, advocated the American plan of devolving extensively upon committees the work of preparing legislation for final stages. This would greatly relieve the House, and do for it what no closure could possibly accomplish in removing the causes of breakdowns in Parliamentary work.

In the of House of Lords on Monday evening the Duke of Marlborough called attention to the currency question, urging a special consideration of the effects which the depreciation of gold, with the present difference in the exchange value of the rupee, may have on trade and agriculture in Great Britain. Lord Salisbury said that the Currency Commission would duly consider the subject, and Lord Salisbury's remarks indicated that the report of the Currency Commission will be against bimetallism and in favor of the gold standard, leaving the relations of the values of the two metals to the operation of economic laws.

A rumor gained currency in British political circles on Monday that the Cabinet had decided to prosecute Archbishop Croke for advocating the non-payment of taxes in Ireland. In the House of Commons Mr. William Johnston, the Orange leader, asked Sir Michael Hicks-Beach what the Government intended to do regarding the Archbishop. Sir Michael declined to say more than that the question was engaging the attention of the Government. The Dublin executive has authorized all local magistrates to proclaim every Plan of Campaign meeting, and to demand the assistance of the military and police without awaiting sanction from headquarters. Mr. David Sheehy, member of Parliament for South Galway, will be removed from the office of Sheriff of Limerick for presiding at Plan of Campaign meetings.

In the House of Commons on March 1, Mr. George Howell, advanced Liberal, asserted that members of the corporation of London had diverted large sums of public money to defeat the bill before Parliament for the reform of the London Government, and asked for the appointment of a committee of inquiry. Mr. Gladstone declared that the matter was of the greatest importance, and that an inquiry must be granted, in order to prove whether or not the greatest corporation in the country had misused its trust and adopted illegal methods to pervert public opinion or control legislative action. Mr. W. H. Smith, First Lord of the Treasury, without admitting the truth of the accusation, assented to the appointment of a committee of inquiry.

There was a parade of Socialists in London on Sunday to St. Paul's, and the Cathedral was packed. When the text, "The rich and poor meet together; the Lord is the maker of them all," was read, there were shouts of "Bravo" and other exclamations of approval and some growls. But there was no other demonstration.

The 21st day of June has been decided upon as the date for the national celebration of the Queen's jubilee. The day will be declared a holiday, and her Majesty will attend a state service to be held in Westminster Abbey.

Diplomatic relations between Great Britain and Venezuela have been suspended, owing to a dispute respecting the frontier line between that country and British Guiana.

Mr. Stanley set out from Zanzibar on February 24, having fitted out an expedition, and has proceeded on his mission to rescue Emin Bey. The expedition consists of 9 European officers, 61 Sudanese, 13 Somalis, 620 natives of Zanzibar, 3 interpreters, and an Arab trader and 40 of his followers. Couriers have gone overland with letters to Uganda, and others have been sent to Stanley Falls to meet the native chiefs.

The Spanish Government is trying to induce Republicans abroad to return to Spain and accept amnesty, the object being to put a stop to revolutionary propaganda.

Experiments with a new explosive which have been made under the supervision of the Russian Government have been attended with great success. The explosive possesses fifteen times greater destructive power than gunpowder, and it does not produce any smoke.

Prince Alexander of Battenberg, the deposed King of Bulgaria, is ill at his father's house in Darmstadt, with varioloid.

A well of fine petroleum has been discovered in Houdeng-Goegnies in Belgium.

The recent elections in New South Wales resulted in the return to the Legislative Assembly of 83 free-traders and 41 protectionists.

THE MONEY POWER IN POLITICS.

THE figures which the City Chamberlain, Mr. William M. Ivins, gave before the Commonwealth Club on Monday, showing the amount of money which, in various ways, enters into our municipal elections, were startling chiefly because of their exactness. It has been notorious for years that enormous sums were spent in this way, and that a large part of them came from assessments upon candidates, but until now we have not had the exact figures. Mr. Ivins says he has devoted fifteen years to the subject, and as he has had the great advantage of prosecuting his inquiries from the inside, we presume there is no question of the accuracy of his results.

He gives first the amount which the city contributes directly to the cost of election machinery. This is to pay the officers who are on duty at the polls. There are 4,872 of these for the 812 election districts, and last November they were paid $222,500. To this should be added Federal expenditures for marshals, etc., amounting to $68,500, making $291,000. This is the city's direct tax. Its indirect tax is even larger. In every one of the twenty-four Assembly districts there are district leaders for each of the three factions or parties—County Democracy, Tammany, and Republican. Each of these seventy-two leaders has his election-district captains and workers. Many of these seventy-two Assembly-district leaders are always quartered upon the city in one way or another, and get as many of their subordinates quartered there as they possibly can. Last year these leaders drew from the city treasury in salaries $330,000, or an average of $4,750 each. This year they are receiving $242,000, divided between the three organizations as follows: 18 out of Tammany Hall's 24 leaders get $119,000; 17 out of the County Democracy's 24 leaders get $90,000; and 8 out of the Republican Machine's get $33,000. These amounts are in many cases subdivided among the election-district captains and workers. This $242,000 is the city's permanent investment in Machine leadership alone. To it Mr. Ivins adds $750,000 drawn in various ways for hangers-on and heelers, making a total annual expenditure by the city for "politics" of $992,000. Adding to this the total for the legal machinery of elections, $291,000, we have as a grand total of the taxpayers' money involved in an ordinary city election, $1,283,000. For a Presidential election, Mr. Ivins estimates an increase of at least $100,000 in the expenditure for legal machinery.

Turning now to the assessment question, it appears that the income from candidates alone is almost as large as the city's expenditure for legal machinery. Mr. Ivins gives the following as the usual tariff on candidates:

Candidate.	Total assessment.
Mayor (for three Machines)	$25,000 to $30,000
Supreme Judge (for two or more Machines)	10,000 to 20,000
Superior Judge (for two or more Machines)	10,000 to 15,000
Common Pleas (for two or more Machines)	10,000 to 15,000
Register	15,000 to 40,000
Comptroller	10,000
Sheriff	10,000
County Clerk	10,000
District Attorney	5,000
Congress	5,000 to 10,000
State Senator	5,000 to 10,000
Assembly	500 to 1,000

As there are almost always two candidates for each office, and sometimes three, the total assessments are often double the figures represented above. For an ordinary election, Mr. Ivins estimates the minimum assessment revenue as follows:

Two Aldermanic candidates at $15 an election district	$24,360
Two Assembly candidates at $10 an election district	16,240
Two Congressional or Senate candidates at $25 an election district	40,600
Four candidates for Judgeships at $10,000 each	40,000
Two candidates for Mayor at $20,000 each.	40,000
Two candidates for county officers at $10,000 each	20,000
Two candidates for Comptroller at $10,000 each	20,000
Two candidates for District Attorney at $5,000 each	10,000
Total	$211,200

Putting the average disbursements by all organizations at $307,000, with $100,000 paid by candidates, in addition to the payments by the organizations, and $291,000, the expenses under the laws, we have a total of more than $700,000. How this is divided up is shown by Mr. Ivins's figures of the number of men actually employed in the work at the polls. There are ten of them who are paid by law for each district, and about forty-six for each district who are paid by the political organizations. This makes for the whole city a total of 45,475 who are under pay on the day of election, and are consequently affected by the enormous amount of money involved. At the last election about 220,000 votes were cast, and of this number 45,000, or one-fifth, were receiving pay for their services.

Here we get a glimpse at the source of all our municipal misgovernment. It is well known, as Mr. Ivins points out, that all these district leaders, no matter what their political affiliations, are in cordial sympathy. They have all the same end in view, which is to get their living out of politics, and to make it as good a living as possible. The last thing in the world that they care for is economical and honest government. The more corrupt and extravagant it is, the more prosperous will be their condition. For this reason they are always ready to combine or "deal" for the election of the worst candidates and the defeat of the best, and they can almost always accomplish their purpose. A solid body of one-fifth of all the voters, actuated by a common purpose to make politics corrupt, is a menace to free government which cannot be disregarded. We are actually keeping under pay 20 per cent. of our voters, whose sole ambition is extravagant rule. Everybody knows the character of the vast majority of this 20 per cent. They are the worst element in our population, whose natural meeting-place is the liquor-saloon.

We have not space to-day to more than refer to the remedy for this, which is a complete reform in our election machinery. We may touch upon this hereafter, and also mention another item in the moving influence in elections, which Mr. Ivins did not elaborate—that is, the vast income at stake in the offices themselves.

THE LOVE OF TAXATION.

NOTHING could well seem more remarkable to a person acquainted with representative government only in theory, as it is laid down in books, than the attitude of many of the legislators of the State of New York towards their constituency. These men are never more disposed to be active than when there is apparently very little for them to do. They regard the prosperity of any portion of the community as an ominous condition demanding legislative investigation. Signs of increasing ease in the lives of the people do not suggest to them reflections upon the advantages of a mild and tolerant government, but stimulate them to devise new forms of taxation. The spectacle of millions taken from the earnings of industrious citizens and spent in maintaining criminals in idleness occasions them no concern; but the idea that any man should accumulate personal property without the interference of the tax-gatherer, excites them to frenzy. No talk of double taxation or of the diffusion of taxes will appease them; what they want is, that every "capitalist" shall be made to disclose the details of his private affairs. They seem to have the feeling of the Oriental despot when he discovers that one of his subjects is wealthier than he had suspected, and that he has neglected an opportunity for extortion. It is beyond question that many of our Assemblymen look upon this city with emotions like those which caused old Blücher's celebrated ejaculation when he beheld the wealth of London.

It is a fact very well known in certain quarters, although it would be almost impossible to produce the evidence for it, that the easy administration of the law for the taxation of personalty in this State has drawn hither an enormous amount of that class of property. It has led many persons of wealth to select this city as a place of residence (in spite of the fact that they often pay higher taxes in the form of rent than they would otherwise be subjected to), and it has caused a large quantity of money and securities to be actually deposited here. The violation by other States of the principle not to try to tax what can hide or run away, has increased both the population and the wealth of this State. The benefit, however, has in a measure extended to the whole country, for the existence of a great centre where evidences of debt are practically secure against governmental robbery, has lowered the general rate of interest. Every borrower in the land may be said to get somewhat better terms on account of the comparatively enlightened policy of the State of New York.

The policy of the neighboring State of Connecticut has been in several respects less judicious; but the shrewd inhabitants of that community are learning wisdom from experience. A commission appointed under a resolution of the General Assembly has been for some time considering their system of taxation, and has just rendered a most instructive report. Those who believe in the taxation of intangible property cannot possibly complain that the legislation of Connecticut has not been sufficiently stringent. It has provided at one time that all taxable property not listed should be confiscated; at others, that it should be taxed threefold or fourfold, or that like penalties of various degrees should be imposed; and the taxpayer has for many years been required to make his own return of all his possessions, and swear

to the truth of it. In spite of all these measures, the proportion of personal property to real estate subject to taxation in Connecticut does not very greatly exceed that in New York. The owners of such property who do not change their residence, simply will not return it. This is no mere conjecture, but a fact established by evidence that is conclusive.

In the first place, it appears that in 1855 the amount of property in the shape of bonds, notes, and money at interest returned for taxation in the State was about nineteen million dollars. In 1885 it had sunk to about thirteen million dollars. The inhabitants of eighty-one towns do not own a single bond. Not a bond is to be found in the rich city of Meriden. The twenty thousand inhabitants of the thriving city of Waterbury, by their united efforts manage to scrape together only $750 in bonds. So far as cash is concerned, there was never a community since mankind emerged from a state of barter that got along with so little. On the first of October, 1885, the root of all evil had been entirely extirpated in forty-three towns, and the remainder got along with only $1,100,000, about one-tenth of the amount estimated by statisticians to be used by such a population.

If this evidence is not sufficiently cogent, it can be supplemented. An examination of the probate records, made by the Commissioners, revealed the interesting fact that people in Connecticut as a rule have no conception of their own riches. Executors find that their testators have been ignorant of the existence of from 40 to 80 per cent. of their real wealth. In one district, the search made included every estate probated during the last ten years, and was conducted with the aid of the Judge of Probate. "The amount of taxable property inventoried was $7,000,765; that appearing in the last tax-list of the deceased had been assessed at $1,581,-861." In another district, seventeen estates regarded as representative were selected. They were inventoried at $209,000; but they had been thought by their owners, when living, to be worth for purposes of taxation less than $47,000. It has been customary to accuse Connecticut Yankees of a certain smallness in their dealings, but when we consider how much poorer they are in their own judgment than in that of others, we see that it is easy to do them wrong.

When we consider the circumstances of beneficiaries under trusts created by will, widows, infant heirs, and such helpless folk, whose property is exposed to assessment through the probate records, we see that a man with due regard for posterity cannot properly die in Connecticut without carefully arranging his investments. If he should happen to be a resident of Hartford at the time of his death, holding say $100,000 in West Shore 4 per cent. bonds—which he would doubtless keep in a deposit-vault in the city of New York, and would omit to return for taxation—his representatives would find that the net return from this fund would be reduced by taxation to less than 2 per cent.—indeed, taking the census returns of the rate of taxation in Hartford for 1880, to less than 1 per cent. They must either submit to the confiscation of more than 50 per cent. of their income or change their residence. Without having any evidence upon this point, we venture to say that most of the notes and bonds that are taxed in Connecticut are in the hands of executors, trustees, and guardians who are unable to reinvest their funds. It is obvious that such persons must be often tempted to resort to investments of an illegal character.

It is not to be supposed that the inhabitants of Connecticut are of an exceptionally depraved character. Their nature is probably better rather than worse than ordinary human nature. They regard the present system of taxation as an exercise of brute force upon the part of the Government; that is, an outrage upon the rights of subjects. Doubtless many persons prefer to remove their residence from the State rather than to make sworn returns which, it must be confessed, require to be justified by somewhat elaborate casuistry; and citizens of this class no State can afford to lose. The great mass of the well-to-do, however, must remain where they are, and settle matters with their consciences as best they can. Probably they reason that as it is a fundamental principle in our criminal jurisprudence that a man shall not be compelled to testify against himself, so in taxation a compulsory oath is not binding. At all events they will not assist in what they consider to be a robbery of themselves, and in view of this fact the Connecticut Commissioners recommend that the State should abandon all attempts to levy taxes that produce little but loss of population and debauchery of conscience.

It is not to be expected that those rural statesmen who are endeavoring to establish inquisitorial methods of taxation in this State will pay much attention to the experience of Connecticut. With all their ingenuity, they will hardly be able to devise anything more stringent than some of the laws of that State. They will not succeed in adding much personal property to the list, but they may accomplish something in retarding the progress of New York. If they should succeed in introducing their policy, and if the people of Connecticut should at the same time adopt the report of their Commissioners, the advantages of a residence in the latter State would become obvious to a multitude of New Yorkers, whose expenditure would result in an addition to the value of Connecticut real estate much greater than the apparent loss in personal property. Such an exchange of policies would be an interesting occurrence, and one that the inhabitants of the respective States would regard with very different emotions.

THE NORMIROFKA.

It is not often that a real experiment can be made in political economy. As a general rule, when we attempt to try what the effect of a particular piece of legislation will be, we find it almost impossible to separate one cause from all other causes, and we consequently are apt to find the effect we are looking for mixed up with so many other effects that it has no value for us. The Russians have recently, however, performed an experiment in protection for native industry which is almost as neat and clean as a piece of work in a chemical laboratory. About forty years ago they determined to make their own sugar out of beet-root, the example of the French proving as fascinating to them as it has more recently to the Germans. At first the Government helped the manufacturers with a bounty. After a while—that is, in 1850—it substituted for the bounty a high protective duty on foreign imports. They began with three rubles on the pood—the ruble being about seventy cents of our money, and the pood about thirty-six pounds of our weights

There were slight variations made in the protection from time to time, but it on the whole proved prohibitory as regards imports. Under it the production of beets and sugar increased enormously for a great many years, and the profits were high. The large, well-managed factories made as much as 50 per cent.; the small and badly-managed, as much as 8 or 10 per cent. In 1881 the manufacturers produced just enough to meet the demands of the home market. From this the production increased with extraordinary rapidity, running up from 16,000,000 poods in 1881 to about 25,000,000 (estimated) in 1886-7. As the product of 1881 supplied the home markets, there was a surplus in 1882 and it steadily increased. Prices began to fall, and the small manufacturers began to fail. They could not export their surplus at a profit, because they could not compete in the foreign markets. More protection at home would do them no good, because the protection they had already was complete. Under these circumstances, there was nothing for it but to apply to the Government to pay them for exporting the surplus, and this the Government agreed to do.

An arrangement was made in July, 1882, by which they were to be paid a bounty of one ruble per pood for exporting 2,000,000 poods, and were to have also the excise duty of sixty-five copecks per pood remitted on this amount. This lasted until January 1, 1886, but it did not raise the price in the home markets, and so a prolongation of the bounty was demanded and accorded until July, 1886, on an unlimited exportation. At the same time the import duty was lowered to a ruble and a half per pood. Seven and a half million poods were accordingly poured into the English and Italian markets, the only large ones which had no sugar of their own. The influx knocked prices down in these markets to such a degree that it did not pay to export even with the aid of the bounty. Moreover, the quantity exported did not draw off all the surplus from the home markets. Three millions of poods of it still remained unsold and unsalable, every Russian having bought and consumed all the sugar he wanted or could afford.

Anybody who was not familiar with the history of protection or the workings of the protectionist mind would suppose that the Russian sugar men were now at the end of their resources; that they would sit down and submit to their ruin. They had had all the protection from foreign competition that they asked for. They had had all the bounty that would do them any good. They were cut off from the plan of making the Government buy their goods, which our silver men have found so

successful, because sugar is too bulky and too perishable to be stored in great quantities, for an indefinite period, like silver. What, then, were they to do?

They called a convention to consider the situation, and determined to ask for something which has been making a great noise in Russian politics during the last six months, namely, the "normirofka." This remedy is simply the restriction of production by law, to whatever extent would be necessary to keep the price up to the point at which it stood when the manufacturers made just enough sugar to supply the home market. This price they called the normal price, and they asked the Government, therefore, to keep prices normal, or, in plain Russian, to give them the "normirofka." They said the normirofka would be good for everybody—the large manufacturers, the small ones, the refiners, and trade and commerce and agriculture generally. In short, it would "grease the wheels of industry," and fill both capital and labor with rejoicing. The scheme was presented to the Ministerial Council, and accepted by it, with some modifications, by a vote of 12 to 5. The production of every factory was to be so cut down for two years that the total product of the first year should not exceed 17,000,000 poods, of the second 20,000,000. Anybody might make as much sugar as he pleased, but he was not to be allowed to sell anything over the regulation amount. He might eat it, or store it, or export it, but not offer it in the home market.

At this point all looked smiling. But in the Russian Council the Emperor has the casting vote, and the side he votes on always has a majority, whatever the figures may say. So his vote, added to the minority of five, made it thirteen, and the normirofka was refused. Of course it would not have done much good, even if it had been granted. At the end of the two years the Government would have found itself saddled with all the beet farms and sugar factories in the country. There is nothing for the Russian sugar interest now but to crush out remorselessly all the weak, incompetent people who have been seduced into it by Government premiums, improve and cheapen the processes of production, and limit the quantity to the wants of home consumers. The loss and suffering of this remedy will of course be very great, but the experience is invaluable. No number of books or tracts could have taught people so much about the difficulty of living on the Government.

THE GERMAN OPERA SEASON.

THE third season of German Opera in New York has become a matter of history. In musical circles this will always be known as the "Tristan" year; and unless Herr Niemann can be reëngaged and a first-class substitute be found for Herr Seidl, it may be long before New Yorkers will be able to enjoy an equally perfect series of performances of the masterworks of dramatic music. It may be doubted if in the whole history of music in this country anything has ever been done approaching, in the perfection of *all* the details, the eight performances of "Tristan and Isolde" given at the Metropolitan this winter; and much of the credit for this is due to Manager Stanton for engaging six artists—Seidl, Niemann, Lehmann, Brandt, Fischer, and Robinson—who could not, perhaps, be excelled in their respective parts by other living artists.

The other novelties produced this year were not equally successful. Goldmark's "Merlin," although it was produced with a good cast and fine scenery, proved more of a failure than had been anticipated even by those who saw its lack of vitality at a first hearing. Yet it appears as if there were more in the score of "Merlin" than has been revealed to New Yorkers; for in Vienna, where "Merlin" was produced a few weeks sooner than in New York, it has since been given once a week regularly, and for a time seats were at a premium. At Hamburg, too, "Merlin" has just proved a success, the composer having made some cuts and alterations which might be adopted for our next season; for it will not do to drop Goldmark's opera altogether, in view of the limited scope of the modern repertory. That Brüll's "Golden Cross" was unsuccessful, is a fact which reflects great credit on the New York public. It is a most inane and trivial work, the extraordinary popularity of which in Germany a few years ago has always been a puzzle to us. Such operas can only be given, as they are abroad, at reduced prices. The ballet, "Vienna Waltzes," which accompanied this opera, though good enough in its way, was by no means placed on the stage with the luxurious pomp and scenic splendor that one sees at Paris or Vienna, and that alone will induce people to pay $4 for seeing what in smaller theatres can be witnessed for $1.50. In other words, ballet will not pay at the Metropolitan unless it is given on a scale of magnificence which no smaller theatre can rival.

If the dubious success of the fourth Metropolitan novelty—"Aïda"—did not justify the great outlay on its scenery, it must be remembered that the tenor Zobel did not please the public, and that, moreover, "Aïda" has never been the most popular of Verdi's operas in New York, even during the Italian *stagioni* of Mapleson's. As already intimated, the most successful production of the season has been Wagner's greatest work, "Tristan and Isolde," which had 8 performances. Then comes "Tannhäuser," with 6; "Prophète," "Meistersinger," "Merlin," "Rienzi," 5 each; "Walküre," "Lohengrin," "Faust," "Aïda," 4 each; "Fidelio," "Queen of Sheba," "Golden Cross," 3 each; "Masaniello," 2. Thus there were 61 performances, of which Wagner got 32. This is as it should be; for there are not a few who are convinced that if Wagner's eleven operas were placed in one scale and all other operas in the modern repertory in the other, the latter would rise up to the clouds.

This is not so extravagant a belief as it seems. The modern repertory is strangely limited. Mr. Stanton has produced fourteen operas in fifteen weeks; but even at an opera-house like that of Berlin, where a performance is given almost every evening throughout ten months, the list of operas is only about fifty; and this list includes some by Spohr, Kreutzer, and others that could hardly be given outside of Germany. The great demand for Wagnerian conductors in Germany—as instanced by the enticing of Herr Seidl away from us to Berlin—shows the drift of popular taste abroad; and for New York, too, the most important desideratum at present is a man, like Hans Richter or Mottl, who can produce the three remaining parts of the Nibelung Tetralogy in the same superb style in which "Die Walküre" and "Tristan" have been given to us. "Siegfried" will be the most important novelty for next season; and possibly "Die Götterdämmerung" will be added. Verdi's "Otello" also can hardly fail to find place in our repertory and be welcomed by the public. Nor will its performance present insuperable difficulties to a German company, inasmuch as, according to the testimony of such eminent critics as Filippi of the Milan *Perseveranza*, and Dr. Hueffer of the London *Times*, Verdi has in his latest work abandoned the traditional forms and methods of Italian opera, and cast it in a Wagnerian mould. It is hard for the Italianissimi to be forsaken by their own prophet!

Another opera in contemplation for next season is Weber's "Euryanthe." The Viennese wits, who called this work when it first appeared *Ennuyante*, were poor prophets, for it has already been sung over a hundred times in that city, and is appearing more and more frequently in the repertory of German opera-houses. Schumann called this opera "a chain of brilliant jewels from beginning to end—everything most clever and masterly," and Wagner even indulged in the emphatic assertion in one of his last essays, that "every single number is worth more than all the *opera seria* of Italy, France, and Judæa." One of Gluck's operas sumptuously placed on the stage would also doubtless be appreciated—witness the success of "Orpheus and Eurydice" as given by the National Opera Company. Schumann's "Genoveva" is worth considering, as is one of Spontini's operas, say "Cortez," although Spontini's musical poverty makes the success of his works doubtful, because it would be necessary to spend large sums on the scenery and costumes. The "Freischütz," in a becoming attire and with Berlioz's recitatives, is worth considering. Hoffman's "Armin" is vastly superior to the "Golden Cross." The repertory of the Paris Opéra includes two good works which claim consideration — Saint-Saëns's "Henry VIII." and Reyer's "Sigurd," a French Nibelung opera. It might be well to recall the fact, too, that Rubinstein's "Maccabees," with Frl. Brandt, used to be very popular in Berlin; nor is Rossini's "Tell" an antiquated work.

Excellent as the performances at the Metropolitan have been, they were by no means above criticism. The chorus was often poor, and apparently needed weeding and better material, as well as more careful drilling. Its performances in "Lohengrin" were repeatedly very bad. Indeed, "Lohengrin" sadly needs some improvements, as do "Die Walküre" and "Die Meistersinger." The only reason why "Tannhäuser" leads these superior works is because it is placed on the stage more in accordance with the composer's intentions. In the other works mentioned, Herr van Hell has shown himself so unable or unwilling to

reproduce Wagner's intentions that the acquisition of a new stage manager seems an imperative necessity. But the greatest problem is the securing of a successor for Herr Seidl, whose contributions to the success of German opera can only be estimated by those who know how difficult Wagner's later scores are, and how impossible it is to reproduce them effectively unless all the performers are united by enthusiasm and the personal magnetism resulting from it. It will be pleasant news to many to hear that hope has not yet been abandoned of securing Herr Seidl for next season after all.

FIVE YEARS OF THE LAND LAW.

DUBLIN, February 14, 1887.

Now that the Land Law of 1881 has been in full operation for over five years, it is possible to take a general view of its effect on the country. A reform was wrung from English statesmen by the combined action of the people; but the reform accorded was not what was asked for, and was thrust upon Ireland in spite of the remonstrances of the Nationalist party. Even in 1881, Mr. A. M. Sullivan, speaking at Walsall, said the Irish people had made up its mind that there must be an end for ever of the landlord system. Mr. Parnell's apprehensions of the inadequacy of the Land Bill, even before it was mutilated first by the Commons and then by the Lords, have been fully justified. He said, on the 5th of May, 1881, in the House of Commons: "The bill will fail to secure for the tenant farmers of Ireland such reductions in their rents as to afford adequate protection for the property in their holdings acknowledged by the act of 1870 to belong to the occupiers. The measure affords no suitable guarantee that its operation will result in the establishment of a sufficient number of occupying owners to check the existing monopoly of land." On May 19 he said it was useless to try and establish a partnership between idleness and industry, and that the Land League doctrine was that any attempt to reconcile the respective interests of landlord and tenant was impossible. It is interesting to recall Mr. Cobden's denunciation, in 1849, of that oft-repeated fallacy that the interests of landlords and tenants are in the long run identical—a fallacy which seems to have possessed Mr. Gladstone till very lately. Mr. Cobden said: "As members of one community, I do not say that landlords and tenants have not common interests in good and equal laws; but as landlords and tenants their interests are antagonistic, for the interest of one is to rent the land as cheap as he can, and the interest of the other to let it as dear as he can."

Mr. Parnell foresaw very clearly the weakness of the rent provisions of the Land Law. He said: "The tenant is not afforded the simple means of knowing what is his except by tedious and expensive litigation, every step in which may be contested by the rich, powerful, and educated landlord class opposed to him. It will be impossible to find an unprejudiced tribunal; the educated classes, from whom the sub-commissioners will be drawn, will be either landlords themselves or their relations, or in some way under their influence, and in favor of the maintenance of the landlord system in its full integrity." Finally, he warned the Government that there was no better way of keeping alive agitation than by supplying half remedies for admitted grievances. The agitation is still as living and forcible as in 1881, and again there is the danger of half remedies. A legislature constituted as the Imperial Parliament is, and occupied with the affairs of an empire, is first ignorant of Irish questions, and, next, too much dominated by the powerful English landlord class to legislate impartially. It sees nothing in the agitation but a struggle between the "haves" and "have-nots," instead of, if I may quote the *Nation* in its own columns, that "the Irish people are striving after the American system, which has filled that country with happy rural homes, the nurseries of liberty which make the republic great and strong."

The Land Law of 1881 has done more morally than economically and materially for the Irish tenant farmers. There are about 600,000 agricultural holdings in Ireland, but as one farmer often has several farms—an acre or two, if let separately, being counted as a holding—there are, including laborers who are also tenants, less than 500,000 occupiers of agricultural land. There are not, however, 400,000 holdings to which the Land Law applies; for leaseholds, farms expressly let for grazing, town parks, and laborers' holdings are excluded. The expenditure by the occupiers of leaseholds, and of land adjoining towns and villages, and often of pasture lands, on permanent improvements, has been quite as large as that of other occupiers, and no real principle was satisfied by their exclusion from the scope of the law, which has therefore been capable of application to only two-thirds of the agricultural holdings in Ireland.

Nearly one-half of the holdings within the act have come under its operation, the number of rents settled by the different methods available being now nearly 200,000 (the former rental of these holdings having been £3,400,000). The reduction made by the operation of the law, of £600,000 or thereabouts, has been somewhat dearly bought. The cost of the Land Commission courts has in five years been over £300,000, an expense borne by English as well as Irish taxpayers; the expenses of the suitors in the land courts have been, at the lowest estimate, considerably over half a million pounds. The loss of time, the distraction from business, the natural tendency to bring the land into bad condition before entering the courts, represent large amounts, of which no exact estimate can be made.

The decisions of the courts, confirmed on appeal, and establishing principles which the Sub-Commission courts are bound to follow, have made the Land Law more useless as a remedy than even its opponents expected. The clause permitting leases, enforced by undue influence, to be annulled, has been inoperative, not because such a provision was unnecessary, but because of the technical interpretation put on its words. The Healy clause, intended to exempt from rent all improvements not made by the landlords, was in fact repealed by the judgment of the Court of Appeal in the case of Adams and Dunseath; a decision which was all the more unsatisfactory because it was against the opinion of the most eminent and most qualified judge in the case, Lord Chancellor Law, and also expressly against the clearly stated intention of Mr. Gladstone. The reduction made in such rents as have been revised is now admitted to have been inadequate; it did not even correspond to the fall in prices, and fell far short of restoring to the tenant his own improvements, on which he had been rented. The change that has come over public opinion during the last six months has been reflected in the recent decisions of the Sub-Commission courts, the percentage of whose reductions of rent has of late enormously increased. The result is a sudden and decided increase in the cases entered for hearing in the rent courts, showing that want of confidence was mainly the cause of tenants not entering before. In 1881 and 1882 the courts were overwhelmed with applications; but experience of the results, and the unexpected expenses attendant on rent suits, made tenants latterly more wary of rushing into court than they were at first. In the way of rent reduction, the Land Law has done nothing which might not otherwise have come about: the Plan of Campaign has effected quite as large a reduction in the rental of Ireland in a few months, and without cost.

From the landlords' standpoint the Land Law has been wholly unsatisfactory. The reduction in their rentals has not been compensated by a cessation of agitation; the tenure under the Land Law is too uncertain to induce tenants to improve more than they did before its existence, and to secure thereby the rent to the landlords; its effect is rather to encourage farmers to bring their land to its worst condition before entering the land court; and undoubtedly the Land Law has made landlords' estates quite unsalable. The Irish landlord has ceased to be an owner of land; he is now the owner of an uncertain and variable rent charge, accompanied by a liability to innumerable lawsuits. The saving clauses introduced into the law, in his supposed interest, have helped to make his property unmarketable. No one would buy an estate where the tenants were leaseholders. Their exclusion from the Land Law was admittedly unreasonable and unlikely to endure. For the same reason, the law having failed to fully protect and exempt from rent tenants' improvements, an element of uncertainty which was quite independent of economic conditions existed there also. The only person, then, to buy the landlord's estate is the tenant of each individual holding; and there competition does not come into play in fixing the price, but only considerations of what it is worth while to pay in commutation of the rent and the tenant's chances of still further reducing it. The conditions of the law, and the circumstances of most estates, are such that they cannot be sold in separate parcels; all must be sold together, or no part can be sold. The only influence compelling the tenants to buy at high prices is where the landlord has been able to offer the choice of eviction or purchase.

Landlords thus have good reason to complain of the effect of the Land Law; and their position is deserving of sympathy and pity. Many of them are not personally responsible for the condition of their estates, or for past injustice toward their tenantry; they have inherited difficulties, liabilities, debts, and misfortunes from which they cannot escape. Many a landlord would gladly sell his whole estate at a price which the tenants would willingly give, but he is trammelled at every point by the meshes of the law. Settlements, encumbrances, charges, and all the complications of real-property law prevent him from acting on his own responsibility or with vigor. He can take no step without incurring heavy legal costs; and delay may, and often does, mean ruin. It is surprising, after their experience of the disregard of their interests in English legislation, and looking at the general tone of the English democracy towards them, the Irish landlords do not attempt—as they might time after time have done—to make terms with the Irish Nationalist party, and to trust their own countrymen rather than to the chances of party politics in England.

The landlords who reside, and intend to continue residents, in Ireland are, however, as a body, enfeebled by the fact that so many landowners are absentees, without any interest in the country, and only anxious to realize what they can from their estates, and to sever the only tie they had with it, viz., that of rent receivers.

A LAND VALUER.

THE PRINCESSE DE LIGNE.

PARIS, February 10, 1887.

I DO not much like the title of a new book by M. Lucien Perey (the same who has usually col-

laborated with M. Gaston Maugras): 'Histoire d'une grande dame au xviii siècle.' It would have been enough to say 'La Princesse Hélène de Ligne.' There is some vulgarity in this "grande dame." It reminded me of a play which was once very famous, the "Tour de Nesle." The hero, a student named Buridan, describes some ladies whom he has seen, and says: "They have velvet dresses, oh! they are great ladies (*ce sont de grandes dames*); they have small pages, they are great ladies"; and, finally: "elles ont de mauvaises mœurs, ce sont de grandes dames." This was in the time of the Romantics; the "grande dame" of the "Tour de Nesle" was a Duchess of Burgundy, who threw her lovers from the windows of the Tower into the Seine.

M. Lucien Perey has chosen a heroine in a more civilized period; he has found the memoirs of the Princess Hélène de Ligne, begun when she was nine years old, and continued till she was married. These memoirs, the notes of a girl, were quite unknown; they are those of a clever child, at the time when she was getting her education at the convent of the Abbaye-aux-Bois. Who was this girl? One morning, in the year 1771, a carriage brought to the abbey three persons, the famous Mme. Geoffrin, the mother of the philosophers, as she was called, the Polish Prince Masalski, Bishop of Wilna, and his niece, Hélène, aged eight years. The Prince was in exile; it is needless here to say why he had fallen into disgrace. He had made Mme. Geoffrin's acquaintance during her journey in Poland, he knew she had a great influence over the King of Poland, and by her means he hoped to obtain an end to his exile. Mme. Geoffrin was not sorry to take a bishop under her protection, and she wrote immediately to King Stanislas August Poniatowski (her correspondence with the King has been published by M. Charles de Moüy).

What was she to do with his young niece? There were at the time only two fashionable convents, Penthemont (the chapel of which has become in our day a Protestant chapel) and the Abbaye-aux-Bois. Saint-Cyr was out of fashion: the pupils of this great establishment founded by Mme. de Maintenon were all poor daughters of noblemen. At the Abbaye-aux-Bois, all the ladies who directed the administration, and who conducted the education of the girls, belonged to the highest nobility. Music, dancing, painting, were taught with much care. The Abbey had a theatre with costumes and fine decorations. The young Princess was dressed in the uniform of the convent, entering the *blue* class, composed of children from seven to ten years old. The programme of her new life, written in her own handwriting, is this:

"On Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays: rise at seven in summer, in winter at half-past seven. To be at eight in the class, waiting for Mme. de Rochechouart, who enters at eight precisely. To learn, when she is gone, the 'Catechism of Montpellier' [this was a Jansenist catechism, as the ladies of the Abbey were openly attached to the Jansenist ideas]. At nine, breakfast; at half-past nine, mass. At ten, read till eleven. From eleven to half-past eleven, music lesson. From half-past eleven to twelve, drawing. From twelve to one, a lesson in geography and in history. At one, dinner and recreation till three. At three, lesson in writing and arithmetic till four. At four, dancing lesson till five; *goûter* and recreation till six. From six to seven, harp or piano. At seven, supper. At half-past nine, to bed."

The memoirs give us also a picture of the ladies who conducted the blue class: "Mme. de Montluc, called La Mère Quatre-Temps, mild, careful, too particular, and meddlesome. Mme. de Montbourcher, called Sainte-Macaire, good, silly, very plain, a believer in ghosts. Mme. de Fresnes, called Sainte-Bathild, ugly, good, telling many stories." Conventual life produces everywhere the same effects: things infinitesimal assume immense proportions, the instincts of human nature seem to take a new force, as you see plants develop more rapidly in a hot-house. Lafontaine said long ago, speaking of children: "Cet âge est sans pitié." The girls of the Abbey, though they belonged to the best families, were not an exception to this rule; they were often cruel in their plays, they delighted in tormenting their ladies and in tormenting each other.

The young Princess fell ill, and it was judged that she was too delicate for the ordinary course of education. It was agreed with her uncle that she should have an apartment of her own, with a *bonne* and a *mie*. A *mie* (an abbreviation of *amie*) is a little more than a maid, a sort of companion. A *bonne* is the word used for the maid of a small child. The Princess received four louis (eighty francs) every month for her small expenses. She had a banker and a large credit. The amusements of the recreation were very peculiar. The most popular was hunting. The red class (the older girls) chose the huntsmen, the *valets de chiens*, and elected among themselves a stag; the blue class furnished the dogs. The two classes entered into this amusement with much spirit, the girls imitating in their convent all they had heard of in their families. The amusements of the *pensionnaires* were often of the nature of practical jokes.

"Mademoiselle de Choiseul's room," says the author of the memoirs, "opened on mine. She got up at night and came to my bed; we put on our *robes de chambre;* we opened softly my door, and we ran through the house all night, amusing ourselves by blowing out the lamps, knocking at the doors, chatting with the novices, and eating with them sweetmeats, pies, and bonbons, which we bought secretly. One day we took a bottle of ink and threw it in the holy water, which is at the door of the choir; as the ladies said matins at two o'clock after midnight, and knew them by heart, there was no other light than a single lamp. They all took holy water, and did not see how they looked. But daylight came, at the end of the matins; so that, seeing each other so strangely spotted, they began to laugh so that the office was interrupted."

Another day we see her, with her friend, tying their handkerchiefs to the cords of the bells, so as to hinder the bells from ringing. Altogether the young Pole was extremely lively and unruly. She was intelligent also, and her style shows it. She tells very characteristic stories of her comrades: "At the time when Mademoiselle de Montmorency was only nine years old, Madame de Richelieu was abbess, and once became so angry with Mademoiselle de Montmorency that she told her, 'When I see you in such a state, I could kill you.' Mademoiselle de Montmorency replied, 'It would not be the first time that the Richelieus had been the executioners of the Montmorencys.'" This child, if she was not familiar with the history of France, knew well the history of her own family.

Sometimes a girl left the convent in order to be married. It was, of course, a great event. Mlle. de Bourbonne once came back from a visit to her family. She was very sad, and announced her marriage with the Count d'Avaux:

"The next day Mademoiselle de Bourbonne received a great bouquet, and in the afternoon M. d'Avaux came. We all found him, as he really was, abominable. When Mademoiselle de Bourbonne left the *parloir*, everybody said to her, 'Ah, my dear, how ugly your husband is! If I were you, I would not marry him. Oh, the unfortunate creature!' And she said, 'Ah, I will marry him, for papa wishes it; but I will never love him—that is a sure thing.' It was decided that she should see him no more till the day when she was to take her first Communion, so as not to be distracted. She took her first Communion at the end of eight days, and five days afterwards she was married in the chapel of the Hôtel d'Havré. She came back the same day to the convent; she received jewels, diamonds, and a magnificent *corbeille*. What most amused her was to be called by us all Madame d'Avaux. She told us that after the marriage ceremony there was a breakfast at her mother-in-law's; that her husband wanted to give her a kiss; that she cried and never would let him. Her mother-in-law told her she was a child. This great hatred went on increasing, and one day, when her husband asked for her at the *parloir*, she made believe that she had sprained her foot, so as not to go."

Many marriages were made in this fashion, and it is not much to be wondered at if they ended in some irregular *liaison*, as in the case of Mme. d'Avaux, who attached herself for life a few years afterwards to the Vicomte de Ségur, a younger brother of the Ambassador.

The custom of the Abbaye-aux-Bois was to confide to the girls the service of the *obédiences*. The *obédience* is the particular employment which in religious houses is attributed to each nun. There were eight of them: the *abbatiale*, the *sacristie*, the *parloir* (or drawing-room, where visits were received), the *apothicairerie* (the drug room), the linen room, the library, the dining-room, the kitchen, the *communauté*. Young Princess Hélène, after having played *Esther* in a gown covered with diamonds and pearls, put on a little black gown and prepared a *tisane* or cataplasms. The *abbatiale* was the service of the abbess; Mlle. de Choiseul did her errands, took care of her work, of her books. Other girls, bearing the greatest names in France, could be seen counting the linen and putting it in great piles, others took care of the priestly garments and mended them; some even had to look to the sweeping of the *dortoirs*. Altogether this was not a bad feature in the education of the Abbaye-aux-Bois; it acted somewhat as a corrective, and prepared the girls for the duties of a housekeeper.

The most intimate friend of our young Polish Princess was Mlle. de Choiseul, the niece of the famous minister. One fine day Mlle. de Choiseu was informed that she was going to marry her cousin, Choiseul-la-Baume; she was fourteen and he was seventeen. She fortunately knew him a little and liked him. It was a great affair in the convent. "Mlle. de Choiseul, whom I shal now call madame, came back from Chanteloup the seat of the Duc de Choiseul]. She told me of all the feasts which had been given to her, but said that her mother-in-law had scolded her every day." The Princess was very much attached also to one of the ladies, Mme. de Rochechouart. Her Memoirs end with the account of the death of this charming person. The remainder of the volume has been written with the help of the young Princess's correspondence and some notes, and of documents taken from many books. Her beauty was very great, and her reputation had extended beyond the walls of the convent. Two pretenders offered themselves, the Duc d'Elbeuf, Prince of Vaudemont (of the house of Lorraine), and the Comte de Lorraine. These were not accepted, and a third pretender came forward, the Prince Charles de Ligne. The house of Ligne is one of the most illustrious in the Low-Countries. Prince Charles, the father, was a great favorite at Versailles and Vienna, as well as at Brussels; he had great personal qualities, he was a good soldier, and a man of *esprit*. He was charmed with the Princess Hélène, more so than she was herself with his son. When she saw her future husband for the first time she told her friends: "He is blond, tall, he looks like his mother, who is very handsome, he has a *grand air*, but he is too serious and has something too German in him." The marriage took place in the chapel of the Abbey. The Bishop of Wilna gave his niece a trousseau of 300,000 francs; the presents were magnificent. Hélène gave a jewel to each of her companions. The contract was signed before the King and Queen at Versailles July 25, 1779. The day of the marriage (the 29th) Hélène was much admired for her "attitude pleine de sensibilité" ("sensibility" was the fashion). She went to her apartment, changed her

gown, and went alone to the chapel, where she said a last prayer on the tomb of Mme. de Rochechouart, who had been a real mother to her. At the door of the Abbey a carriage with six post-horses was waiting for her; the postillions wore the pink and silver livery of the Lignes; she bade good-bye to all the companions of her childhood, and the carriage started rapidly for Belœil, the famous summer residence of the Prince of Ligne in Belgium.

Correspondence.

BISHOP COXE'S ENGLISH PHILOLOGY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I shall now, I hope, be able to have done with the paper by Bishop Coxe to which I have already devoted two letters. His English, which is by no means exemplary, I leave uncriticised.

The Bishop expatiates on the misuse of the verb *to demean*, but gratuitously; his avowed subject being "Americanisms in England." And here again, as usual, he lays himself open to correction. Respecting *to demean*, in the sense of 'to debase,' besides saying that Webster quotes Thackeray for it, he gives, as from Webster, a passage in evidence that he "too readily licenses the vulgarism," and so on. In all this he confounds Webster's editors with Webster himself, who adduces no quotation under the word, neither approves nor disapproves it, and unaccountably describes it as "not used." Nor is he aware of the fact that Webster, who, he remarks, "mistakes the force of the word," as used on a single occasion by Shakspere, simply therein follows suit to Dr. Johnson. The validity of Johnson's view is questioned by his first editor, Archdeacon Todd, but is accepted by his second editor, Dr. Latham. The point is one for the conclusive decision of which it would be necessary for the poet to expound himself from beyond the Styx. Todd, in demurring to Johnson's position, as "dubious," and Bishop Coxe, in being absolutely positive—as I once was, myself—that it is untenable, may, or may not, be in the right. Todd shows, at all events, that Shakspere's contemporary, Dr. Geo. Abbot, who died Archbishop of Canterbury, undoubtedly connected *to demean* with *mean*, in 1601; and Dean Swift, as cited by Richardson, likewise did so. On looking over my notes I find that the objectionable use of *to demean* has been patronized by the Rev. Myles Davies, Dr. Doddridge, Samuel Richardson, Robert Lloyd, Goldsmith, Henry Brooke, Horace Walpole, Hazlitt, the first Lord Lytton, and the *Saturday Review*. The verb *to bemean*, 'to debase,' unknown to the dictionaries, is spoken of in my 'Recent Exemplifications,' etc., pp. 105, 106. Ventured, by Mr. Justice Rokeby, in 1688, it has since then often been printed.

Replying to the comment on the use of *to demean* in the sense of 'to debase,' that "it is not unusual," Bishop Coxe delivers himself in this wise: "What if it be 'not unusual,' so long as it is improper? It is not unusual for Americans, and Englishmen, also, to say *talented, lengthy, being built*, etc. But is nobody to stand up for the purity of our noble language because so many tendencies are at work for its rapid defilement and deterioration?" In dealing with the expressions thus frowned upon, and one other, I shall bring my special strictures to a close. As I have fully discussed all of them but *riled* in my 'Modern English,' which has been before the public for thirteen years and upwards, prolixity will, however, be unnecessary.

Talent having come to signify much the same as *talents*, there was no more irregularity in coining *talented* than there was in coining *leisured* or *moneyed*, which no one finds fault with. Not only so, but it might normally have been based on *talents*, if we had never had *talent* except so qualified as to indicate that a particular form of ability was intended by it; in which case it would have had companions in *booted* and *spurred, featured, slippered, spectacled*, etc., etc. So far as has been discovered, it was first used, though not exactly as we use it, by Archbishop Abbot—"an excellent writer," as Archdeacon Todd justly terms him—who died in 1633. Exceedingly few Englishmen, nice as they may be in their choice of diction, now scruple to employ the word.

With his habitual inexactness, Bishop Coxe arraigns the expression *being built*, without specifying the sort of context in which he takes it to be inadmissible. "*Being built* of stone, the house will last," or "the house's *being built* at once is insisted on," he would not condemn, though one might infer, from his neglecting to distinguish, that he would. Idioms like "the house *is being built*," as I pointed out ten years ago, were used in 1769 by Mrs. James Harris, and in 1779 by her learned husband, the author of 'Hermes.' When we had only, for example, "he *notices*" and "he *is noticing*," our language already excelled in one specialty of discrimination all other languages of Christendom that I know of; and we have improved on our old-fashioned phraseology by introducing the strictly analogical counterpart of "he *is noticing*," namely, "he *is being noticed*." The grammatical parallelism here contended for having been made out, beyond all dispute, elsewhere, I shall not here repeat myself. Suffice it to add that the modern rhematic development under consideration enjoys the practical sanction of, it is believed, nearly every living English author who is at all noteworthy.

For the characterization of the verb *to rile* or *to roil*, as a "local Americanism and provincial English," Bishop Coxe professes to copy literally from Webster, though neither Webster nor his editors so express themselves. It is worth mentioning, by the by, that Webster's participle *roiling*, with his appended estimate, that "This word is as legitimate as any in the language," is boldly omitted by those editors. *To rile* having originated here in England, why should any one fancy that the frequent use of it in our day by Englishmen is owing to a return of it from the United States? Anywhere in East Anglia this word, of yore no localism, may be heard every day; and what should have prevented its coming to be generally intelligible, like *fad* and *to shunt*, other provincial vocables which have, within not many years, become nationalized? The Bishop, quoting Forby from recollection, credits him with saying that it "is now seldom heard in England"; but Forby says nothing of the kind. He will have it, too, that the word is confined, in America, to "very illiterate people"; and he declares that he never heard it "among persons supposed to be educated." Either his memory must be strangely treacherous, or he can have mixed but little with his countrymen. The word, though not suitable for the pulpit, or for grave discourse, is a respectable enough colloquialism of the jocose order, wherever our language is spoken. As to the adjective *rile*, alike in Suffolk and in New England it bears the three senses of 'irascible,' 'vexed,' and 'turbid.' In some parts of Lincolnshire it signifies 'fuddled.'

I now come to *lengthy*, Bishop Coxe's bare mention of which stands alone in justifying the title of his essay. From *health, stealth, wealth*, and *worth*, which are, or were, both abstract and concrete, we have made adjectives. Why, then, should not we have made one from *length*, as well? The old *longsome*—which Richardson anachronistically speaks of as "our word"—was always depreciatory. So, almost always, is *lengthy*, which, as being much needed, has, and no wonder, firmly established itself, and is now avoided by no Englishman whose judgment has the slightest claim to deference. Yet Dr. Latham does not so much as recognize its existence. If all words of American parentage were evolutions equally legitimate, our verbal mintages would deserve no stigma. Webster's editors would trace it to England, quoting for it a passage which they attribute to Gibbon, the historian, and date in 1763. The passage is found in an anonymous translation, first published in 1837, from Gibbon's French. Though I stated this fact in 1873, those editors still persist in their error.

If the tironic and misleading prolusion which I must now take leave of had not emanated from a person who is presumed to weigh his utterances, and whose utterances will be received by many as authoritative, it would have been sheer waste of time and toil to expose its worthlessness. On essays of the same uncritical stamp good paper and ink are squandered, every month, by superficial speculators whose attitude, in approaching English philology, ought to be discipulary rather than magisterial. Abundance of reprehensible English deforms our current speech; but such speculators constantly direct their animadversions against illaudable locutions and laudable, indifferently. Where they all chiefly err is in repudiating the adjudications of usage, appeal from which, as common sense and the experience of the past should teach them, is of no use whatever. An expression offends them, and they imagine that they determine it to be censurable by asking, as Bishop Coxe asks, "What if it be 'not unusual,' so long as it is improper?" By a question to this effect there is implied the adoption of some standard or other of correctness, which, however, they evade formulating. Yet there is no difficulty in formulating it for them. Their own personal disapproval is, in most instances, the sum and substance of their arguments adverse to what they brand as to be rejected. They bring themselves to prefer what is old, because it is old, and to turn from what is new, because it is new. And hence their causeless wail, with the Bishop, in lamenting the danger of "the rapid defilement and deterioration" of our language. Of the assumption that it runs any risk of worsening, not a shadow of proof is producible. With respect to expanding our vocabulary, the spirit of the seventeenth century has revived in the nineteenth century. Verbal and significational novelties, good and bad, are daily propounded; and, just as has befallen their forerunners, it will fare with them, rigidly after their deserts. In conclusion, it would be idle to deny that, in proportion to slovenly practitioners of literature, there are more writers of careful English at present than ever were contemporary before. If English, in their handling, and as modified by the requirements of the age, is not as it once was, how could this result be helped, and what is the harm? Theologians, here and there, and the theologically minded, would have our language to be a curious branch of divine science, in which whatever emerged prior to a certain date accords with orthodoxy, whereas everything more recent in it is tainted with heterodoxy. The world has always ruled otherwise, and it will do so to the end.—Your obedient servant, F. Hall.

Marlesford, Eng., February 4, 1887.

THE DERIVATION OF "SAUNTER."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Gilman's letter on the derivation of "saunter" moves me to inquire if those learned in such matters have weighed the possibility of its introduction from Spain. The dual significa-

*See p. 530.

tion of "santéro," *i. e.*, "one who collects alms for a holy man or hermit," and "a hypocrite," together with the lazy life led by like hangers-on of the Church, may serve to render such a supposition plausible—at least on the surface.

THEODORE BAKER.

LEIPZIG, GERMANY, February 9, 1887.

OLD CLOTHES FOR THE FREE LIST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Allow me to suggest a way of reducing the revenue, which appears to be growing too fast for our wants: Remove the duty on old clothes.

I have just had to pay, in Boston, $22 duty on a small trunk of old bonnets, dresses, and underclothing sent home from here. The articles were bought in America, and were worn there and here, and there was nothing new in the trunk. A consular certificate, costing $2, testified that my statement regarding the articles could be believed. But somebody had to be *protected*, and my protests were unheeded. P.

PAU, February 11, 1887.

A MUTUAL EXPLANATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am sure you will allow me to publish in your columns a partial defence of some of the errors you kindly pointed out in my translation of 'Eminent Authors of the Nineteenth Century,' by Dr. Georg Brandes, recently published by T. Y. Crowell & Co., Boston. Many of the slips may be accounted for by the distance between the publisher and the proof-reader. The proofs were all sent to me to be read. I kept them longer than would otherwise have been necessary because I wanted the author, Dr. Brandes, to look them over, but he was absent on his summer vacation. Thus it happened that the publishers, in order not to lose the fall trade, issued the first edition *before* the proof-sheets were returned to them. The second edition was published about the middle of December, if I am correctly informed, and in this I think you will find the most of the slips and errors of which you complain, removed. At all events, the proofs of the second edition (issued as stated before your valuable review appeared) were read both by the author, Dr. Brandes, and by me. I have not seen a copy of this second edition, but I flatter myself that you will find it tolerably free from errors.

Hoping you will kindly publish this explanation, and thanking you for the impartiality and thoroughness which invariably characterize your book reviews, I am, dear sir, yours faithfully,

R. B. ANDERSON.

P.S.—You speak of my "long residence" in America as if I were a foreigner. Allow me to add that I was born in Wisconsin, and that I claim to be a full-fledged American, eligible to any office for which you may see fit to recommend me.

LEGATION OF THE UNITED STATES, COPENHAGEN, February 14, 1887.

[We had occasion to regret this error of ours as soon as it was irrevocable.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

MACMILLAN & CO. expect to receive immediately from England Part 3 of that great Anglo-Saxon undertaking, the 'New English Dictionary,' edited by Dr. James A. H. Murray for the Philological Society, and printed at the Clarendon Press. This part concludes the letter B, and marks a sensible advance in the labor of publication, which, we are now informed, will proceed at a faster rate than hitherto. Part 3, we are told, "deals, in all, with 8,765 words, and the articles which it contains will be found to be replete with interest and instruction to every reader. It is a characteristic of the letter B (shared only by some letters of less compass toward the end of the alphabet), that a very small proportion of the words beginning with it are derived from or through Latin, the great majority being Teutonic, either of the native Old English stock, or of the accessions which this received from the kindred speech of the Norsemen. Hence the present part deals with many of the oldest and most interesting words of the language, which are also among its most important living elements in every-day use. . . . In the Etymology, much more original work has had to be done than in the two preceding parts. The B-words are full of puzzles, which have baffled the efforts of all etymologists: every one of these has received a fresh and independent investigation, in which the editor has had the coöperation of the most eminent philologists of Europe, and the result has been the discovery of new facts or the elimination of old errors in the history of hundreds of words." We need hardly remind our readers that this work ought to be not only in "every gentleman's library," but in every intelligent household.

Macmillan & Co. will be the English publishers of Prof. Mendenhall's 'A Century of Electricity,' and, in order to secure simultaneous publication, its issue here by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will be postponed.

Harper & Bros. have nearly ready, bound in book form, Mr. H. Rider Haggard's 'Jess'; also, 'Haifa, or Life in Modern Palestine,' by Laurence Oliphant; 'From the Forecastle to the Cabin,' by Capt. Samuel Samuels of the yacht *Dauntless;* and 'Microscopy for Beginners,' by Dr. Alfred C. Stokes of Trenton, New Jersey.

A. C. Armstrong & Son will publish during March 'Modern Methods of Illustrating Books,' by H. J. Wood; 'The Dedication of Books to Patron and Friend,' by Henry B. Wheatley; 'A History of the Old English Letter Foundries'; 'The Life and Poems of Mme. La Guyon,' edited by the Rev. A. Saunder Dyer; 'Representative English Prose and Prose Writers,' by T. W. Hunt; and 'The City of Youth,' by J. Thain Davidson.

S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago, have in press 'Masters of the Situation; or, Some Secrets of Success and Power,' by W. J. Tilley; 'Poetry and Philosophy of Goethe,' by Marion V. Dudley; and 'Theophilus Trent; or, Old Times in the Oak Openings,' by Dr. B. F. Taylor.

Ginn & Co. have nearly ready Lotze's 'Outlines of Logic,' translated by Prof. Geo. T. Ladd of Yale.

Cassell & Co. project a limited *édition de luxe* of Messrs. Matthews and Hutton's 'Actors and Actresses of Great Britain,' in five volumes, large paper. They have also in press 'Yachts and Yachting,' by Capt. R. F. Coffin, illustrated by Fred. S. Cozzens.

The New York Shakspere Society will shortly complete with Part 2 its 'Digesta Shakespeareana,' or topical index to the entire body of Shakspere literature to January 1, 1887. Hereafter the Society will regularly issue a Year-book which will continue the index for the twelvemonth.

The twentieth annual issue of 'Poor's Manual of the Railroads of the United States' will be ready about July 1.

The 'Life of Abraham Lincoln,' by Francis F. Browne (New York and St. Louis: N. D. Thompson Publishing Co., 1886), which has just been issued, is remarkable for the very liberal use made of the scissors in its compilation. It is meant to be a popular book, and is bulky; but the greater part of its seven hundred and more pages consists of extracts from previous works on Lincoln, supplemented by the most meagre and perfunctory of biographical narratives, a number of quotations from Lincoln's speeches, and illustrations of an inferior and sometimes painfully sensational nature. It is, in fact, a selection of the most striking anecdotes and scenes of Lincoln's life, arranged chronologically, and taken, wherever they might be found, from books old and new. It contributes practically nothing to the subject. The examination of the sources, however, has been thorough, and the information given is very full. It is necessarily a strictly personal life, and the hard and grim lines of Lincoln's career are very strongly brought out.

Matthew Arnold's "Estimate" of Gen. Grant has been reprinted from *Murray's Magazine* by Cupples, Upham & Co., Boston.

Mr. William J. Rolfe has edited, in his usual careful and thorough manner, Scott's 'Lay of the Last Minstrel' (Boston: Ticknor & Co.). Scott's two introductions are quoted entire. In that of 1830, his obligations to Coleridge's "Christabel" for a hint as to metres are acknowledged. There was a chance here for Mr. Rolfe to annotate by citing Coleridge's dictum (in his 'Table-Talk'): "Not twenty lines of Scott's poetry will ever reach posterity: it has relation to nothing."

Mr. E. H. Hall, instructor in physics in Harvard College, is the author of a pamphlet of 37 pages on the 'Elementary Ideas, Definitions, and Laws in Dynamics' (Cambridge: Charles W. Sever). So much of mathematics and physics as is taught in any high school or academy which prepares boys for college is all that is necessary to the perusal of the little book. It will, however, be most interesting to those who have something of a metaphysical cast of mind, and are fond of reflecting upon or discussing those elementary ideas which lie at the foundation of our knowledge of the outward world. The ideas of motion, velocity, weight, inertia, force, energy, etc., are discussed and illustrated. One of the principal uses of books of this kind is "to set the reader thinking." He may not have the difficulties which present themselves to his mind satisfactorily disposed of, but it is a long step in advance to see clearly what they really are.

From Macmillan & Co. we have a treatise on the Differential Calculus, by Joseph Edwards, formerly Fellow of Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge. Though the author styles it an elementary treatise, it covers a great deal of ground, and is particularly full in its geometrical illustrations. The book does not seem to us well adapted to self-instruction, and will probably prove most interesting and profitable to those who have already some acquaintance with the science of which it treats. The copious selections of examples, many of which are new, and still more taken from college and university examination papers, and from papers in the India and home civil-service examinations and from the examinations at Woolwich, form, perhaps, the most attractive feature of the work.

The complete works of I. S. Aksakoff, the noted Slavophile publicist, conservative, and editor of *Russia*, comprising articles contributed to various publications between 1860 and 1886, are now appearing in quick succession. Volume ii, on Slavophilism and Occidentalism, and Volume iii, on the Polish Question, have recently been published. The series is extremely interesting and important for the proper understanding of Russian public opinion during the transition epoch which it covers. The tendency of these volumes is in Mr. Aksakoff's usual vein, but they contain much with which people of other views can agree.

A thoughtful address by Mellen Chamberlain,

Librarian of the Boston Public Library, delivered at Brattleboro', Vt., on January 25, has been printed in pamphlet form. The occasion was the dedication of a free-library building, and the speaker contrasted the old life and social and political (aristocratic) forces of New England towns with their present comparatively disorganized and headless condition. "Henceforth persons will be of less account, and institutions of more account," and among the latter the public library will have a leading place. Speaking of the unliterary habit of the New England founders and of their successors for several generations, Judge Chamberlain repeated some curious statistics, of his gathering, concerning the advent of Shakspere and Milton to America —not till 1700 in Massachusetts, and Shakspere not reprinted in New England till 1802-1804. "The earliest quotation from Shakspere found in the series of Massachusetts Election Sermons is by Zabdiel Adams in 1782, and that is a misquotation."

Nos. 23, 24 of the Bibliographical Contributions of the Library of Harvard University consist of a list of the publications of the University and its officers, and of the chief publications on the University, by Wm. H. Tillinghast; and an Index to Reference Lists, by Wm. C. Lane.

In regard to the question of lending books from the Bodleian Library, a writer in the *Spectator* refers to the fact that the large Continental libraries constantly do this, but send the books or manuscripts to some library, to be used there only. This he believes to be the present rule of the Bodleian, in which case the chief risk run is that of the journey. In defence of the practice, he asserts that, but for such facilities to scholars, it would have been impossible to carry on the work of the Wyclif Society.

"The Unpublished Records of the City of London" is the title of a paper read on February 4 before the Royal Institution by Mr. Edwin Freshfield. He first called attention to the "Roll of the Hustings Court," containing every will relating to property requiring registry in London from 1250 to comparatively modern times, with information so clear and minute that a topographical map of the city at a certain date could be made "with the names of the owners of the houses and almost of the dwellers." In the records of the 130 parishes of London (mostly dating from the beginning of the reign of Elizabeth, though a few are older), he asserted, there were the materials for an unrivalled social history. They contained not only a history of the Poor Laws, of taxation, of sanitary and other regulations—a history of the governed, in fact—but it was also possible to determine from them where the people lived, the kind of houses they lived in, and their occupations, and very often, from casual references, to get an insight into their characters. He dwelt particularly on the light which is shed by them on the part played by the citizens in the civil war, the reasons why they declared for Parliament and afterwards for the Church and Restoration, and especially upon the extraordinarily personal rule of Cromwell. These things are made as plain, he said, "as if you could converse with the people who had written the minutes."

The February number of the Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society opens with a paper on New Guinea by the Rev. J. Chalmers, for ten years a missionary to that island. The most interesting part is the description of a village of cannibals on the southeast coast. "Large and well built houses, with great figures in front painted on native cloth," stood on piles in a swamp covered at every high tide. In it was a temple consisting of an enclosure with a roof supported at one end by posts eighty feet high, and approached by an aisle nearly 200 feet in length. This was hung on either side "with what looked like splendid silk curtains . . . made from the young frond of the sago palm, split up when quite new. The flooring of the aisle, two feet broad, appeared to be a dark, stained, highly polished wood and carved with figures of men, crocodiles, and cassowaries; this was made from the skin of the sago palm, and received its high polish from the blood of victims dragged along to the end where the most sacred place was, and the constant tread of numerous feet." The skulls of the victims, inland natives, were hung about this enclosure. With much difficulty he obtained permission to enter the sanctuary, and found in it "six wicker-made gods with the mouth of a frog, enormously large and open, the body of a dugong measuring about nine feet in length and seven feet high." Dr. Edmund Naumann, for some years at the head of the Geological Survey of Japan, gives, in addition to a description of the physical features of that country, many entertaining sketches of the scenery and people of the mountain regions. In the north he says that the snow accumulates in enormous masses. "There are villages which frequently experience a fall of over twenty feet of snow." Naturally, during winter, nearly all out-door life ceases. In one village which he visited "the inhabitants, after their breakfast, go to the baths, which are fed by hot springs, and remain in them for the whole of the day, enjoying the heat."

The *Revue Scientifique* for February 5 contains an article by M. G. Marcel on the German colonies in Africa. He begins by quoting the saying of Bismarck that he "would not shed the blood of a single Pomeranian soldier for a colony," but does not attempt to show what has caused the great change in the Prince's policy. After dwelling upon the systematic way the Germans have proceeded in their colonizing schemes, by committees, societies, and publications, as well as by scientifically-conducted explorations, he briefly reviews the history of each colony, giving some trade statistics. The most important article, constituting two-thirds of the total exports to the west coast, is spirits, principally rum, so adulterated as to have a frightful effect upon the health of the negroes. On the east coast he shows that Germany has acquired a strip of territory stretching over twenty-one degrees of latitude and reaching inland to the great lakes. This gives it the control of all the great trade-routes from this coast to the richest part of Central Africa. The article closes with congratulations to France on the possession of Madagascar, and advocates a more energetic policy in regard to strengthening her hold upon the island.

The new boundary of Brazil and Venezuela is mapped in No. 127 of the *Journal* of the Berlin Geographical Society. From Cucuhy, on the Rio Negro, the line follows a low line of hills westward to the headwaters of the Rio Memachi, and eastward the bolder and bolder serras to beyond the right branch of the Rio Branco. A plan of the ruins of Arsinoë (Krokodilopolis), by the explorer Schweinfurth, also accompanies this number.

The January number of the *Annales de l'École Libre des Sciences Politiques* (the first of the second year) contains five articles. The first, by Léon Aucoc, is entitled "De la limitation du rivage de la mer et de l'embouchure des fleuves et rivières." The second article, by André Lebon, "La Constitution allemande et l'hégémonie prussienne," gives a lucid and instructive sketch of the Constitution of the German Empire, especially the device by which the independent representation of each State is reconciled with the complete hegemony of Prussia. The third article, "Les vallées françaises de Piémont," by H. Gaidoz, is also of historical interest, treating of those French valleys and mountain regions (of which that of Aosta is the chief) which are under the Italian flag, and are survivals of the time when the little kingdom of Sardinia (then including Nice and Savoy) was almost equally French and Italian. The author, in his conclusion, takes occasion to protest against the excessive assertion of the doctrine of nationality—these fragments of *Francia irredenta* may balance what remains of *Italia irredenta*. Another historical article is "Les Congrégations Religieuses," by Émile Morlot. This gives a sketch of the history of these bodies from the time of the Revolution, ending with a recommendation that some limit should be placed upon their power of acquiring property in land, and that foreign associations of this character should be subjected to special conditions of authorization. The last article, by Paul Fuzier, treats of "La réorganization de l'impôt sur les terres en Italie" (the law of March 1, 1886).

The January number of the *English Historical Review* is a very interesting one. The first article, upon the Empress Theodora, by C. E. Mallet, shows, after a monograph by M. Debidour, that the commonly received notion of this princess, derived exclusively from the scandals of the 'Secret History' of Procopius, is improbable in itself and wholly inconsistent with the other works of Procopius, and with the other historians of the court of Justinian. An article by Miss A. M. F. Robinson, "Queen Elizabeth and the Valois Princes," contains a detailed account of the matrimonial negotiations of Elizabeth with Charles IX., Henry of Anjou, and Francis of Alençon successively. Of these princes, Anjou is described as the same contemptible and loathsome character with which we are familiar; for Charles IX. and for Alençon, "open and frank, valiant and manly," we are made to feel rather pity than disgust. The Queen's selfishness and vacillation are well exhibited, and plausible grounds are given for the assertion that "Queen Elizabeth, in reality, was responsible for the St. Bartholomew massacre." Miss Robinson is one of the best scholars in the history of the sixteenth century, and her article is a real contribution to our knowledge. "Early Explorations of America, Real and Imaginary," by A. R. Ropes, takes Winsor and Bancroft (H. H.) for text. The subjects especially treated are the character of Columbus, who, "though still the hero, is not so much the hero"; the birthplace of Sebastian Cabot (decided to be probably Venice); Vespucci, and Juan de Fuca. Another article, by H. G. Keene, gives an account of the Channel Islands. Among the "Notes and Documents," we have a vindication of the "Squire Papers," by W. Squire, and a defence, by W. S. Lilly, of his book on the Renaissance from a Catholic point of view, against Mr. Symonds's criticisms. Among the reviews we notice especially a caustic criticism of the third volume of Canon Dixon's 'History of the Church of England,' by the Rev. G. G. Perry. He pronounces the work "not sufficiently serious nor candid."

Among his many other duties, Prof. Henry Morley also edits *The Old Neuwieder*, the semi-annual magazine of the Society of Old Neuwieders and of pupils of other Moravian schools, 28 Finsbury Square, London, E. C. Of this pleasing little magazine No. 3 has just come to hand. It contains as introduction to the new year these cheering words of Prof. Morley: "A happy welcome to the New Year and to its work from the Society of Old Neuwieders. May we gather into fellowship this year many more comrades of all ages from the dear old schools. May God's blessing rest on this year's work of the Moravian Brethren, from whose example we learnt something of the meaning of the herald angels' song. May the spirit of their Brotherhood quicken ours, and make our common life as a Society helpful to us as members of it in our single lives;

may it help, also, to maintain peace in us, and good will to all mankind. A happy welcome to the New Year, and its work in Christ towards the fuller brotherhood of man." Mr. Morley's description of the trip to "New Unkraut" (Neuwied on the Rhine), when but a lad of ten years, is full of humor. So is the story of his hunting the right Mynheer Van der Tabak among the seventeen Van der Tabaks at Rotterdam. It need not be added that this is a labor of love, and that gratitude for early impressions made upon Prof. Morley, while a boy at the Moravian school on the Rhine, prompts him to assume the editorship.

An admirable steel portrait of the late Edward L Youmans is prefixed to the March number of the *Popular Science Monthly*. His sister furnishes a sketch of his useful life.

Nos. 1 and 2 of volume ix. of the *American Journal of Mathematics* are before us. When the publication of the *Journal* was commenced the editors announced: "The publication of original investigations is the primary object of the journal"; and further, that foreign mathematicians of eminence would contribute to its pages. These declarations are carried out in a most remarkable manner in the present numbers. Of the 192 pages which they contain, 141 are due to the labors of eminent English mathematicians. On the "Theory of Reciprocants," Prof. Sylvester gives us fourteen new lectures (making so far twenty-four in all). They fill eighty-six pages and are "to be continued." A paper on "Wave Motion in Hydrodynamics," by A. G. Grunhill of Woolwich, England, occupies fifty-one pages, and Capt. MacMahon, R. A., has four pages of "Observations on the Generating Functions of the Theory of Invariants." American mathematicians fill up the remaining fifty-one pages. The profundity and originality of the contents of these two numbers are certainly unsurpassed by those of any mathematical journal in the world; but the ticket of entrance to the panorama of ideas which they exhibit can only be purchased by long years of labor.

L'Art for February 1 (Macmillan) is rich in examples of the pictorial treasures of Chantilly; in a noble etching, by Flameng, of Bonnat's portrait of his fellow-artist, M. Puvis de Chevannes; and in one of Ringel's medallions—the not very strong profile of the explorer Brazza. In the *Courrier de l'Art* for January 21, we read of a recent decipherment of the writing upon a letter held in the hand of Rembrandt's "Dr. Martin van Looten"—a portrait in Dorchester House. "Mon bien cher ami. Ayant trouvé guérison . . . Dieu vous garde." This is signed by Rembrandt's monogram, and the inference is that, at the inscribed date (January 11, 1632), the artist painted this portrait in gratitude for a cure wrought upon him by his sitter, within two years after his settling in Amsterdam.

A recent Assyriological thesis, part of a work on 'The Assyro-Babylonian Teaching concerning the Life after Death,' to be published by Hinrichs, is entitled "Die Höllenfahrt der Istar"—the descent of Istar into Hades—by Alfred Jeremias. This text has been translated several times, but Jeremias's translation is an improvement on those of Talbot, Schrader, and Oppert. The most interesting incident in the poem is the result of the absence of Istar (Aphrodite) from the earth—the cessation of all reproduction—a trace of this portion of the tale being preserved in the Talmud. The form of the poem, as the author well observes, is a *parallellismus membrorum*, the same as we find in Hebrew poetry. Another dissertation, by Carl F. Lehmann, is in Latin, and treats of a more original set of inscriptions, those which relate to Shamash-shum-ukîn, the vicaroy of Babylon and half-brother of Sardanapalus. Lehmann transliterates the Akkadian (or Proto-Babylonian, as he prefers to call it) text and the Semitic translation, besides a text of Sardanapalus bearing on the subject.

—The March *Atlantic* illustrates how easily this magazine leads the rest in literary distinction. Mr. Lowell has a poem of faultless handling; Dr. Holmes gives us the first instalment of his "Hundred Days'" campaign in the London season; and the other contributions, taken together, have the trait of style which shows a modicum, at least, of literary talent in opposition to facility with the pen. Where else would one find without surprise a study of a play of Euripides simply for its own sake? Mr. Lawton has described the "Hippolytos" in just this way; and, by the aid of liberal translations and not too much explanation of ancient usages and beliefs, he has made it quite intelligible and interesting, we should say, to the unclassical reader. He does not bring out the character of *Phœdra* or of *Theseus*, or the temper of the chorus, very clearly—for which, perhaps, more space would be needed; but *Hippolytos*, a very noble and beautiful figure, is perfectly rendered, and the way in which the single study is made to illustrate the genius and human nature of Euripides, is worthy of high praise. The author seems desirous only of adding his mite to the tribute which Euripides is receiving more and more from modern scholars, and of helping to relieve him from the invidious comparisons from which he suffers; to bring back a favorite of Milton is well worth attempting. Mr. Scudder's analysis of Longfellow's art is noticeable because of the clearness with which he brings out two things: one, Longfellow's ambition to leave a great work, of which 'Christus' and 'Michael Angelo' are the evidence; and, secondly, the large proportion of his work, aside from express translations, which is in reality closely dependent on his books for their matter. This is the first critical article on Longfellow which is helpful to a comprehensive judgment of him. Mr. Perkins's paper on Gautier is interesting, but somewhat lax according to our notions. "Paul Patoff" brings up in an English country house instead of Persia, and is some years older.

— *Harper's* begins with one of those solid articles, so bristling with facts and figures, which are really marvels of condensation and directness, and are most often found in this magazine. This time the subject reported upon is the Police Department of this city. The account of the system and its efficiency is very flattering to the corps, and the extent and variety of the service done throw a broad light on the modern government of a city. Next in popular interest, perhaps, is Theodore Child's description of French dueling, of the public opinion that sustains it, the general exercise in fencing, and the more famous duels of late years. Among the latter is Gambetta's, which is immortalized in American humor, but Mr. Child professes to give the true account for the first time, on the authority of Clémenceau, who acted as Gambetta's second. The rencontre, he says, was serious, and the distance not too great, but his defence necessarily provokes a smile. Mr. Child sees no indication of any change in the national pastime, and declares that its bloodlessness is one of its principal charms to the nation which is equally high-spirited and fond of this world. By far the most attractive article of this number is Mr. Charles Gayarré's recollections of life on the Boré plantation, on which he was brought up. It is a picture of early Louisiana life most admirably drawn, and with historical as well as personal interest. The old man, his grandfather, is a character not often to be met with on the printed page. The sketch is only too brief. It is much better to read than any current fiction, being full of a reality that refines and delights. The South is also made the field of a short piece by Mr. Warner, of the nature of a report upon his late trip with the *Harper* party. He confines himself to pointing out that there is no unfriendliness to the North in the suppression of the negro vote, but he looks on it, though with regret, as an exigency of the social situation; and he celebrates the educational and industrial progress in the cities, the general spirit of work everywhere, and seems to sum up his own view by asking whether, when so much more than was to be looked for has been and is still being accomplished, it is worth while to overturn the control.

—A popular discussion of the general nature of earthquakes and their geographical distribution, with special reference to the chances of their occurrence in this country, is contributed by Prof. Shaler to the current *Scribner's*. The subject is dealt with very comprehensively, and the various causes of the jars which are continually taking place in the earth's crust are stated so that one can easily understand the history of an earthquake in imagination; but the writer steers clear of particular applications. He suggests that the brief historic record of the seismic phenomena of this continent may be supplemented negatively by an examination of the distribution of the poised rocks deposited on the retreat of the glaciers, and also of the columnar rocks formed by erosion, or other unstableor fragile masses, on the ground that the regions where these are found may be presumed to have been free from shocks of any violence; and he argues, also, from the undisturbed surfaces of the glacial débris, found just above high-water mark along the Atlantic coast, from New Jersey northward, that no tidal waves have been rolled upon this shore. He points out once more the danger in our cities from the lofty buildings not securely joined to resist vibrations, and extracts some suggestions to architects from Prof. Milne's work. A second interesting scientific article is from the pen of Prof. William James upon the general topic of Instinct, but strictly limited to the phenomena of the subject. He disputes the theory of "derangements of the mental constitution" advanced by Romanes, to account for some variations from the normal, and thinks that such anomalies are to be referred to the transitoriness of certain instincts and to the inhibition of instincts by habits. The examples he cites are apt and his reasoning plain. He does away with the old antithesis of reason and instinct, and holds that the office of reason, in conduct, is not to inhibit any impulses, but to "make an inference which will set loose the impulse the other way." Man is thus distinguished from the brutes by the possession of more impulses, *i. e.*, by a greater range of possible action; but they possess no principle of action which he lacks. This view has a very attractive simplicity and consistency. The Bayeux Tapestry is the subject of full illustration.

—The article entitled "The Late Crisis and the Coming Session," in the last number of the *Edinburgh Review*, contains a strong indication that English governmental methods are approximating to our own. Among other important changes in parliamentary procedure favorably reported by a select committee of the last Parliament were: 1, the division of the House of Commons into four standing committees of 160 members each, and the delegation of every bill, except money bills, to one of these standing committees; and, 2, the establishment of an effective closure. It is evident that the first change brings the rule of Parliament into line with Rule 10 of the House of Representatives. This change is very strongly advocated by Sir Henry Sumner Maine in his 'Popular Government' (pp. 336-

240). The second proposed reform, to cut off debate by a two-thirds instead of a proportionate majority, is only a half-way house on the road to closure by a simple majority. A bill to amend the system of private-bill legislation, prepared by Sir Lyon Playfair, Mr. Raikes, Mr. John Morley, and others, amends that system in exactly the way that our own was amended in 1855 by X. Statutes at Large, 612. The bill proposes to establish a commission, similar to our Court of Claims, to examine and report on private bills. The means of making the procedure of this commission simple and inexpensive are only slightly different from our own. The character of the United States Court of Claims has since been altered by XII. Statutes at Large, 765; but the New York State Board of Claims, established by Laws of 1883, Cap. 285, and amended by Laws of 1884, Cap. 60, tallies in every respect with the commission proposed in the English bill, except that appeals from its decisions are permitted on questions of law when the amount of the claim involved exceeds $500.

—One of the most thorough, skilful, and entertaining pieces of work yet issued by the English Dialect Society is its new volume, 'Provincial Names and Folk-Lore of British Birds,' by the Rev. Charles Swainson (London: Trübner). The author is a member of the Folk-Lore Society, and has written a handbook of the weather branch of the general subject. Both societies have united in the present publication. The redbreast, nightingale, wren, swallow, magpie, crow, rook and raven, woodpecker, and cuckoo (the last especially), are richest on the side of folk-lore, *alias* popular superstition. It is hard to realize that the reputation of these birds (often contradictory in different countries or localities, as in the case of the swallow, which is generally the friend of man, but among the Celts is regarded as diabolical) is firmly believed in at this moment by populations supposed to be both civilized and Christian. In 1860 a cormorant, perching of a Sunday on Boston Church steeple, in Lincolnshire, excited forebodings speedily confirmed by the loss of a ship bearing 300 passengers, "amongst whom were Mr. Ingram, member for Boston, with his son, on the very morning when the bird was first seen." Some practices have outlived the superstition which gave birth to them, like the nailing of owls to barn doors (to avert lightning). The reason for burning the pigeon's feathers when making a pot-pie of this bird may likewise in time grow obsolete: it is to keep them from getting into a bed or pillow, and so making the occupant "die hard"—a topic lately touched on in these columns by a correspondent. Much curious information is conveyed in incidental discussions of proverbial sayings like "I have a crow to pluck with you," or "ducks and drakes" (the game of ricochet with stones on water). Under the Swan is told the story of Lohengrin; under the Partridge, that in some districts of France the weight of this bird as found on a given estate is considered "a fair standard test of the productiveness of the soil and of the state of agricultural skill"; under the Nightingale, that she sings by day also, and is "a very local bird, only partially distributed over England, being heard very rarely in Devon, never in Cornwall, neither in Scotland nor Ireland," though her habitat has no relation either to cowslips or to hops. Mr. Swainson draws his folk-lore from all quarters of the globe, including aboriginal North America. For literary purposes his glossary has a use illustrated in definitions of Spenser's "mavis [song thrush] with her whistell," Shakspere's "ousel cock [blackbird], so black of hue, With orange tawny bill," or Wordsworth's "burring dor hawk [nightjar]."

—The *Moniteur des Intérêts Matériels* of Brussels has, for sixteen years, been collecting statistics in regard to the issue of stocks and bonds of various kinds. The total issues of Europe and America for that period are stated at the enormous sum of twenty-one thousand million dollars. About half was used in refunding and retiring older loans, but, after all reductions, eleven thousand millions of new credit remains as a measure of the absorbing power of modern financial progress. The most significant thing about the figures for various years is their indication of the prevailing industrial condition. The vast credit issues of the time of excessive activity preceding 1873 is in striking contrast with the small emissions of the following period of reaction. The issues increase in the business revival of 1879, only to fall away again in the succeeding years of depression. In the words of Dr. Neumann-Spallart of Vienna (an investigator in the same field), it is from such tables of credit issues, rather than from any other sources, that we can best form judgments of the past and draw conclusions for the future. 1886 shows a continuation of business depression. Its issues, though exceeding those of the last four years, fell far short of those for 1879. They barely reached the average for the sixteen years from 1871 to 1886, though that time included a commercial crisis, two periods of depression, and but three or four years of full prosperity. The issues were, in 1886, $1,342,000,000; in 1879, $1,881,000,000; while for the whole period the average was $1,335,000,000. The only consoling figures are those for Great Britain. Not only were her four hundred millions of issues double those of France, the next highest country on the list, but three-quarters were for productive private enterprises, while in France three-quarters were for State loans. In Germany, Austria, Sweden, Holland, and Belgium practically the whole business activity was in the conversion of old credit rather than in the issue of new. The fresh impetus acquired by the English a year ago has been in striking contrast with the "modesty or impotence of the Continent." As the *Moniteur* concludes, the most optimistic observer can only say that 1886 has seen the dawn of business revival in the West, in the renewal of British enterprise which gives promise of extending across the Channel.

—American issues for 1886 were one hundred and sixty-five millions, one hundred and twenty-two millions being for State and municipal loans, and forty-three for industrial enterprises. This, of course, only represents new securities listed, and is small even for that. It was a total greater than that of any other country except France and Great Britain, but small in comparison with the four hundred and nineteen millions of the latter. The forty-three millions for private enterprise are especially insignificant beside the three hundred and four millions so applied by the English. On the other hand, American issues were three times as great as English in the ten years following 1871. In every year since 1879 they have fallen far below the average for the past sixteen years—three hundred and fifty-eight millions. The conclusion must be, if these statistics show anything, that America does not yet share the business revival now in progress in England.

—The Duc de Noailles and Victor Hugo, both born in 1802, died within a week of each other in May, 1885. The French Academy had opened its doors to the former in 1849, to Hugo eight years earlier. Their successors were elected upon the same day, January 11, more than a year ago. M. Leconte de Lisle, the poet, who will occupy the chair of Victor Hugo, will be received at the next public session of the Academy by M. Alexandre Dumas. The journalist, M. Édouard Hervé, who succeeds the Duc de Noailles, has just been received by M. Maxime Du Camp. This reception of February 10 was not a brilliant occasion. The new member pronounced the eulogium upon his predecessor in a quiet, sedate style, dwelling principally upon the only work of any importance of the Duc de Noailles, his Life of Mme. de Maintenon, and passing very rapidly over the rather uninteresting events of his political career. In his answer, M. Maxime Du Camp took no higher flight than that of the newly received member. He, too, spoke much of Mme. de Maintenon, so that it was cleverly said that from the addresses it might have been supposed that M. Hervé was succeeding Mme. de Maintenon herself rather than her historian. M. Maxime Du Camp has not a light hand, nor is his erudition sufficient to atone for a certain want of tact and taste displayed both in the blame and in the praise of which he is lavish. According to custom, he recounted the main phases of the life of the new member, addressing him personally the whole time in a way which could be gratifying only to a man of less solid qualities than those which have raised the successful journalist of the Orleans party to the rank of an Academician.

ADAMS'S EMANCIPATION OF MASSACHUSETTS.

The Emancipation of Massachusetts. By Brooks Adams. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1887. Pp. 382.

ALTHOUGH Mr. Adams has not written a great book, he has done some service by his violent attack upon the received estimate of the founders of Massachusetts. Very possibly the filial reverence of recent historians has led them to excessive praise of the Puritans, and to an unfair attempt to palliate or deny the mistakes of our early colonists. If so, Mr. Adams has furnished their opponents with an impassioned recital of all the faults, real or imaginary, with which his ancestors have been charged. Filled with rage against the Puritan clergy as a class, he reiterates certain charges against them with tiresome monotony, and finally leaves the reader in utter darkness as to the object of the entire volume. 'The Emancipation of Massachusetts' is a catching title, but Mr. Adams fails to show from what she has been emancipated or by whom. His eleven chapters are, in effect, so many distinct essays on distinct subjects, connected only by his assumption that, in all these matters, the Puritan clergy were wrong and in most of them the clerical element was finally defeated. But these essays are very far from covering the whole period of the history of Massachusetts, even to the Revolution of 1776; and if everything he alleges were true, the reader would gain no idea of the real change in popular opinion from 1630 to 1770.

He starts with the idea that the first founders of the Massachusetts Colony came here with the intent of founding a Puritan State. This certainly is not a discovery made by Mr. Adams, as every previous historian was obliged to make the same statement. He proceeds to show that in so doing they exceeded their charter powers, especially in assuming to exercise the right to inflict capital punishment. Here again the charge is neither new nor important. Thousands of colonists, settled in a community so remote from the central power, could not be kept in order unless the right to inflict fines, imprisonment, and even death was conceded. The true question of interest is, Were the laws just and reasonable, and were they honestly and impartially administered?

To Mr. Adams's distorted vision everything seems wrong, because these laws contained, among other provisions, certain statutes directed against religious offences. Now it may be true

that recent historians have been desirous of throwing a veil over this part of the history, but no one has denied the fact that religious persecution existed in the colony, and that it was a blot on the record. But the defence was and is always the same: the colonists were not much in advance of the generation in which they lived. It was a time when human life was of much less account than now; a period when the death penalty was inflicted for what we consider trivial offences. Stealing was in many instances a capital offence, begging and vagabondage were punishable by many stripes, long imprisonments, and even death. Religious differences, as the Puritans had experienced, were settled by the banishment or death of the weaker party. We cannot expect that, under these circumstances, settling in a wilderness to enjoy their own ideas of freedom, the colonists would be disposed to allow any greater amount of toleration than other communities gave.

Mr. Adams has retold the story of Mrs. Hutchinson, the Baptists, the Quakers, and the Witches, without throwing any new light on these subjects. He has simply written dashing essays on matters which had been worn threadbare, and the highest praise we can give him is that he has used the standard printed authorities. His two chapters on "Brattle Church" and "Harvard College" are amusing specimens of his ambition to deal with the "emancipation" theory, but they are only bits of history, unconnected with what precedes or follows. His main proposition is, that the Puritan clergy dominated Massachusetts from the start, that they defied the English authority, and fought against all attempts to liberalize thought or legislation, but that, in some mysterious way not herein shown, the colony and province was "emancipated" from their control.

We must repeat that there is nothing new in this idea. No one can read even the most meagre history of Massachusetts without learning two things: (1.) The colony was founded by men who exiled themselves to enjoy their own ideal of a Christian commonwealth. However gloomy, distorted, or unreasonable that ideal was, they asked no one to join in it but those who believed in it. If they prohibited all dissent, it was on the ground that the New World was open to other communities, and that they had bought this little corner at a great price. Even according to our modern ideas, they were right in this. They had banished themselves, they had parted with the conveniences of civilization, they had risked death in a strange land, all for the undisturbed enjoyment of their consciences. The Antinomian, the Baptist, or the Quaker was an intruder, as unwelcome and as inexcusable as a Bonapartist in France or a Nihilist in Russia to-day—or, rather, as unjustifiable as a Russian Nihilist is to-day in New York. In the second place, it is evident that in 1770 this community had developed into one of the most pronounced and decided in its democracy of any then existing. Kingcraft and priestcraft were both at a discount in a Boston town-meeting.

It would be impossible in the limits of a review to do justice to such a topic. Not only the ability of a Macaulay would be needed, but the space of one of his hundred-page essays, to traverse the ground, even with his powers of condensation. It may, however, be suggested that the "emancipation" was gradual, and that it was owing to general causes as much as local ones. A century only separates Cromwell from Chatham, but what a vast difference exists between the England of each. Another century brings us to Brougham, Gladstone, and Parnell, and a yet greater difference is apparent. But the world has moved as well as England, and the leaders are but the product of the times.

Undoubtedly the first generation of colonists must be considered narrow-minded in some respects. They had personally suffered persecution, and they were ready to retaliate. But even if there had been non-intercourse with the outside world, the unmeasured freedom of life here would have softened the tone of succeeding generations. However, it so happened that they had an almost unlimited intercourse also with the outside world. They dwelt on the seaboard, and they took to the water with more than the average English avidity. Their vessels swarmed in the Atlantic, and new ideas were brought home on every trip. Some writer will yet give us a history of this "emancipation," or rather of this growth of freedom in thought and action, but he will not follow the line laid out by Mr. Adams.

We are by no means sorry that this book has been written. It will command readers, and its excesses will provoke replies. To the student it will be an amusing curiosity, a proof both of the vigor of the Adams stock and of its inherited tendency to forcible utterances. It will also be accepted as a sign that too much leniency has been shown heretofore to Puritan faults and defects, and that the time has come for a readjustment. Mr. Adams has also started two or three novel propositions, as, for example, that it relieves the mind to call the Mathers and Cottons and Nortons "priests" instead of "ministers." This indeed gives us pause, for, if true, it opens a new mode of vituperation. Again, he holds that these "priests" got up the American Revolution solely from hatred of the threatened establishment of bishops, and deliberately abdicated their unchecked control of the laity rather than share it. This is ingenious, but it suggests the baneful effect of long-continued perusals of Peters's History. We are not sure, indeed, but that these indications promise even more entertaining volumes in the future from Mr. Adams's pen. Once relieved from even a nominal connection with facts, he might write about Massachusetts to our undying delight. Motley began with a novel and ended with a history. Adams has begun with history, but we discern the possibilities of a brilliant novelist in him. The time is propitious, for already the public has wearied of the domestic novel. The author of 'King Solomon's Mines' and 'She' is evidently the coming man. New England has as yet had few romancists to use her past history in the like manner. We see no reason to doubt Mr. Adams's success, however, in this direction, and we would urge him to consider whether this may not in reality be his true vocation.

Should he still persist in being an historian, we hope that he will pardon us for suggesting that every censure which he utters will be quoted more for its parentage than its truth. Peter Oliver's book, a generation ago, was similar to this in many respects, but it was quoted mainly by our enemies because it was written by one of Puritan stock. It may be that Massachusetts needs to be scourged, but it does not follow that an Adams should wield the rod.

OLIVER'S MADAGASCAR.

Madagascar: An Historical and Descriptive Account of the Island and its Former Dependencies. Compiled by Samuel Pasfield Oliver, F.S.A., F.R.G.S., late Captain R.A. New York: Macmillan & Co. 2 vols.

Captain Oliver modestly calls himself a compiler. To make a good compilation is in itself no slight task, but the two comprehensive volumes before us are much more than this. They form a veritable encyclopædia of Madagascar, its history, ethnology, government, industries, physical geography, natural history, sailing directions. Of the stores of information that lie scattered about in blue-books, diplomatic and consular reports, and official documents of all kinds, as well as in reviews, scientific journals, and monographs, nothing seems to have escaped Captain Oliver's searching investigation. His personal observation and experience, from the time of his visit to the island in 1862, as aide-de-camp to Gen. Johnstone, have been supplemented by the accounts of Ellis, Sibree, Richardson, and the other English missionaries, from which he has drawn freely, as well as from the richer and more varied French literature on the subject. Of course the colossal work of M. Grandidier, in twenty-eight quarto volumes, when it is finished, will be the principal mine of information relating to Madagascar, but it will form a library in itself, and will never be generally accessible. Moreover, in Malagasy affairs it is hardly safe to trust to French accounts alone, which are inclined to lay all the misfortunes of the island, most unwarrantably, at the door of *la perfide Albion* and the London Missionary Society.

Captain Oliver's work, though not colossal, is copious, and must forthwith become the indispensable hand-book for any one who wishes to study Madagascar. More than half of it is taken up with the history and political institutions of the island, or rather of the Hóvas, for, politically speaking, the Hóvas represent the island. Since the early part of the century, when they emerged from the condition of a subordinate population under the leadership of Radàma, the Egbert of Madagascar, they have asserted and, to a great extent, maintained their supremacy over the other tribes. Indeed, Radàma did much more for Imèrina than ever Egbert did for Wessex. Like Peter the Great, he was a despotic reformer. In his reign, says Captain Oliver—

"the alliance with the British Government, the suppression of the slave trade, and the adoption of a general system of education on European lines, together with the introduction of Christianity and its civilizing influences into the very heart of the country, combined to lay the foundations of a stable and well-constituted state. Then, again, the subjugation of a considerable portion of the island, the formation of a large native army disciplined on European model, the reduction of the language to grammatical order and written form, the introduction of the printing press, and the diffusion of numerous branches of art by the mechanics and artificers of the London Missionary Society, were events which gave a marked character to the period during which the Hóva kingdom was established under Radàma I."

The story of the political development of the Hóvas from this starting-point, as the dominant race in Madagascar, though told without any attempt at embellishment, is one of absorbing interest. During the long reign of Ranavàlona, the wife and successor of Radàma, there were many retrograde movements: the native superstitions were encouraged, Christians were persecuted, the entry of foreigners was checked, and the tribal wars were marked by the most barbarous atrocities. The young prince who succeeded to the throne in 1861, under the name of Radàma II., a sort of Malagasy Henri III., surrounded by a group of *mignons*, was unequal to the crisis, and, after two years of power, was assassinated with his favorites in the palace, a victim of court intrigues, partly religious and partly political. After his death a reaction set in, under Queen Rasohèrina. In 1864, Rainilaiàrivòny, a statesman of consummate ability and prudence, became Prime Minister, and since that time he has been the guiding spirit of the Hóvas. The two succeeding queens, Ranavàlona II. and Ranavàlona III., both women of high purpose and character, have served as a rallying-point for the loyalty of their subjects, and have encouraged and fostered their development; but the measures to which this development is due have been the work of the minister.

Capt. Oliver gives a large share of attention to the controversy of the last eight years with

France. The history of this dispute is a repetition of the old story of European aggression in the East. Starting with frivolous complaints, it has been carefully worked up by agents of the kind which every European State seems to keep in its employ for purposes of colonial aggrandizement—men with the adroitness of a country attorney and the instincts of a border ruffian, who, by a combination of bullying and sharp practice, backed up by men-of-war, are enabled to wring concessions from a weak and unsophisticated people. The history of the French claims, the Malagasy mission to Europe, the bombardment of Tamatave, the insolence of M. Baudais and Admiral Pierre, the dragging on of the quasi-war through three years, ending with the negotiation of the treaty of 1886, by which France was at last extricated from her entanglements, is still fresh; but it may be studied again with profit in the light of Capt. Oliver's singularly impartial narrative. One thing is clear throughout, that, had it not been for the sagacious statesmanship of Rainilaiarivony, his firm and dignified attitude, and his skilful preparations for defence, Madagascar would now be a French possession. Throughout the whole trying period, the Hóvas under his influence have shown a moderation, a self-restraint, a disciplined obedience, and an inflexible resolution to preserve their territory, which augur well for their future. According to Admiral Gore-Jones, who visited the capital in 1881, they "are now in that condition that they are ready to burst into perfect civilization"; and there is little doubt that if the policy of Rainilaiarivony can be continued a few years longer, the Hóvas will have raised themselves to the condition, of which Radama laid the foundation, of a "stable and well constituted state."

In conclusion, Capt. Oliver says: "In spite of the gloomy forebodings indulged in by the press from time to time on both sides of the Channel, there seems absolutely to be no pretext for any renewal of active hostilities, and the final settlement of the diplomatic dispute is, at last, within a measurable distance. The story of the Franco-Malagasy war may therefore be regarded as finished." In the light of the narrative, and of the history of European encroachments in half-civilized countries, this seems a rather optimistic opinion. On account of the ambiguity of certain phrases in the treaty of 1886, the Hóva Government only consented to ratify it upon the definite assurances of an explanatory note signed by the French plenipotentiaries. How these assurances are regarded by the French Government may be gathered from what passed in the Committee of the Chamber of Deputies appointed to examine the treaty. When asked whether he considered himself bound by the supplementary engagement, M. de Freycinet answered, with refreshing candor, "No; I hold only by the treaty." The situation, therefore, contains the elements of a very pretty misunderstanding, whenever France is ready to take up her policy of aggression. For the moment, the Republic is too busy at home to engage in projects of this kind; but it will be strange indeed if, upon the first relaxation of the existing pressure, the attempt is not made to repeat the programmes of Tunis and Tonquin in the African island. A campaign against the Hóvas, however, will be no child's play, and the French Government must be prepared for a heavy sacrifice in men and money before it undertakes the annexation of Madagascar.

A MODERN ITALIAN SCULPTOR.

Thoughts on Art and Biographical Memoirs of Giovanni Dupré. Translated from the Italian by E. M. Peruzzi, with an introduction by W. W. Story. Boston: Roberts Bros. 1886.

Giovanni Dupré. By Henry Simmons Frieze. With two dialogues on art from the Italian of Augusto Conti. New York: Scribner & Welford. 1886.

MODERN Italian sculpture in the idealistic vein is of slight account, and it is not surprising that the reputation of its greatest and worst master, Canova, should have led to a reaction in taste, and developed a realistic art which, while it is technically the most facile and masterly of modern schools, is mainly so trivial that it is difficult to find its parallel in any other school or branch of art. The school of Tenerani and the classicists, following that of Canova, has disappeared from the lists, and the best work of to-day, in general, is that which compares, in motive and scope, with the French *genre* school, ranging from Bouguereau in marble to Manet in terracotta. Whenever the grand style is attempted it makes a fiasco, with the exception of now and then a portrait, where the subject lends itself to a realistic heroism.

Giovanni Dupré has the credit of being the leader in a movement which was a widespread and natural reaction from the inanity of the grand style, in the hands of men whose intellectual and moral constitution made them incapable of entertaining the motives of anything truly grand, and who mistook the generalization of true subjective art for the characterlessness of undiscriminating imitation. Canova and all his school and followers, near or remote, mistook the typical for the unindividual, and the academic art of the beginning of this century did little else than perpetuate this confusion. Dupré had the advantage of having no classical or literary education, and therefore no classical prejudices or tendencies, and he came up with the thoroughly practical views of a clever craftsman, who had no theories to contend with or be helped by; and when finally he was led by his irresistible individual feeling to a strict imitation of nature, and produced a piece of realistic sculpture such as had never before been seen, and was considered a violation of all the canons of art, he was assailed by the authoritative critics (always the last to apprehend the value of a novelty) as a vulgarian, and by the artists as attempting to pass off a cast from life for a true study from nature. It was easy for him to prove that his "Abel," the statue in question, was an honest study from life, and, having defeated his critics on that tack, the force of the alternate criticism as to its essentially non-artistic character was destroyed by the fallacy, then and still a common one, that what is like nature is good art; and the objection that the statue was too truthful to be done by the methods of honest art having been triumphantly overturned, the art of the work was considered by the trial to have been proved. The critics were nearer right. "Abel" was but a skilful piece of realism, only by the technical qualities of imitation and execution redeemed from vulgarism.

The difference between the realistic sculpture of Italy and that of other nations, our own and the English included, is that the temperament of the Italians is æsthetic: the love of the beautiful, the harmonious, the artistic, is a part of their character, and is developed by their beautiful surroundings—the art of their great schools all round them constituting a perpetual, even if unconscious, education. The art of Dupré can hardly be said to be more than the result of unimaginative and unintellectual study of nature under the influence of this temperament and these surroundings. Beginning as a wood-carver in childhood, sculpture became his habitual method of expression; being an Italian, his nature was moulded to the national suavity and good taste; and these accessories made the difference between his work and that of a sculptor like Hiram Powers, whose powers of execution and fidelity of imitation were of the same order, but who, lacking entirely the higher qualities of artistic susceptibility, produced statues which were realistic without taste, mastery, or knowledge of anatomy or action, and which remain simple vulgarisms, not redeemed, as were Dupré's, by any of the higher technical qualities.

The autobiography of an artist is, like all similar records, of an interest proportioned to its honesty and the genuine revelations of the character of the writer; and in these respects the present work is of a pathetic rather than artistic merit, because Dupré's nature was of a rare modesty and sincerity and (what is far rarer in Italian life) profound reverence. His ideas, except where they take plastic form, are in no wise remarkable, and the reader need never expect to get great light on the deeper problems of art, its philosophy, or its hidden sources. That he never comprehended even in his own art the fundamental distinctions which divide ideal from naturalistic sculpture, his discovery at Rome of a certain model shows:

"So it seems that without seeking for the cause of the contradiction between the living nature I had found in Florence and that which was represented in antique art, I had come to the conclusion that the Greeks and the Romans worked purely from ideas, and corrected nature according to that established rule which we call convention. Nothing is more erroneous than this notion, and the proof of it I found in Rome itself, as I will now tell."

He goes on to relate having met in the Trastevere a woman who reminded him of the Venus of Milo. "My dear reader, I do not exaggerate when I say that I seemed to look on the Venus of Milo." We need quote nothing more to show Dupré's total misapprehension of the principles of art. So far as his own art went, and the excellence of similar work, no doubt the critical capacity of such an artist is valid; but that Dupré had no clear conception of the higher elements of art is clear, first, from his having at that epoch, in the prime of his artistic life, no better conception of Greek art than is involved in his believing that the Greeks "corrected nature according to that established rule which we call convention," and in imagining that he saw the realization of the type of the Venus of Milo in any individual. A suggestion of the type certainly one may often see, but to say that "her head and neck, which alone were exposed to view, were as like that statue as two drops of water [are like each other]," is to show that he never looked carefully at the Venus of Milo or understood it.

To hope, therefore, to extract from Dupré's 'Thoughts on Art' anything to help us to solve the great problems, is to expect sunshine from cucumbers. He was not (as every executive artist has a right not to be) a thinker, and adds one more to the list of artistic arguments against the union of the synthetic and the analytic in one brain. If an artist can be a literary man, it is clear that he can only be so by sacrificing his artistic powers.

The translation of Mme. Peruzzi is, with here and there an exception, smooth, if not always idiomatic, English, but it has one of the worst faults a translation can have in the affectation of occasional transfers of Italian words to the English text, which is a clumsy way of showing the translator's familiarity with the original. Of the Life by Mr. Frieze, we can only say that its utter want of scale in judging its hero deprives it of the least value as art literature, and it has not the value, which the autobiography has, of the personal presence. When the author says that "we come now to the history of the 'Abel,' the masterpiece that brought the young sculptor

suddenly before the world as one of the princes of art," we have the measure at once of his knowledge of art and of the absurdity of his estimate of Dupré's statue. Honest, manly, youthful study of nature it was, and such as a young man may well be glad to have done as exercise; but to call it a masterpiece is to confound language and prove the incompetence of the writer to pronounce judgment on any work of art. The rank assigned Dupré by the general public was such as the general public is competent to assign—in its own judgment—but the art of Dupré is far below that which may be seen any day in Florence left by the sculptors of the Renaissance; honest, prosaic, common-sense it is, and nothing beyond.

The dialogues which Mr. Frieze has been at the trouble of translating are poor stuff, and have not even the charm of being natural. They are the stilted and academic verbiage of an amateur recording the compliments he would pay to the sculptor, and the dicta of a sculptor whose intellectual education was so deficient that he never gets beyond the commonplace, and continually falls into theoretical absurdities which show his limitations even more clearly than do his statues. The autobiography, while of no use as art literature, has the charm of the outpourings of a naïf, simple-hearted, and pure-minded man with interesting experiences, but Mr. Frieze's biography is waste literature, and the "conversations" phenomenal rubbish.

RECENT FRENCH BOOKS.

'PÊCHEUR D'ISLANDE' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof), the last work of the author who writes under the name of Pierre Loti, has all the characteristic excellences of 'Mon Frère Yves,' which preceded it two or three years ago, and which came like a gust of salt sea air, fresh from the Breton coast, to Parisian readers of fine-spun pessimistic theories about commonplace people and events. Not that the characters in the present story, any more than those in the last one, are romantic or extraordinary. They are common Breton fisher folk, the young men and boys who go every spring to the Iceland fishing grounds, and the women, young and old, who wait for their return in the little group of scattered villages to which they all belong. The events, few and simple in themselves, are brought before the reader, rather than related, with a vividness and reality of which it is impossible to convey any idea to one who does not know this most real of idealists. The story is a series of dramatic scenes almost without dialogue, of pictures in which the painter's art does not come between the reality and the vision called up in the mind. The lives of the actors in the story pass before us with a surprising naturalness and simplicity, and yet with a certain reticence in the author that has a great charm. The book is nowhere spoilt by any attempt to say what is inexpressible in words, but rarely have words so simple, a manner so natural and unstudied, given such rich and complicated effects of poetic expression, or rendered with such pathetic beauty the simple lives they paint.

'Mon Frère Yves' marked a sudden development and deepening in the nature of the young writer, which is continued in 'Pêcheur d'Islande.' The explanation of this change is to be found in something besides the few added years of age since his first book was published, in 1879. Whoever is so fortunate as to have read, when still young, 'Mardi and a Voyage Thither,' and never to have removed the charm by a later reading, can have some idea of the land of dreamy enchantment into which 'Le Mariage de Loti' leads the reader. But if Herman Melville's almost forgotten South Sea stories offer some elements of comparison with the earlier work of the young lieutenant in the French navy who wrote this wonderful poem, in a language as simple and natural as prose, as picturesque and vivid as verse, what book in any language can be thought of to compare with the strange Senegambian idyl of the 'Roman d'un Spahi,' which came a little later, or the other works of the same period? The charm and delight of all these books is that they are the work of a man still very young, who has lived the life he pictures; who is evidently not a reader, and whose books are free from the echoes of other books; who is not a writer, in the sense that he follows none of the conventionalities of writing, and who gives the impression, if you ever think of examining the impression he makes upon you, that he is not writing for others, but for himself alone—not because he wishes to address an audience, but because he desires to note down what he sees taking place around him.

The author of 'Pêcheur d'Islande' and of 'Le Mariage de Loti,' whose real name is Julien Viaud, is a lieutenant in the French navy, most of whose life since boyhood has been spent at sea or in some of the naval stations in all parts of the world to which French men-of-war are sent. From the notes of his early years, with all the freshness of youth and reality about them, he wrote his first books, 'Aziyadé,' 'Le Mariage de Loti,' 'Le Roman d'un Spahi,' and the others. These are said to have been published, almost without change in many portions, from his letters and the journals, written from day to day, which he has kept. He says himself: "Je n'ai point même pris la peine de retoucher les lettres; elles sont là, brutales, ayant, pour ainsi dire, gardé le parfum de voyage, l'odeur de la mer." Some part of the surprising vividness and reality of his work is no doubt due to this instantaneous seizure of his youthful impressions in the strange tropical countries where so much of his life was passed in the comparative idleness of naval stations. The last few years have been very differently spent, in active service at the seat of war in Tonquin and the China seas, except a short interval when he was recalled in disgrace on account of a letter sent from there, which was published in the *Figaro*, containing a description of a battle in which he had taken part. This was considered by the authorities so cruelly realistic in its revelations of the savage feelings excited during a battle, as to deserve the punishment of a recall during active warfare. The punishment, however, lasted but a few months, and he was soon allowed to return to the command of his vessel. After this, in 1884 and 1885, he published, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, a series of articles which are among the most striking of his works. In these he conveys to the reader, in a way that is a continual surprise and delight, the impressions made upon him by the strange and ancient civilization and people around him, and the burning tropical lands and seas where even the odors were unfamiliar, and the light and air different elements from those he had been used to. It seems as if 'Mon Frère Yves' had been written in a state of reaction against these unsympathetic surroundings; and though 'Pêcheur d'Islande' was perhaps not begun until after the author's return to France early in 1886, it was conceived, at least, under the same influences, and completed while the repulsion against the regions he had left continued strong. In the spring of 1886 he was appointed to an important naval position at Rochefort, one of the great fortified ports of France. This was his native place; and at his home near the town, where he has since been living with his mother, he wrote 'Pêcheur d'Islande,' his best and most beautiful story.

'Madame Fuster' (Paris: Charpentier; Boston: Schoenhof) is one of the serious and powerful books of M. Ferdinand Fabre, recalling 'L'Abbé Tigrane' and 'Lucifer,' but not with all their great attractiveness. This is partly owing to the subject itself, partly also to the characters and their surroundings. M. Fabre has never been fortunate when he has gone outside of a purely ecclesiastical setting for his stories, except when he has taken a rustic one. The ways and feelings of people belonging to the world, of dwellers in cities, of whatever rank they may be, have not given him happy inspirations. 'Madame Fuster' is the minutely studied picture of a religious bigot, and of her influence upon her own family and all connected with it, and also of the influence exercised upon her and through her by the Ordre du Jugement-Dernier and its Superior, the reverend Father Phalippou. This Superior of the Jugement-Dernier and his subordinates, male and female, clerical and lay, and all those portions of the book in which any of them appear, are extremely well done, and as interesting as they are powerful. It is only the characters of a different class, with whom the reader should sympathize and in whom he should be interested, that leave him unmoved at times, and this is only when the Jugement-Dernier is withdrawn into the background. But the strong interest excited, except by the powerfully drawn Superior of the Order, is never a pleasant one. The harsh bigotry of Mme. Fuster has nothing spiritual or even human about it; it is not to religious feeling or even to the Church that she subordinates everything, it is to the Order in its most material sense, to securing for it the wealth of her husband, the general Baron Fuster. This motive of the whole Jugement-Dernier is kept in sight from the first pages of the book, and it gives to it a hardness and coldness perhaps necessary for the completeness of the picture which the author wished to present, yet causing the reader to regret 'L'Abbé Tigrane' and 'Lucifer,' with their tempestuous passions and lofty ambitions.

This new volume of M. Ferdinand Fabre cannot fail to recall two others published during the last few years. One is a scarcely known but powerful novel by M. Henry Maystre, a Protestant minister of Paris, called 'L'Adversaire' (Paris: Ollendorff; Boston: Schoenhof) published in a volume last spring, but contributed during the previous year to the *Nouvelle Revue*. It is the account, painful and realistic in its simplicity, of the ruin brought about in a little Protestant congregation of the south of France by the appearance and influence there of the Salvation Army. The other is 'L'Évangéliste' of M. Alphonse Daudet (Paris: Dentu, 1883), in which the resemblances to M. Fabre's story rather than the contrasts, as in the last work, are striking. It is impossible, in reading the volume just issued, not to compare it with the brilliant narrative of the picturesque Daudet. But if any of the three writers owes anything to the others, it is not M. Ferdinand Fabre, for his work was published under another title several years before either of the others.

As long ago as 1877, six years before 'L'Évangéliste,' 'Madame Fuster' appeared under the title 'La petite mère' (Paris: Dentu; 4 vols., 12mo). These four volumes of the first edition have been compressed into the one now issued, but it is the same work as that of ten years ago; nothing essential has been omitted, and all the changes seem to be omissions made only for the sake of reducing its size to more usual dimensions. It must be confessed, however, that the one volume in which the work now appears is a solid one—more than 500 pages compactly printed. The original work seems to be unknown to the critics who have so far noticed 'Madame Fuster.' Without exception they have all spoken of it as an entirely new book. All this is certainly very strange in the case of so powerful and characte-

ristic a story, by an author who is acknowledged to be among the first of the imaginative writers of the present day.

M. Hector Malot is one of the most prolific of French story-tellers, and one of the most widely read. He has written some interesting books, and one very charming one for boys, 'Roman Kalbris.' The last work which he has added to the long list of his novels is called 'Zyte' (Paris: Charpentier; New York: Westermann), and it is one of the best of his recent stories. Its beginning recalls that of 'Le Capitaine Fracasse.' The wagons of a troupe of itinerant actors are stopped upon the road, at some distance from their place of destination, by darkness and storm and the exhaustion of the horses, and the actors are presented to the reader very much in the manner that those of the famous troupe of that delightful romance are shown to us for the first time. But M. Hector Malot does not imitate Théophile Gautier, it is only a similarity in the opening situation that recalls 'Le Capitaine Fracasse,' as other passages in the book recall other situations in 'Le Roman Comique,' 'L'Homme qui rit,' 'The Old Curiosity Shop,' and a long series of familiar works. 'Zyte' is entirely modern, and, after the first third of the book, Parisian. The heroine, who gives her odd name to the story, passes from the little stage of the family troupe to that of the Odéon, and becomes a great Parisian actress. Both characters and story will interest and please a large circle of readers, as M. Hector Malot's books always do, but 'Zyte' is not a masterpiece of literary art, although executed with the skill of a practised workman.

'André Maynard peintre,' by Mme. Jeanne Mairet (Paris: Ollendorff; New York: Christern), appeared last summer in the feuilleton of the *Temps*, which of itself is a guarantee of a certain degree of excellence. It is an interesting and well-written story by a skilful writer. The events take place in the world of artists, at first in Rome and afterwards in Paris, and much of the inspiration which produced it seems to have been derived from the actual artistic life of the present time. It is, however, a very feminine book, in its merits as well as in its deficiencies. It has an atmosphere of purity and of honesty of purpose, without prudery, which is very agreeable; but it is almost entirely deficient in that artistic atmosphere which only long association with artists and comradeship with them in ways beyond feminine reach could give; yet the writer, who is the wife of M. Charles Bigot, as the daughter of Healy the artist, may be supposed to have had unusual facilities for observation. The women of the book are real, and not at all the ordinary conventional types; the men are not so well done, though there are occasional touches which show observation and insight where women often fail.

M. Henry Rabusson has already gained for himself a certain rank among the writers of *romans mondains*, of whom M. Octave Feuillet has long been the leader. His last story, 'Le Stage d'Adhémar' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof), is not equal to 'Le Roman d'un fataliste,' the work in which he reached the highest level of accomplishment he has yet attained, but it is superior to anything else that he has written. M. Rabusson's books are always interesting; his characters are finely drawn, from nature and imagination almost equally, but they live and act consistently, and the reader is never offended by the improbable and the inharmonious, always so much more difficult to forgive than the impossible.

'Tzar, Archiduchesse et Burgraves' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: Christern) is the collective title of three stories by Prince J. Lubomirski, to which he gives the sub-title "Fantaisies historiques," because, as he informs us in his preface, he has allowed himself to take certain liberties with dates and events, while assuring us at the same time that "le procès de Marie Hamilton et les étranges destinées de Frohn et du bâtard de Reuss n'en restent pas moins des faits strictement historiques" – a rather enigmatical assurance, which tells us very little concerning the faithfulness to historic fact of the stories. But, faithful to history or not, the three stories are interesting; and the first one especially, 'Tzar,' has a flavor of the savage court of Peter the Great which seems very real.

Seventeen Lectures on the Study of Medieval and Modern History and Kindred Subjects, delivered at Oxford, under statutory obligation, in the years 1867-1884. By William Stubbs, D.D., Bishop of Chester, etc. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1886. 8vo, pp. 399.

THE seventeen lectures contained in this volume are about half of those delivered "under statutory obligation" by Bishop Stubbs, during his occupation of the Regius Professorship of Modern History at Oxford. He is careful to emphasize, not only on the title-page, but in the preface, and on various occasions in the course of the lectures, that they were delivered "under statutory obligation," and it would not, therefore, be the fault of the ingenuous reader if he should find the work perfunctory and heavy in style. What we are told to believe, we are prone to believe. Some of the lectures have, we must confess, somewhat of a perfunctory character; but even these fairly warrant us in saying that nothing which a scholar of the eminence of Bishop Stubbs puts in print carefully and deliberately is without great and positive merit.

Eight of the lectures are general in character, treating chiefly of methods of historical study; and all of these are marked by solid excellence and sound judgment. Five others—upon the literature of Henry II., upon Canon Law in England, and upon the medieval kingdoms of Cyprus and Armenia — are exceedingly valuable as repertories of valuable and not generally accessible information. The remaining four, upon Henry VII. and Henry VIII., are, to our thinking, the best in the volume. It has always been noted of Bishop Stubbs as an historical writer, that he is exceedingly just and sagacious in the analysis and delineation of character. We have never seen this characteristic more happily displayed than in these four lectures. We suppose that their peculiar freshness and interest come from the fact that their subjects are really fresher in the mind of the author, as his work has, we believe, lain of late largely in the early years of the Tudor period. Dr. Stubbs's opinion of these two kings is on the whole better than that of the average of historians:

"Henry VII. was a virtuous man, sober, temperate, and chaste, withstanding great temptations to vice and an abundant store of loose example. His household was kept frugally and severely; all his advisers, except Empson and Dudley, were men of character unstained, if not energetic for good. For one better or greater king, there are in European history fifty smaller and worse. But still—is there any of that self-denying devotion which gives itself for the people? Is there any true conception of the duty of a shepherd of the host? Is there any impulsive well-doing? I can see none. I see a cold, steady, strongly-purposed man, patient, secret, circumspect; with not many scruples, yet not regardless of men's opinions; very clear-sighted; very willing to wait for reconciliation where there is a chance, and not hasty where vengeance is the only course, but ruthless where his own purpose is directly endangered, and sparing neither friend nor foe where he is not strong enough to rely on himself alone. It may have been a nature too cold to care for popular love, or too self-contained to condescend to court it; there is no evidence that Henry VII. ever dreamed of winning it" (p. 370).

Henry's title to the throne is admirably and lucidly discussed in Lecture xv. He says (p. 345): "It is quite possible to maintain that he was King of England by hereditary right," but adds, in speaking of the Pope's bull of 1486, which declared in favor of his title: "Perhaps the good old man swore a little too hard: the accumulation of reasons may show that Innocent VIII. had some misgiving."

It is worth while also to quote the long passage (p. 289) in which Bishop Stubbs sums up the character of Henry VIII.:

"I have grounds for believing that Henry VIII. was the master, and in no sense the minister, of his people: that, where he carried their good will with him, it was by forcing, not by anticipating or even educating it. I am obliged altogether to reject the notion that he was the interpreter in any sense of the wishes of his people; the utmost that he did in this direction was to manipulate and utilize their prejudices to his own purposes. I allow fully the truth of the theory that one great principle of his policy was to obtain for his measures, for all his measures, the acquiescence of his people, and thus to invest them with a safe, irrefragable authority; but I must add that he knew how to turn opposition into acquiescence, or to take acquiescence for granted. . . .

"And now let me confess that I do not think so badly of Henry VIII. as the received views of either his advocates or his enemies would suggest. The unhappy, most unhappy, history of his wives has brought upon him an amount of moral hatred which is excessive. Nine kings out of any ten whom you may pick out of the list would have saved their character for humanity by simple self-indulgence. No absolutely profligate king could have got into the miserable abyss in which we find Henry VIII. struggling during the latter half of his reign. I do not believe that he was abnormally profligate: in this region of morality he was not better perhaps than Charles V., but he was much better than Francis I., and Philip II., and Henry IV. But he was cruelly, royally vindictive; there was in him an ever-increasing, ever encroaching self-will, ever-grasping, and grasping more and more of power: a self-will guided by a high intellect, and that sort of sincerity which arises from a thorough belief in himself. I am not prepared to deny that deep, cunning, unscrupulous men, like Cromwell, traded on their knowledge of his character; but not one of those who tried to work their own ends through Henry escaped the doom to which false friends and open foes alike found their way."

Perhaps the most interesting point in the lectures of a more general character is the passage in Lecture iv. in which Bishop Stubbs declares himself in a degree opposed to the theory of the unity of history, with which Mr. Freeman has so thoroughly identified himself:

"This idea," he says (p. 84), "has a truth only in the very highest regions of speculation. . . . Why, then, should not cycles of history, two, three, or more cycles of history, be allowed to exist, within which all the really important factors have their origin and development, and, it may be, work out their full destiny; successive great dramas of ages, the interest of which is self-contained, although there is enough of common ground between them and those which precede and follow to give them a simple continuity, and although there is doubtless in the divine mind one great plan of cosmical action in which each drama of the human ages serves as a single act or even a single incident? Let Scripture history, classical and ecclesiastical history, medieval and modern history be read successively and connectedly, so much the better; but why deny that classical history and medieval and modern can be advantageously studied apart? Why confine the thoughts to the points on which they are conterminous, continuous, and agreed, to the exclusion of those in which they differ, when it is on the points in which they differ that the great contributions to the real history of man are to be traced? In any other sense than that in which I have attempted to limit it, the unity of history is either the crotchet of a sciolist or the dream of a universal philosopher."

Mr. Freeman is certainly no sciolist, nor is his forte the philosophy of history; we suppose that, after all, his view does not differ essentially

from that here expressed, except in emphasis; but it is in difference of emphasis that much of our difference of opinion exists.

The Venerable Bede, expurgated, expounded, and exposed. By the Prig, author of 'The Life of a Prig.' Henry Holt & Co. 1886.

'THE LIFE OF A PRIG' was not a more palpable hit than its author's latest venture. The satire here does not begin to be so broad as in the former skit, but it is not, on this account, less enjoyable or effective. That it will be enjoyable for all who read it, or might do so, is hardly possible. The Roman Catholics will enjoy it; the dissenters generally will do so; the free-thinkers also. Whether members of the Established Church will do so will depend partly on their sense of humor and partly on their shade of Anglicanism. The latitudinarians and "attitudinarians" will enjoy it much, albeit for very different reasons. The "platitudinarians," *i. e.*, the Low Churchmen, not so much, because it is against them that the satire is for the most part directed. But there are some whose sense of humor is so keen that they can enjoy a little satire at their own expense, and though the "platitudinarians" have, perhaps, less humor than the latitudinarians, they are not all devoid of it, and we may expect a good many of them to laugh heartily over this merry criticism of certain inconsistencies and follies of the English Churchman of to-day.

The authorship of this book and its forerunner has been attributed to Mr. Mallock. They certainly are not unlike his manner as it appears in several of his acknowledged books. But if they are his, he appears to better advantage in them than in such books as 'The New Paul and Virginia' and 'A Nineteenth Century Romance.' There is nothing here of the salacious sort, but there is a lack of delicacy, a certain coarseness, together with the real brightness of the satire, that makes Mr. Mallock's authorship seem extremely probable.

The writer may not be a Roman Catholic. It is quite possible to imagine him a dissenter, or even an agnostic; but it is evident that, in the controversy between Anglicanism and Romanism regarding their degrees of venerableness and priority, his sympathies are with the Roman Catholics. His satire has a double operation. It kills two birds with its one stone: first, the habit of distorting history in the interests of special doctrines or emergencies; and second, the eagerness of certain Anglicans to show that their church is not of Roman Catholic parentage, but is descended directly from the ancient British Church, centuries older than the mission of Austin as a representative of the Roman See. The author's method is to take passage after passage from Bede, using Dr. Giles's translation, and then add his comment, which is generally much fuller than the text. The devices that are resorted to by Anglicans to show that their church had never any taint of Roman practices and superstitions are not satirized more severely than they deserve to be. The miracle-working of the early British Christians, their relics, and masses, and so on, are all subjected to an amusing commentary—are all, as they appear in Bede, denied as spurious, or explained away in some ridiculously insufficient manner. For example, when the Bishop Germanus applies a casket of relics to the eyes of a blind girl, who at once receives her sight, we are told that "in all probability he projected it, propelled it, or, as boys would vulgarly say, 'shied it' at the girl's eyes, which were immediately delivered from darkness and filled with the light of truth." "Obviously this means that when the girl perceived that a Bishop threw a casket of relics at her head, she saw clearly enough that he set no value on them." The patronage of Roman Catholic services by Anglicans travelling on the Continent comes in for a portion of the satire. Bede's account of the arrival and reception of St. Austin calls for a more violent ingenuity than anything preceding it to establish the independence of the English Church on the Roman Catholic. Then it was that the ancient British Church went to sleep for a thousand years and only awakened in time to solemnize the nuptials of Henry VIII. and Anne Boleyn. In conclusion, the Prig thinks it is high time that the Roman Catholic Church took her turn and went metaphorically to bed. "She has been uncommonly wide awake during the last eighteen hundred years! I, for one, think that a thousand years of sound sleep would be very nice for her. Cannot the science of the nineteenth century devise a narcotic for this wakeful and restless patient?"

The Republic of New Haven. A History of Municipal Evolution. By Charles H. Levermore, Ph.D. Baltimore: N. Murray. 1886.

THIS was the first of the extra volumes in the series of Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science. The purpose of the book is to trace the social and political history of New Haven from the foundation of the colony to the present time.

The original settlement was singularly free from the outside influences which helped determine the character of many of the colonial communities, and its peculiar institutions and customs were well defined before it was brought into close contact either with the other colonies or with England. The church and other strong internal influences also developed the town's individuality, which was allowed to become permanent by the slow and usually uniform growth of population which lasted for more than two centuries.

The community has an unusual variety of local governments. The original organization of the New England town is still retained, and New Haven is probably the only example in history of a democracy which allowed 16,000 electors to meet in a popular assembly to lay taxes and exercise other important legislative and administrative functions. In the midst of the town a city has grown up, and of late years has become a manufacturing and railroad centre with a population of 70,000. Just beyond the boundaries of the city, but within the limits of the town, lies another municipality, with full corporate powers, called the Borough of Fair Haven East. Besides these organizations, the town contains three separate school districts, one of which includes the whole city and has a distinct and peculiar government of its own. Mr. Levermore traces the rise and development of these various institutions, shows how they have acted upon each other, and points out the controlling forces which have made them what they are. He has examined thoroughly the large amount of historical material at his disposal. The matter incorporated in this book is well arranged, and the statements of fact are usually full and accurate.

The last two chapters of this volume have been republished in the regular series of Johns Hopkins Studies. They are more carefully written than the earlier portions of the book, and their style is better. These chapters give the history of the government of New Haven from the granting of the first city charter in 1784, with a good description of the government as it is now. It is to be regretted that an author so well qualified for the work has not paid more attention to the causes which led to the successive changes in the city charter, and in the laws that control the other institutions which he discusses. One of the greatest needs of the student of municipal affairs is information concerning the merits and demerits of the various systems under which our cities have been governed in the past, and concerning the circumstances under which these systems were tested. Of course such information is hard to obtain, as it must usually be collected from those who have held office under these governments and can speak from personal observation of how the political machinery in question worked. The affairs of any large municipality are complicated and difficult to understand, and the peculiar circumstances under which an experiment in local government is tried are frequently such as to cause a bad form of government to work fairly well, or a good form to fail to produce the beneficial results which were reasonably expected. These are facts which the man in public life appreciates, but which men like Mr. Levermore, who learn more about municipal affairs in their studies than in the city hall, sometimes fail to take into account. These remarks apply particularly to the closing chapter of the book, in which the author points out the defects in the government of New Haven, and suggests remedies. Many of his criticisms are, however, very just, and it is to be hoped that some of the reforms which he proposes may be tried.

While this book has a special value for the people of New Haven, the general student of municipal government will find in it much that is interesting and instructive.

A Half-Century in Salem. By M. C. D. Silsbee. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1887.

WHEN one has read this little book, he tries in vain to fix the charm of it. There are but a hundred small pages, which have grown out of a paper read by the author to her friends some years ago; and the substance of them is a series of scenes from the old life of Salem in its East-India age, to which her own memory goes back. There are many of these, and many figures in them, drawn from home-life or from the shops, the streets, the wharves, the pulpit, and the ball-room; and the background of the whole is the tradition of Salem, which is in itself a kind of spell. These Democrats and Federalists, who were opposed to each other even in the order of their courses at dinner (for the Federalist took his pudding first and then his meat), were very great partisans, according to our ideas, when, in consequence of the feud, the founder of the Gray family thought it best to remove his Democratic self and his wealth to Boston; but, on the other side, the Thanksgiving dinner of the Pickerings seems to have been a gathering of friendly people, and one reads of one minister, Dr. William Bentley, the patriot of the war of 1812, who had so much of the milk of human kindness in him that, in the absence of a priest, he confessed a poor French woman, as he knew her language, and gave her absolution. But one does not need to describe the well-known community of men and women of the old time, with their stately yet cordial ways, their eccentricities, their vigor and character, of whom the best made that union of severity with nobleness which always wins great reverence for a man's memory. In this fragmentary and informal sketch of the time, the young people relieve the dignity of provincial splendor with their dances, sleigh-rides, and the charms of beauty with which the famous Harvard Class of '29 is said to have been well acquainted. There is a description, too, of Capt. George Crowninshield's *Cleopatra's Barge*, which was the forerunner of our luxurious yachts, and spread American glory in the Mediterranean with more effect than any of the later fleet of pleasure-boats; but, rather than detail the points of the volume, it is better to leave them to the reader's discovery.

The manner and the spirit of these recollections are very kindly, with the touch of the gentleness and human patience, as well as of the transforming regret, of old age. One more memorial has been added to days which will long retain a place in New England history; and if any one, not born to the tradition of the privateers and the merchantmen of this coast, has a taste for the events and aspects of quiet, picturesque, provincial life, he cannot find a book more pleasantly and richly suggestive, or one that will lead his fancy more agreeably to the old days.

Legends and Popular Tales of the Basque People. By Mariana Monteiro. With Illustrations in Photogravure by Harold Copping. A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1887. 8vo, pp, vi, 274.

THE title of this work is very misleading, for one would suppose from it that he had before him a collection of stories such as are told by the Basque people. The truth is, that the authoress has dressed up in a very un-English garb a few local traditions, and translated a few ballads of doubtful popularity. Two examples will show the utter worthlessness of the book for the student of popular traditions. One of the most common themes in popular tales is that of a person who, overhearing the secret of a witch, learns the means of curing a princess who is at the point of death. A second person, who tries to follow the example of the first, is discovered by the witch and torn to pieces. Versions of this theme may be found in Grimm's "The Two Travellers" and Crane's 'Italian Popular Tales,' p. 325, and a genuine Basque version in Rev. Wentworth Webster's 'Basque Legends,' p. 66. Now, Mme. Monteiro has taken this theme, located it on a certain mountain in the Basque country, and turned it from a fairy tale into a tradition of the neighborhood. What the Basque story really is may be seen from Webster's collection or from Cerquand's 'Légendes et Récits populaires du Pays Basque,' Pt. iv, p. 48. The other case is that of the legend of Roland at Roncevaux. Mme. Monteiro might easily have given some interesting popular legends of Roland, who is still the hero of a romance in the Basque land (see Cerquand, iv, p. 14), but she has preferred to give a modern hunting adventure, to which the legend bears the smallest possible relation.

Those who wish to learn something about Basque popular literature will still be obliged to look for it in the works above mentioned, and in J. Vinson's 'Le Folk-Lore du Pays Basque.' The reader in search of entertainment can spend a pleasant hour over a book that will transport him to a fresh locality, and which is full of charming poetic feeling, although not always expressed in very smooth English. The four illustrations by Mr. Copping do not call for any special mention by way of praise.

A Practical Rhetoric for Instruction in English Composition and Revision, in Colleges and Intermediate Schools. By J. Scott Clark, A.M., Professor of Rhetoric in the College of Liberal Arts, Syracuse University. Henry Holt & Co. 1886.

THERE is no study commonly taught in schools for which it is more difficult to provide a serviceable text-book than the much-abused one of rhetoric. The older manuals are full of disquisitions, no doubt admirable in comprehensive and searching criticism of the principles of composition, but unprofitable for the grade of pupils whom it is meant to reach. The failure is the common one which attends on all attempts to teach a practical art by words instead of by use of the tools; for the end of rhetoric is to instruct pupils how to do something—namely, to speak and write in proper form—and the older text-books sought to effect this mainly by elaborate and usually wordy expositions of past methods, instead of by direct and fruitful practice. Of late years rhetorics have been improved by the insertion in them of pages of examples to be corrected, and this is the principal gain that has been made. Prof. Clark has adopted this plan on a very extensive scale, and he has also had the sense to cut down the disquisition portion, which is largely a matter of tradition, to reasonable limits, and has certainly relieved it of its worst redundancies. His new text-book is of about the same bulk as the traditional one, but it includes the whole subject, from punctuation and capitalizing to metres, and treats it under the old heads—Clearness, Purity, Persuasion, etc. The text proper, however, consists of brief, clear, and well-worded rules, with an illustrative example under each; and each chapter is supplemented by pages of excellently chosen examples to be corrected, by the application of the preceding set of rules. The method is very rigorously adhered to. The result is, what the author puts upon the title-page as the characteristic description of his text-book, 'A Practical Rhetoric,' and the adjective is well deserved; for while it contains the rules, its object is to instruct by working them out, just as in arithmetic. For the basis of correct writing there can be no better preparation; and as to style, ornament, and the graces of expression, all that may well be left to the individual's growth in taste, out of which it must come spontaneously, unless it is to be artificial, pretentious, and worthless. We cordially recommend the volume to the attention of teachers.

Nordafrika im Lichte der Kulturgeschichte. In gemeinverständlicher Darstellung von Gustav Diercks. Munich. 1886.

SINCE the conquest of Algeria by the French, the author remarks in his preface, the interest of civilized nations in the northern coast-lands of Africa has constantly been growing, keeping pace with that enlisted in colonizing purposes by the gradual unlocking of the unknown interior of the continent, and in commercial enterprises by the opening of water communication between the Mediterranean and the Indian Ocean through the Suez Canal. These latter achievements have rendered the possession of the North-African territories more valuable than ever, and a knowledge of their present condition and historical development very desirable. Special works on Egypt, ancient or modern, on Carthage, Algeria, etc., of course, abound; but a connected picture of the history of all these countries, of their advances and relapses in the course of ages, has been wanting in general literature, and to supply it is the aim of this book. It is not intended to be exhaustive, learned, or in any way "doctrinaire." It means to group the most marked events, to point out salient characteristics, to illustrate the successive unfoldings, and especially to define clearly the latest developments.

This plan has been strictly adhered to, and very creditably carried out. In a popular and pleasantly animated manner, the writer sketches the North-African races in general; the Egypt of the Pharaohs, its character and wondrous achievements; the Carthaginians and their struggles with Rome; the culture of Cyrene and Alexandria, and the growth of Christianity, under Roman sway and Jewish influences, in the Nile lands; Vandals and Byzantines in their contests for Christianized Carthage; the Arab conquest, and the sway of Islam over the whole coast, from Pelusium to Morocco; Corsairs and Turks in the Barbary States, and the European expeditions against them, down to the conquests of Algeria and Tunis by France; Egypt under Mehemet Ali and his successors, down to Tewfik; and the present rivalries of the European Powers for predominance on the African coast. The picture is exceedingly varied, but it does not lack unity, and symmetry is preserved throughout. Characters and traits apt to strike the imagination are preferably selected, but sensationalism is avoided, and so is every display of erudition. A rigid abstention in this regard, coupled with general correctness in what is popularly presented, almost disarms criticism. The "gemeinverständliche Darstellung," however, has here and there caused some vague talk about conditions of culture, and occasionally too light a touch upon grave matters—as, for instance, when the author, in the beginning of the chapter on "Christianity and Vandals," hints, in scanty words, at the theories deriving the origin of the Christian religion from the speculations of the Stoics, and "especially of Seneca, who created an abstract ideal of a perfect godlike man, whose embodiment Jesus so completely appeared to be that modern criticism might dare, on this ground, to deny his personality." This may also serve to illustrate the wide range of the book.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arnold, M. General Grant: An Estimate. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.
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Bent, S. A. Familiar Short Sayings of Great Men. With Historical and Explanatory Notes. 5th ed., revised and enlarged. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $2.
Boselli, le Comte J. La Maison d'Armagnac et l'unité française depuis le xve siècle. Boston: Schoenhof.
Bourciez, E. Les Mœurs polies et la littérature de cour sous Henri II. 8vo. Boston: Schoenhof.
Burnley, J. The Romance of Invention: Vignettes from the Annals of Industry and Science. Illustrated. Cassell & Co. $1.50.
Calthrop, Rev. G. Eden to Patmos: Scenes and Incidents in Bible History. Illustrated. Frederick Warne & Co. $2.
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Crosby, Prof. W. O. Tables for the Determination of Common Minerals, Chiefly by their Physical Properties, with Confirmatory Chemical Tests. Boston: J. Allen Crosby.
Davidson, Dr. J. T. The City Youth. A. C. Armstrong & Co. $1.25.
Dole, E. P. Talks about Law: A Popular Statement of What our Law is and How it is Administered. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.50.
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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 197

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS 200

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:
- What Mr. Cleveland Has Done 202
- The Forty-ninth Congress 202
- The Money Power in Politics Again 204
- Country Living for City People 204

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:
- The Rémusats 205

CORRESPONDENCE:
- The President and the Constitution 206
- One-Man Power 206
- Baltimore "Politics" 207
- Taxation of Personal Property 207
- Was Jefferson Davis a Repudiator? 207
- The New South 207
- The Degree of A.B. 207
- Plastounoff as an Embryologist 207

NOTES 207

REVIEWS:
- Giuseppe Verdi 210
- Ancient Israel.—I. 211
- Hayward's Correspondence 212
- Conway's Early Flemish Artists 214
- Dr. Channing's Note Book 214
- The Rise and Early Constitution of Universities 215
- The Military Annals of Tennessee: Confederate 215
- Souvenirs of my Time 216
- A Nomenclature of Colors for Naturalists 216

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 216

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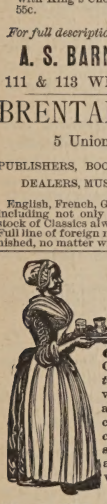

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 10, 1887.

The Week.

THE President supplemented his active exercise of the veto power during the last two years by an application of the "pocket veto" to the River and Harbor Bill in the closing days of the session. This was a great public service. The bill was not only objectionable for the usual faults of log-rolling extravagance, but it was especially offensive because it committed the Government to the outrageous Hennepin Canal scheme. There is enough money left over from last year's bill for most of the work which ought to be done, and the remainder can better wait than to have jobs like the Hennepin Canal saddled upon the Treasury. The failure of the two houses to agree upon any fortification bill is unfortunate, but it is better than would have been their harmony upon some of the wild schemes which have been canvassed. Through such harmony at the very end, after a prolonged squabble, over $11,000,000 was appropriated for a new naval establishment in a happy-go-lucky fashion which cannot be too severely condemned.

The current discussion as to the possibility of the President's making the River and Harbor Bill a law by affixing his signature days after the expiration of the Congress which passed it, is one which ought to bear fruit. Mr. Willis, the Chairman of the House Committee which prepared the bill, has made a study of the subject, and insists that, should the bill receive the President's signature within ten days from its presentation to him, no doubt could be cast upon its validity as a law by the courts. In support of this, he has called Mr. Cleveland's attention to decisions of the highest courts of Georgia, Louisiana, and some other States, sustaining the validity of laws signed by the Chief Executives of those States after adjournment of the Legislature, and he maintains that in the Constitution of all such States there is a method prescribed by which bills shall become laws substantially like that in the Federal Constitution. He claims that the Supreme Court of the United States has already virtually decided this question, by declaring with one voice a certain law upon the statute-books of the State of Illinois to be valid, though it was signed by the Governor after the Legislature had adjourned, the constitutional method of making laws in Illinois being practically the same as that indicated in article 1, section 7, of the Federal Constitution. A case is also cited where President Lincoln signed a bill after the adjournment of Congress which was held to be a valid law, though this precedent is rendered of little account by the fact that Congress subsequently passed an act specifically legalizing his course in the matter.

It is safe to say that all these pleas will avail nothing with Mr. Cleveland, supposing him to wish the River and Harbor Bill to become a law, which is not the case. With the single exception of the Lincoln case referred to above, it appears to have been always held that the President's prerogative of participation in the legislation of Congress lapsed with the adjournment of that body, and this is certainly the most natural interpretation to place upon the language used in the Constitution: "If any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their adjournment prevent its return, *in which case it shall not be a law.*" It would be anomalous, if not unjustifiable, for a President at this late day to assume the possession of a power which was not supposed to inhere in his predecessors during a period covering almost a century. But there is a great deal to be said in favor of an amendment to the Constitution which will explicitly confer upon the President the power of signing bills after the adjournment of Congress, not merely for ten days, but for a month. The provision of the New York State Constitution upon this subject, as amended in 1874, adopts the language of the Federal Constitution just quoted almost verbatim, and then adds: "No bill shall become a law after the final adjournment of the Legislature, unless approved by the Governor within thirty days after such adjournment." A similar power was vested in the Governor of Pennsylvania by the new Constitution adopted in 1873. In each case the system has worked greatly to the public advantage in these States, and it is obvious that the extension of a similar power to the President would work equally well in national affairs.

With this should be joined the provision incorporated in the New York State Constitution, that "if any bill presented to the Governor [President] contain several items of appropriation of money, he may object to one or more of such items, while approving of the other portion of the bill." If these two provisions were now a part of the Constitution, Mr. Cleveland might at his leisure go through the River and Harbor Bill, veto the Hennepin Canal job and other objectionable items, and, by approving the remainder, secure all the good of the measure without any of its harm. An amendment covering these two points, of thirty days after a session for the consideration of bills and of power to veto separate items in appropriation bills, ought to be started on its passage by the Fiftieth Congress. Public sentiment would compel its ratification by the Legislatures of the various States.

The fact is not yet appreciated that the President's attitude towards the pension craze did more than simply block the passage of the Pauper Pension Bill. It was Mr. Cleveland's position which also killed the arrears job. It will be remembered that Mr. Ingalls secured the passage, in the Senate, of a motion discharging the Pension Committee from all further consideration of the bill repealing the limitation of time contained in the original Arrears Act of 1879, and everything indicated that the demagogues, who are always bidding for "the soldier vote," would be able to rush the scheme through both branches. But the veto of the Pauper Pension Bill arrested the progress of the arrears job, and it was never more heard of. This was a most indefensible measure. Senator Sherman three years ago properly characterized it when he said: "I deny in toto that there is any obligation in law or in morals or in good faith to our soldiers to remove the restrictions of existing law. It is not right for the soldier to apply for arrears." Mr. Sherman further showed that the repeal would probably mulct the Treasury in the enormous sum of $246,000,000. And yet there is no doubt that, if Mr. Blaine had been elected President, this bill would have gone through Congress and have been signed, the platform of the Republican National Convention in 1884 having declared that "the Republican party pledges itself to the repeal of the limitation contained in the Arrears Act of 1879." The salvation of the country from this $246,000,000 arrears job, as well as from the $70,000,000 or $75,000,000 annual addition to the pension roll involved in the Pauper Pension Bill, is thus due solely to the defeat of the Republican candidate for the Presidency in 1884.

The repeal of the Tenure-of-Office Act during the last days of the recent Congress solved one question that might have caused perplexity, namely, the President's right to fill, after the adjournment of the Senate and without calling an extra session, an office created by the Congress just adjourned. One section of that act, after giving the President authority to fill vacancies happening during a recess of the Senate, went on to say: "And if no appointment by and with the advice and consent of the Senate is made to an office so vacant or temporarily filled during such next session of the Senate, the office shall remain in abeyance, without any salary, fees, or emoluments," etc. Constitutional lawyers like Senator Edmunds have held very strenuously that under this provision the President could not fill a new office temporarily without the Senate's consent, and fears have been expressed that in this way the new United States Judgeship for this district, just created by Congress, would have to await a nomination until the Senate meets again. The removal of this nice legal point from the realm of discussion is only one of the benefits resulting from the repeal of the out-of-date Tenure-of-Office Act.

If Mr. George Frisbie Hoar possessed any sense of humor, he could hardly have had the assurance requisite for his performance in executive session of the Senate on Friday. During the campaign of 1884 nobody was more sure than the Massachusetts Bourbon that the election of Mr. Cleveland meant the relegation of the colored race to a condition of political if not indeed of physical servitude. On Friday Mr. Hoar rose to urge the confirmation, for the lucrative office of Recorder of Deeds in the District of Columbia, of a negro nominated for

that position by Mr. Cleveland, vouching for his good character, and declaring that he "had received letters from scores of the best people of Massachusetts commending the appointment." The Republican majority of the Senate yielded to the insistence of Mr. Hoar and Mr. Dawes upon Mr. Trotter's confirmation; but their retreat from the original rejection of a negro for the office simply because he was a Democratic negro, comes too late to affect the conclusion of all intelligent negroes in the matter. The Matthews rejection broke down the color line, and the Trotter confirmation cannot restore it.

The long struggle over the question of retaliatory measures towards Canada because of her course in the fishery matter ended in the acceptance by the House of the Senate bill, which authorizes the President to prohibit Canadian vessels from entering American ports, and to prohibit Canadian fish, fresh or salt, and, if he wishes, all other Canadian products, from coming into this country, but does not authorize the exclusion of Canadian locomotives and cars from the United States, which last would practically amount to declaring absolute non-intercourse between the two countries. It seems doubtful whether occasion will arise for the President to exercise the power vested in him. Congress evidently does not consider that such an exigency exists, or it would itself have employed its prerogative of suspending commercial relations; and it will require a very strong case to compel Mr. Cleveland to use the extraordinary authority thus surrendered to him by Congress.

The Committee of the House which was sent out some months ago to investigate the causes and extent of the railroad strike in the Southwest, has presented its report, which contains nothing very new. It estimates the loss of the strike to the strikers at about $900,000; the loss to the men who did not strike but were thrown out of employment by the strike, at $500,000; the loss to the Missouri Pacific Railroad at $2,800,000. The total ascertainable cost of the strike was thus $4,200,000. The loss to the public through the stoppage or derangement of business is of course not ascertainable, but the Committee estimate it at "millions of dollars." It must be remembered, too, that the leader and author of all this mischief, Martin Irons, was and is now literally a drunken vagabond. The Committee, while acknowledging fully the lawfulness of strikes and of combinations to strike, condemn in the most unqualified terms the use of violence or of any species of coercion to compel men to strike, or to prevent their taking the place of strikers if so minded.

This is all, however, now a tolerably old story. The report is mainly interesting as furnishing a good illustration of what the effect of the continued or increased discontent of manual laborers on property and industry would be. Many people suppose, and many lecturers and writers talk, as if it were all going to end in some great revolution, or catastrophe, or cataclysm, in which society would somehow be turned upside down, and the workingmen all ride in carriages, and have boxes at the opera, while the capitalists would go afoot and sit in the upper gallery. There is not the least likelihood of anything of the kind. What we have to expect, if the intelligence of workingmen does not increase, is simply a frequent repetition in various branches of trade or industry of strikes like that on the Southwestern railroads. The effect of this would be simply a considerable diminution in the rate of material progress, increased reluctance on the part of capital to invest in permanent enterprises, and a gradual decline in profits and wages. The United States, in other words, would become a much less prosperous country than they have been during the past fifty years. Their industrial condition would approximate to that of France or Germany or Italy under huge standing armies. The protracted presence of a large discontented, unintelligent, and unreasonable laboring population would produce almost precisely the same effects in trade and industry as large armaments and constant fear of foreign wars produce in those of European countries. Confidence in the future, which is the life of trade, would be greatly lessened, and the hopefulness which breeds the national energy would cease to be a national characteristic. Social cataclysms, in fact, are just as rare as physical ones.

The effort to increase wages by sheer force—and that wages are arbitrarily fixed and can be increased by sheer force, is the fallacy which underlies all the mistakes made by the labor organizations—never led to a more instructive failure than the failure of the workmen in the shoe factories at Haverhill, Mass. Haverhill was the home of a large and prosperous portion of the shoemakers of New England. But within the last two years manufacturers who made a million dollars' worth of shoes a year have moved their factories to other towns, and there is now work for 600 fewer shoemakers in Haverhill than there was two years ago; there is, too, imminent danger of another exodus of "capitalists." The machinery for making shoes is not difficult to transplant, and the business can be carried on at one town as well as at another if the manufacturers are permitted to enjoy "natural advantages." The "natural advantage" in this case is not free land, but free labor. The labor of Haverhill was enslaved by an organization which also took away the freedom of the manufacturers to employ labor, to discharge it, or to fix the price for it as their business demanded. That "capitalists" have gone from a community where they were thus hampered, is not the most significant result of this effort to raise wages by sheer force, for the working people who were denied employment have also gone to smaller towns, and have done the same kind of work for less pay. Every pair of shoes made by them has driven a pair made by the union workmen at Haverhill out of the market. Middle men in the trade are now taking a greater share of the profits than the large manufacturers took; for the small trader, who is neither Labor nor Capital, but a mere handler of the products of both, who has well-nigh been made useless by good commercial organization, is getting what ought to go into the savings banks from the working people, and into dividends for the capitalists. Haverhill is simply going back from the period of savings banks, and good wages, and dividends, and commercial organization to the period of the cobbler in his hut.

A short time since, the Department of State, in reply to a query from our Consul-General at Shanghai, concerning the construction of the Chinese Immigration Acts of 1882 and 1884, decided that Chinese nurses or body-servants were not such "laborers" as to come within the prohibitions of our law. The Treasury Department, having been requested by the Secretary of State to give effect to this decision, by instructing collectors of customs to permit the landing of such persons, referred the matter to the Attorney-General for his opinion. That officer has sustained the decision of the Department of State, and our port officers will be requested, in a circular letter soon to be issued by the Treasury, to let all Chinamen of this class come upon our soil. It seems, however, that body-servants are permitted, under this ruling, only to visit our shores, not to become permanent residents; and in no event are they to cease to be body-servants. They are allowed to come because they are "menials"; they must not dare to aspire to the grade of "laborers." A few years ago it was decided, as may be remembered, that Chinese laborers might be permitted to go through our territory to Canada, provided they secured "through" tickets, but that in no case should they be allowed to "stop over." They were required to be shipped, as one may say, in "sealed cars." Now we have another relaxation. Those of them who do not compete with any American laborers, except that contemptible class which "wears the garb of the serf," may attend their employers who come to the United States, but they must go back to China as soon as they doff this garb. What will happen if Chinese nurses and body-servants should dare to change their occupations, or refuse to depart with their masters who embark again for China, we should not like to say.

The Field Code unexpectedly passed the Assembly on Thursday, after it had been apparently hopelessly lost the day before. In the course of a single hour, its promoter, very young Mr. Ives, rose from the position of a discredited blockhead to that of an able and acute manager. All this was due to his physical energy and activity in hunting up six more votes for the bill in the lobbies and purlieus of the Capitol. These six voters knew and cared no more about the comparative value of the code and of the common law than of the comparative merits of the German and French guns. What they sought was to please the indefatigable Ives, and to do this they were doubtless willing either to make a radical change in the laws of a great commercial community, or go out and take a drink with him. The whole affair is really a dreadful farce. Whether the bill will pass the Senate under these circumstances we do not know.

The successful carrying out of the Republican plan to end the Senatorial contest in New

Jersey would be a subject of congratulation for many reasons, even if the Democrat who was elected by Republican support gave less promise of a satisfactory course at Washington than does Mr. Blodgett. A man of higher character than ex-Gov. Abbett has proved himself to be would have deserved defeat, after lending himself to the consummation of so foul a plot as the theft of the Camden County seat in the Assembly. This offence is concededly so gross an outrage that the condemnation of it in all political circles is likely to prevent another attempt of the kind for many years in New Jersey. Mr. Blodgett is still to be tested as a national lawmaker. But men of sound judgment, who have had business relations with him, say that, while lacking educational advantages and by no means an ideal Senator, he is independent and incorruptible, a man who knows his own mind and will not yield his opinions to the dictation of any "boss." He is in one sense a "railroad man," that is, he has for several years been in the employ of a railroad at a moderate salary. But it is said that he will not be a "railroad Senator," as so many of his predecessors have been. The Republican party in New Jersey will undoubtedly be strengthened by the defeat of Senator Sewell for a re-election, and it will have a better chance to elect a Senator in 1889, when Mr. McPherson's time expires, than if it had put a man of its own politics into the office now, by securing the necessary votes through questionable means.

We must defer till next week any careful estimate of the late Henry Ward Beecher's quality both as a preacher and writer and as a man. In bidding him farewell, the American people take leave, one may safely say, of the last of a grand generation—the most trumpet-tongued of all the orators who wrought the great revolution in politics, and we may add in morals, of which the war was but the outward and visible sign. His faults, like his virtues, were very conspicuous, and everybody heard enough of them in his lifetime. But, take him for all in all the American people will hardly ever look on his like again—will hardly ever see in pulpit or on platform any one who could so easily put an audience into the heroic mood, and who on the whole used his great power for such noble ends. The conditions under which such orators as he were bred are wholly changed, and any one who heard Beecher at his best may feel sure that he has had an experience of which the next generation will know nothing.

The death of such a man afflicts the public not only in what it takes away, but in what it brings, in the rush of little people anxious to attract notice, if but for a moment, by some association of themselves with the great man. There is reason to anticipate on the present occasion a horde of these mortuary speculators unusual in numbers and eagerness, for Mr. Beecher's eminence and singular prominence afford almost unique opportunity and temptation, while the people, as a class, who were nearly associated with him in life are not distinguished for the qualities of reserve and restraint. Accordingly there are already portentous signs of Personal Reminiscences, Recollections, Impressions, Sayings and Doings, etc., designed chiefly not to throw new light on Mr. Beecher, but to explain that the narrator was honored with his friendship. We hope the newspapers will as far as possible disappoint these lovers of notoriety.

There is an undeniable nervousness on the part of many Mexican politicians over the question of the succession to President Diaz. The experiment of 1880, in choosing a mediocre lieutenant to keep the executive chair warm for his chief for four years, was not satisfactory to either Gen. Diaz or the country. The difficulties in the way of a discreet choice, which will have to be made two years hence unless some way can be devised of getting round the constitutional prohibition of re-election, are already seen to be enormous. They were reflected in last fall's excited talk about making Diaz Dictator. A more sober manifestation of the vague apprehension with which the close of the President's term is anticipated appears in the proposed amendment to the Constitution recently urged by the Legislature of the State of Puebla upon the attention of the Permanent Deputation of the Federal Congress. In Mexico, under section 65 of the Constitution, the right to introduce bills in Congress is accorded to the legislatures of the States, and in pursuance of that privilege the Puebla Legislature now asks that article 78 of the Constitution, fixing the Presidential term, be so amended that the term of office of any incumbent can be prolonged to six years if Congress so votes. This proposition passed the Legislature of Puebla nearly a year ago, but, owing to private assurances from Gen. Diaz that he did not favor the movement, and to the open opposition of the Government organ at that time, the matter was dropped and was supposed to be killed. Its revival now and presentation in Congress, with the silence thus far of the *Diario Oficial*, are giving rise to much speculation. President Diaz would doubtless find no difficulty in getting Congress to vote him two years more of power, or anything else he might ask; but what would he do with article 14 of the Constitution, which forbids the enactment of a retroactive law?

The signs of war in the East between Austria and Russia appear now to be as strong as the signs of war between France and Germany were three weeks ago. The military revolt at Silistria and Rustchuk was undoubtedly set on foot by Russian agents, and if it be true that similar outbreaks are occurring elsewhere, the remarks of the *Journal de St.-Pétersbourg*, that "the riot" was not unexpected, and that it is to be hoped the people will be spared the horrors of civil war, point clearly enough to the conclusion that there is shortly to be "anarchy" enough in Bulgaria to make it seem to the Czar his imperative duty to occupy the country he has rescued from the Turks. That the Rumanians, Servians, and Bulgarians will make common cause with the Austrians in preventing his doing anything of the sort, there appears to be little doubt. If he makes the attempt, it will probably be the result of an assurance that Germany will not interfere with him or allow France to do so. Bismarck's "What do we care about Bulgaria?" was probably a most pregnant observation; anyhow, the materials for a tremendous blaze are all ready for the match. The Hungarian Parliament has voted all the credits asked for by the War Minister.

The last number of the *Nouvelle Revue* contains an interesting speculation by M. Henri des Houx, under the signature of "Paul Vasili," in answer to the question, Who will be the next Pope?—a question of daily increasing importance in view of the condition of the present Pope's health. He says there are three elements to be considered in the College of Cardinals: (1) the purely Roman element which surrounds the Papal throne, does the work of the Congregations, and depends entirely on the Pope; (2) the Italian element formed by the archbishops and bishops of Italy, who are subject to the exequatur of the Italian Government, and as much dependent on the King as on the Pope; (3) the foreign element, composed of the foreign cardinals—that is, of archbishops and bishops either in Catholic or non-Catholic States. The Romans make up a little more than half of the Sacred College—that is, about forty out of the seventy cardinals All are not Italians. There are ten of them resident in Rome, of whom four are Germans, one Russian, one Austrian, one English, one Pole, two French; the German element thus predominating. The Italian cardinals are nine in number. All of them, except the Archbishop of Palermo, who is wholly independent of the Italian Government, naturally feel kindly towards the Power which supports them. Seven of these are known to be in favor of a reconciliation between the Vatican and the Quirinal, and it is from these, of course, that the Italian Government will select the candidate which it will support.

The non-resident cardinals number twenty-five, of whom five are Austrians, four English, and sixteen belong to Latin nations other than Italy. These could exert a very powerful influence on the election if they would act together, but of this there is no chance. They are sure to be divided, so that the Romans and Italians will hold the balance of power, which is another way of saying that the contest will be between Italy and Germany, for Germany dominates among the Romans as Italy does among the Italians. There has been a very widespread disposition in Europe, since the capture of Rome by the Italians, to treat the political importance of the Pope to foreign nations as a thing of the past; but the recent Papal meddling in the German elections shows that Popes may still take a hand in electioneering with more or less effect, and that it is still worth the while of States containing a considerable Catholic population to bring influence to bear on the Conclave. If Bismarck feels that he has really owed something to the Pope's support in the recent canvass, there is little doubt that he or his successor will try to have a German candidate for the place of Leo XIII., and push him by any of the means which have hitherto been successful in helping the cardinals to a choice.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, March 2, to TUESDAY, March 8, 1887, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE Forty-ninth Congress adjourned on March 4, as required by law. There was as usual an all-night session preceding the day of adjournment, and much important business was transacted during the closing hours. The most important measure among the last that were enacted was the repeal of the Tenure-of-Office acts, whereby the power is restored to the President of making removals from office at all times without the consent of the Senate, a power which the Presidents before Andrew Johnson had. The bill for the redemption of trade dollars and the Anti-Polygamy Bill became laws without the President's signature. The River and Harbor Bill failed to become a law, because it was not signed by the President within the required time, and neither the Fortification Bill of the House nor that of the Senate was passed, because of a disagreement in the Conference Committee. After an unfavorable report by the Committee on the District of Columbia, the Senate confirmed the nomination of James M. Trotter, of Massachusetts, the second colored man selected by the President to be Recorder of Deeds of the District.

The bill authorizing the President to take severe retaliatory measures against Canada, which is a product of the fisheries dispute, was signed by the President before Congress adjourned. The Montreal *Gazette*, commenting on it, says that it does "not know whether the solution of the fisheries trouble will be made more difficult or rendered easier" by this action; and it adds: "Canada feels that she is right. She cannot agree to yield to coercion, in whatever form it may be presented, the advantages that by her construction of the treaty pertain exclusively to her own people." The British press has made no comment.

The Committee of the House of Representatives which made an investigation of the strike last year of railway employees in the Southwest, has reported that the loss to the 9,000 strikers was $900,000; to the non-striking employees, who were deprived of work, not less than $500,000; and to the Missouri Pacific Railroad Company, $2,800,000.

Gen. J. J. Finley has been appointed by Gov. Perry of Florida United States Senator to succeed Charles W. Jones, whose term expired on March 4. Gen. Finley has been a judge of the Supreme Court of Florida and a member of Congress.

The long deadlock in the New Jersey Legislature caused by the effort to elect a United States Senator to succeed Senator Sewell was ended March 2 by the selection of Rufus Blodgett, Democrat, who is Superintendent of the New York and Long Branch Railroad.

The Democratic State Convention of Rhode Island on March 8 nominated John W. Davis, of Pawtucket, for Governor.

An investigation of the conduct of the municipal government of Brooklyn by a special committee of the New York Assembly was begun on March 4.

The Supreme Court of the United States on March 7 handed down a decision in a case brought from Tennessee, which involved the right of one State or municipality to impose a license tax on travelling salesmen from another State seeking to sell goods by sample or otherwise. The decision is that such taxation is an interference with inter-State commerce, and is, therefore, unconstitutional.

There is a threatening strike by employees of the railroad companies at Youngstown, O., which was begun by the brakemen on the freight trains of one road, who insisted that an extra man should be employed on all freight and yard "crews." The conductors and brakemen on other roads joined the strikers on Monday and demanded higher wages. A blockade of freight was caused, and fears are entertained of a general strike of railway employees on the great through-lines west of Pittsburgh.

The printers belonging to the Typographical Union in all the newspaper and job-printing offices in Milwaukee struck on March 2, and their places were soon filled by non-union printers.

Quiet has not yet been permanently restored in Cambridge, Mass., where the street-car drivers have so long been on a strike. On Sunday one horse-car was almost wrecked, and the driver was badly hurt.

Several hundred plasterers of Pittsburgh have seceded from the Knights of Labor because of the expensiveness of membership therein.

During the winter hog-packing season, which recently closed in Chicago, 700,000 fewer hogs were killed than during the last season. The cause of this decrease was the great strike at the stock yards and its effect upon the Chicago market. The loss in wages is computed at $700,000, and at least 5,000 men, skilled and unskilled, who were employed last season, failed to find work.

A large meeting of Socialists was held in Chicago on Sunday, to discuss a measure pending in the Illinois Legislature to punish the authors of inflammatory speeches or writings. Very radical addresses were delivered in English, German, and Bohemian. Currlin, editor of the *Arbeiter Zeitung*, advised his hearers to procure arms and carry them. Another speaker, an Englishman, declared that the Socialists had a right to preach treason and the overthrow of society and the constituted authorities. Sooner than see the bill pass, he would take arms in hand and preach revolution.

Three unsuccessful efforts to destroy the property of the Pennsylvania Railroad Company at Jersey City were made on March 4 and 5. On one of the ferry-boats that run between Jersey City and Courtlandt Street, New York, a bottle was found which contained a combustible substance, and two appliances for setting fire to the Jersey City depot were discovered.

The total snowfall at Minneapolis this winter has been 68½ inches, and there have been 104 days of continuous sleighing. Between Mankato and Tracy, Minn., the snow drifts are in many cases six feet above the tops of the telegraph poles. In Newcastle and Chatham, New Brunswick, the snow is piled up to the second-story windows of houses, and communication with outlying points has been almost entirely cut off.

The overflow of the Mississippi River has inundated many miles of railroad between Memphis and Madison, Ark. The west bank of the river, from its confluence with the Missouri to Memphis, is almost wholly under water.

The Texas express on the Iron Mountain Railroad, which left St. Louis on Saturday night, plunged through a bridge over Joachim Creek, drowning two persons and wounding twenty-five. A freshet had undermined the supports of the bridge.

There is alarm over the attitude of the Indians in Rolette County, Dak., where the half-breeds have refused to pay their taxes, and the militia has been ordered to be ready for service.

Harvard College has received a large sum of money, known as the Boyden bequest, which will be devoted to astronomical research in the southern hemisphere. The suggestion in the will, that the expenditure of the income shall be for investigations in high altitudes as free as possible from adverse atmospheric influences, leaves the trustees perfectly free to select a site anywhere in the world that may be deemed most desirable. It is probable that some elevation of the Andes range in Peru will be chosen. Prof. Edward C. Pickering will have charge of the new observatory.

Prof. E. R. Sill, who was an occasional contributor to the *Nation*, both as a reviewer and as a correspondent, died at Cleveland, O., on February 27. He was graduated at Yale in 1861, in a class that has perhaps contributed more professors to the colleges of the country than any other college class that ever graduated. He was for several years Professor of English Literature in the University of California, but resigned not long after President Gilman left it for Johns Hopkins University. After the resignation of his professorship he retired to Cuyahoga Falls, O., and led the life of a close student. Some of those best qualified to judge believe that in his premature death American thought as well as American letters has sustained a grievous loss.

The wife of Senator Beck, of Kentucky, died in Washington on Sunday. She was the grand-niece and nearest living descendant of George Washington. Mrs. Ruth Harmon, maternal grandmother of Mrs. Grover Cleveland, died at her home in Jackson, Mich., on the same day. Charles J. Peterson, the Philadelphia publisher, died on March 4.

Commodore Edward P. Lull, United States Navy, who died at Pensacola, Fla., on March 5, was born in Vermont in 1836, and had spent his life in the naval service. He served on board the *Brooklyn* at the battle of Mobile Bay, August 5, 1864. In 1872–'74 he commanded the expedition which surveyed a route for a ship canal across the Isthmus of Nicaragua.

The Rev. Henry Ward Beecher died at his residence in Brooklyn on March 8, of apoplexy. He was born June 24, 1813.

FOREIGN.

After many months of quiet in the East, the condition of Bulgaria has again threatened the peace of Europe. There have been revolts against the Government of the Regency which it is suspected were instigated by Russia. The telegraphic reports are conflicting in details, but the following facts have been reported directly from Sofia as well as from most of the European capitals. On February 28 there was an insurrection at Silistria. The Government of the town was seized by the insurgents. Loyalist troops from adjacent towns, most of them from Rustchuk, suppressed the revolt. The commander of the garrison was killed, and perhaps others. While the troops were absent from Rustchuk a more formidable revolt was made there. The barracks were seized, the officers were arrested, but the people took arms against the insurgents, and the fighting continued throughout Wednesday, March 2. Then the insurgents, who were attempting to retreat across the Danube, were compelled by the heavy firing from the shore to desert their boats and take refuge on an island. Most of them were wounded and all were captured, and the authority of the Regents was restored. The killed and wounded at Rustchuk numbered 100. Rumors have come of insurrections at other garrisons. These revolts have caused fresh preparations for war to be made by all the Governments most directly interested. The Emperor of Austria has held a military council, and decided to appoint several officers for the superior commands in the event of war. Wooden huts for troops have been erected in Galicia. Servia has sent troops to the frontier. From St. Petersburg, military movements towards the Galician frontier are reported to be continuous. Significance is attached to the statement by the *Journal de St.-Petersbourg* that "Russia considers the occurrences at Silistria a fresh proof of Bulgaria's abnormal condition."

Nine officers and civilians concerned in the revolt at Rustchuk were shot on Sunday. The news comes by way of Paris that the political prisoners arrested in Sofia for participation in the revolt, were whipped with knouts during the entire night following their arrest, and that five officers died from the effects of this torture.

The Bulgarian revolt and the universal sus-

picion that it was instigated by Russia have caused continued discussion of war, no longer between France and Germany, but between Russia and Austria-Hungary. The *Kölnische Zeitung* (Berlin) warns Russia that even German patience towards neighbors has limits, and says: "If Russia compels Germany to take account of a Franco-Russian agreement, let her beware lest she may herself have to consider a hostile Germany." And the *Kreuz-Zeitung* reports that letters from St. Petersburg state that the general hatred of Germany and the popularity of France are becoming a sort of violent epidemic in Russia.

The new German Reichstag was opened on March 3. The Emperor's speech was read from the throne. He expressed gratification at the benevolent disposition the Pope had shown, and asserted that the foreign policy of the empire was continually directed to the maintenance of peace, especially with Germany's neighbors. The Reichstag was further assured that if, without hesitation or division, it gives unanimous expression to the resolve that the nation will put forth its full strength now and at all times against any attack upon the frontiers, such resolution, even before carried out, will materially strengthen the guarantees of peace and remove the doubts which the late parliamentary debates may have inspired. In diplomatic circles the speech was considered more peaceable than had been expected, but the Liberal newspapers of Berlin have said that the vague reference to foreign relations is not likely to calm the public mind. On March 4, Herr Wedell Presdorf was elected President of the Reichstag. Dr. Windthorst protested against the election of a President before the second ballots were concluded. Minister von Bötticher replied that any such criticism was an encroachment upon the rights of the Emperor, because when his Majesty summoned the Reichstag the members were bound to appear. The complete returns of the German elections (including the second elections) are: Conservative 81, Imperialist 39, National Liberal 100, Centre 97, New German Liberal 34, Polish 15, Protester 15, Socialist 11, Guelph 4, and Danish 1. Total, 397. There were cast 1,877,969 more votes than at the preceding general election. The increases are: Conservative 333,441, Imperialist 305,508, National Liberals 661,125, Democratic 13,481 Centre 248,701, Polish 9,438, Socialist 224,192, Protester 82,083. There was a decrease in the New German Liberal vote of 447,702. The Emperor, upon hearing the result of the elections, remarked that the news made him feel twenty years younger, and that the people could not have made him a handsomer birthday present.

The Septennate Bill was introduced in the Reichstag on March 7 by Gen. von Schellendorf, Minister of War, who said in his speech: "Let us forget what has passed. There is no doubt about the acceptance of the bill, but the greater the majority it receives the more significant will be its success." Herr Richter, the new German Liberal leader, declared his intention to reintroduce his former motions, and, if they should be rejected, to vote against the Septennate Bill. The Socialists condemned the bill on account of the great financial burden it imposed upon the people. The final passage of the measure is now a matter of form. No new taxes will be levied to meet the additional expense, which will be covered by a loan.

The Emperor of Germany has ordered a deputation from the Czar's Prussian regiment, equipped with the new repeating rifles, to present themselves before the Czar at Gatchina on the Emperor's birthday.

Gen. Boulanger has issued an order forbidding any officer of the French army to have in his service a foreigner of either sex. This order was provoked by Gen. Davoust, who had as governess for his children the wife of a German officer.

Paul Henri Féval, one of the most prolific of French writers of fiction, died March 8, in his seventieth year. His 'Mysteries of London,' edited and mainly written by him for M. Joly, was the talk of its day, ran through twenty editions, and was translated into several languages. After 1855 Feval turned his attention to historical writing, and published a 'History of the Ministry,' and a 'History of the Parliamentary Government of France.' He continued to write fiction, however, producing a novel a year for the greater part of his active life.

On March 5 the resignation was announced of Sir Michael Hicks-Beach from the office of Chief Secretary for Ireland, and he was succeeded by the Right Hon. Arthur J. Balfour, Secretary of State for Scotland, who is a nephew of Lord Salisbury. Sir Michael is suffering with cataract over both eyes, but the real cause of his retirement is thought to be his breaking down under the uncommon mental strain of the post of Secretary for Ireland in the Conservative Cabinet.

Preceding and following Sir Michael Hicks-Beach's resignation, the Irish question caused very spirited discussion in and out of Parliament. There was an angry debate in the House of Commons on March 3 between Sir Michael and Mr. Dillon about the vote of £30,000 for the Irish police, for which the Government asked and which was granted. Mr. Dillon said that the greater portion of the money hitherto granted had been spent in endeavoring to suppress public meetings and in carrying on the work of eviction; and that the Government avoided indicating the sums spent on evictions. Sir Michael contended that the expenditures for the Irish police were necessary to maintain order, and he declared that the speech which Mr. Dillon had just made afforded additional proof of the absolute necessity of giving further powers to the Government, and he concluded his speech with a threat of military force in Ireland. Cries, shouts, and defiant gestures were freely exchanged by both sides of the House.

The Marquis of Lothian has been selected as Mr. Balfour's successor as Secretary of State for Scotland. When Mr. Balfour, the new Secretary for Ireland, arrived at Dublin on March 7, the Municipal Council adopted a resolution to appeal to the free people of the world to prevent the British Government from carrying out their "threats of outrage against the Irish people.'

The British Cabinet at a special meeting decided to end the closure debate before the production of the Crimes Bill, to restrict the latter to clauses dealing with the changing of venue of jury trials and magistrates' powers in cases involving sentences of not more than six months, and not to prosecute Archbishop Croke. Lord Ashbourne has finished the Land Bill, extending the powers of purchase, and substituting five years' judicial leases for leases of fifteen years. Outside Parliament and the Cabinet meeting there has been no less active discussion. In letters and speeches, Viscount Lymington has protested against the Government's want of action, nerve, and courage, in paralyzing the Liberal-Unionist treatment of the Irish question. Sir William Vernon Harcourt has insisted that the troubles in Ireland arise from the attempt of the Government to enforce the payment of rents which their own land commission has declared the people are unable to pay; and Mr. Gladstone has repeated his conviction that "no great political matter can be dealt with till the Irish difficulty is settled." In a speech before the National Conservative Club on Saturday Lord Salisbury declared that the law machine in Ireland was paralyzed, because a jury refused to act, and that, before society could be restored to a healthy condition, that wheel must either be refitted or dispensed with; but nothing was possible until the efficiency of Parliament was restored.

In the country near Limerick a number of houses occupied by tenants, together with the out-buildings, were burned on the night of March 3, by armed incendiaries, who escaped. All the victims were persons who had paid their rents, and the outrages were thought by the people to have political significance, and the excitement was thus made the greater.

Archbishop Croke has written in explanation of his attitude on the Irish rent question that he has proposed nothing, nor made any recommendations about taxes; that he simply expressed an opinion concerning the relative value of a no-tax manifesto and a no-rent manifesto; that it never entered his head to recommend a general uprising against the payment of taxes, and that he trusts alone to constitutional agitation for the restoration of national rights in Ireland.

The first of Queen Victoria's jubilee drawing-room receptions was held at Buckingham Palace on March 3. The attendance was greater than at any preceding reception of the kind during the long reign of the Queen. Crowds congregated in the parks and roadways around the palace numbered many thousands, and court officials say that the reception was the most brilliant they ever attended.

A foreman employed in the Government works at Chatham, England, and a draughtsman have been dismissed for revealing important secret naval designs to the United States and Russian Governments.

George Franklin Anderson, an American, was convicted in London, on March 4, of swindling a client out of large sums of money under the pretence that he was prosecuting a suit for the recovery of a large English estate, which he had made his client believe he had inherited; and he was sentenced to five years' penal servitude. On the same day George F. Parker, Edwin S. Witherall, and George W. Gibbens, officers of a "British-American-Claim Agency," were arrested in New York on a charge of carrying on similar swindling operations.

King Oscar of Sweden has dissolved the Diet for refusing to vote the estimates asked by the Government.

A Nihilist plot has been discovered in Finland, and many students and artisans have been arrested in Uleaborg and Abo charged with conspiracy.

King Leopold on March 2 inspected a monument to Gen. Gordon, which has just been cast and which is to be set up in Westminster Abbey.

An explosion of fire damp in a colliery at Quaregnon, in Brussels, March 5, entombed the miners, 144 of whom were suffocated.

The Queen of Spain has signed a decree making a 20 per cent. reduction in the export duties on sugar and tobacco shipped from Cuba.

A general election was held in Portugal on Sunday. The returns show the election of 108 Government and 36 Opposition Deputies. Two Republicans were elected in Lisbon.

The Pope has selected Mgr. Rampolla, the Nuncio at Madrid, to succeed the late Cardinal Jacobini as Pontifical Secretary of State.

Another slight shock of earthquake was felt at Nice on March 3, and at Charleston, S. C., on the same day. The people at Diano-Marina fear further disasters because the sea has not returned to its ordinary level. On March 5, a series of rather violent shocks were felt in Western Morea, in Greece. The inhabitants were terrified and many fled from the district.

The first steamer to pass the whole length of the Suez Canal by aid of the electric light did so on March 3 in fifteen hours.

It was reported from Bombay on March 3 that the Ameer of Afghanistan is making efforts to raise a new army. Boys between the ages of ten and eighteen years are drilling for service, and nearly all the able-bodied men are enrolled. The Ameer has issued a circular to his subjects telling them to prepare for a holy war. It was reported and subsequently denied that he contemplates a war against Russia.

Advices received by the Canadian Department of Agriculture indicate that the influx of immigrants from Europe to Canada will be greater this year than ever before.

WHAT MR. CLEVELAND HAS DONE.

Mr. Cleveland's term is half gone. The occasion is appropriate for a review of his career in the White House.

First and most important among the achievements of his Administration must be accounted his contribution to the reform of the civil service, and its reëstablishment upon the business basis where Washington, Jefferson, and the other Presidents who were among the founders of the Republic, placed it. Mr. Cleveland came into power as the representative of a party which had long been in the opposition. The last previous change of party administration, when Lincoln was inaugurated had been characterized, like all others before it back to Jackson's day, by a "clean sweep" of the office-holders found in power. It was held, in 1861, that a man ought to lose his place simply because he was a Democrat and the new President was a Republican, just as in 1849 it had been held that a man "must go" because he was a Democrat, and a Whig had been elected President. Mr. Cleveland would only have followed precedent if he had turned all the Republicans out within three months. A large proportion of the Democratic party—and of the Republican party, too, for that matter—held that this was what Mr. Cleveland should have done in the spring of 1885, just as Republicans had maintained and Democrats had admitted, in 1861, that Lincoln ought to make a clean sweep, "according to the rules of war." For this was what politics in the United States had become before the advent of civil-service reform—a succession of pitched battles for the spoils, public office being regarded not as a public trust, but as a partisan possession, to be fought for every four years.

What has Mr. Cleveland done? In the great post-offices of the country, which are the Federal offices that come home most closely to the people, he has allowed Republican incumbents to serve out their terms, except where offensive partisanship had forfeited claims to consideration, and now in 1887 the postmasters in scores of cities and large towns remain the same as when Mr. Cleveland was inaugurated. This is also true in the case of not a few other important Federal officials throughout the country, like the United States Marshals in Boston and Brooklyn, for two examples, while a considerable proportion of the chief bureau officials in the Washington departments still remain unchanged. Fully a third of the officials left in the consular service by Arthur retain their places. The thousands of clerks who were in the departments on the 4th of March, 1885, retain their places save where they have forfeited them through good cause. So also of the clerks in several great post-offices, like those in New York, Brooklyn, and Boston, and in the great Custom-houses in New York and Boston. A considerable percentage of the small post-offices throughout the country—as nearly as we can estimate, from the records for the last fiscal year, at least a third of the more than 50,000—have gone unchanged. Including all these various classes, it would appear that at least 30,000, and probably the number is nearer 40,000, of the 120,000 offices must still be held by the Republicans who occupied them two years ago.

Mr. Cleveland has thus overthrown the doctrine of a "clean sweep" throughout the country upon a change in party administration at Washington. And he has overthrown it for all time. A Republican President may succeed a Democratic in 1889, but he will not be able to do what the Republican President who succeeded a Democratic in 1861 did. He will not be able to do so because the public sentiment of the country will never again sustain, or even permit, a system of universal changes in the offices with a change of party representatives in the White House. Mr. Cleveland has not merely scotched the snake of a "clean sweep"—he has killed it. This is a great and permanent achievement, sufficient of itself always to distinguish Mr. Cleveland's Administration in history were death to end it to-day—an achievement in the face of a pressure so tremendous that those who did not know the man, might well have supposed him incapable of resisting it.

But Mr. Cleveland has done more than this for the reform. He has secured the execution of the Civil-Service Law, not merely in its letter, but in its spirit, in the Washington departments, in the chief custom-house and post-office in the country, and in other important custom-houses and post-offices. The two great business establishments of the Government in New York city are now conducted upon business principles; the same is true of Boston and Brooklyn and of some smaller cities. It is not true of the great Federal offices in Philadelphia, Baltimore, Indianapolis, and other places. Mr. Cleveland has been inconsistent; he has yielded occasionally to the influence of spoilsmen; he has thus much lowered the average which would otherwise have risen so very high. But, making all due allowances for these failures, it still remains true that he has established a firm foothold for the system of a business Administration. The system can never be dislodged in what were once the conspicuous strongholds of "patronage" where it is now entrenched, and it must inevitably, sooner or later, make conquest of the rest.

Mr. Cleveland has done the country a great service by taking a firm and pronounced stand against paternalism in government. The drift in this dangerous direction of late years had become steady and strong. There was a growing disposition on the part of everybody to resort to the general Government for anything—for school money in Southern States if it was hard for the States themselves to raise what was needed; for the support of any man in the North who ever had any connection with the army if he was now in trouble; for contributions of the public funds for any community which might have fallen into distress, through flood, drought, or other misfortune. The Pauper Pension Bill and the Texas Seed Bill embodied these vicious tendencies, and Mr. Cleveland's vetoes of those twin measures taught the same lesson to North and South alike. That lesson is, that "though the people support the Government, the Government should not support the people," and its reception by the country shows that it will be learned. The President has not merely blocked a petty $10,000 appropriation for Texas, or saved the Treasury from a tremendous onslaught of pension-beggars, but he has recalled the nation to its senses, and revived that "sturdiness of our national character" which appeared to be dangerously weakening.

Mr. Cleveland has removed the sectional and race issues from our politics. Hundreds of thousands of Republicans feared his accession to power chiefly because they dreaded the supremacy of the Solid South, and apprehended untold ills for the negro. Two years have sufficed to dispel these fears. The leading Republican papers of the North have endorsed the pension veto and declared that it ought to be sustained, and then they have seen it sustained chiefly by Southern votes, through the fear of "the soldier vote" on the part of Northern demagogues in Congress. After such an experience they can never raise the sectional howl successfully again. Indeed, it is admitted by all candid Republicans that the bloody shirt is buried. The best friends of the negro—such men as Gen. Armstrong of the Hampton Institute, for example, who has just described a tour through the South—bear witness that "a better feeling between the races is setting in," while the President's controversy with the Senate, regarding his colored nominees for Recorder of Deeds in Washington, has opened the eyes of the negro voters to the hypocrisy of Republican pretences in their behalf, and insured a division of the colored vote in 1888.

Mr. Cleveland has given the country a much-needed exhibition of courage and honesty in public life. His veto of the Pauper Pension Bill was a brave act, which was emphasized by the cowardice of the Congressmen who voted against their convictions to pass the bill over the veto, in obedience to the clamor of claim agents and Grand Army posts. The impression which he has made upon the country is that of an honest man who is trying to do his duty—making mistakes, committing blunders, turning from the straight line, at times, but on the whole holding pretty steadily to his course and making decided progress.

THE FORTY-NINTH CONGRESS.

The Congress which expired at noon on Friday failed to discharge the chief duty imposed upon it. It found the revenues of the country far outrunning the reasonable requirements for the efficient support of the Government, and the public demanding a reduction of the surplus through a reform of the tariff—a demand so general that even the Republican party had felt bound to place in its national platform for the campaign in which this Congress was elected, this promise: "The Republican party pledges itself to correct the irregularities of the tariff and to reduce the surplus." But the Congress has expired without having done anything towards such a reduction of the surplus, which is equivalent to saying that it has neglected the most pressing of all its obligations.

This failure must always constitute a serious

reproach upon the record of the Forty-ninth Congress. But it must not blind the country to the fact that this Congress has rendered the public great services, both positively and negatively. Two of the acts which it has placed upon the statute-book are of the epoch-marking order, while a third bill repeals an act which was of the epoch-marking order. First of these is the act regulating the order of Presidential succession. The old law, which dates back to Washington's first term, provided that in case of the removal, death, resignation, or inability of both the President and Vice-President, the President of the Senate should become acting President until the disability were removed or a new President elected; or if there were, in such an emergency, no President of the Senate, then the Speaker of the House should thus temporarily occupy the Executive chair. As either the Senate or the House might represent in its majority the party opposed to the President and Vice-President, it has repeatedly happened that if the occupant of the White House had died during the term for which he and his associate on the ticket had been elected, a representative of the party which he defeated in that election would have become President for the period until a new election could be held, which might cover more than a year. This has always been an anomaly in our system, the injustice of which has long been recognized, but it was reserved for the Forty-ninth Congress to remove it from the statute-book and substitute the rational and just plan of devolving the succession upon the members of the Cabinet, in the order of their relative rank, beginning with the Secretary of State, and abolishing the requirement of a new election by the people before the regular time; thus insuring the administration of the executive department throughout a four-years term by the party to which the voters had intrusted it.

Not less important is the law which provides for counting the electoral vote. The system which had been maintained for nearly a century, dating from the same period in Washington's Administration, was fatally ambiguous and defective. Its radical faults had more than once provoked controversies in Congress during the counting of the electoral votes, when such controversies were rather academic than practical, and in 1876-77 its fundamental weakness threatened the peace of the country. Yet it has taken ten years—during two of which the Republicans have controlled both branches of Congress, during two the Democrats both, and during six each party one house—to secure the enactment of an efficient substitute for this broken-down old law. The act finally adopted proceeds upon the sound principles of exerting all proper pressure upon the States to settle controversies themselves, accepting the decisions of the State tribunals as final whenever only one return of votes is made to Congress, and providing that in case of two or more returns that return shall be counted which is supported by the certificate of the State executive, unless the two houses, acting separately, shall concur in deciding that it is not the lawful vote of the State.

These two important additions to the statute-book are fitly supplemented by the removal of an act which has long disgraced it. The Tenure-of-Office Act, passed in what was considered a desperate emergency twenty years ago, infringed upon the prerogative of absolute removal from office which had previously been exercised by Presidents, and which is obviously essential to Executive responsibility, by prohibiting the removal of any officer confirmed by the Senate without the Senate's consent. To require the consent of the Senate for the removal of officers as well as for their appointment was but a natural expression of a deep-seated distrust of lodging absolute power in any one person. True, the act was not passed until 1867, and then as a specific check on the power of Andrew Johnson; but twice before in the history of the country, in 1789 and 1835, it only just failed of passage, and it was sure to be agitated from time to time by the same ultra-democratic spirit which has weakened so many of our State constitutions because it cannot recognize that when divided power means divided responsibility, it results in a system of log-rolling and bargaining, and gives rise to a shrewd class of manipulators or bosses who "fix things" and "work things," and yet are never seen; who have the power and yet cannot be held responsible to the voters, and thus, under the forms of democracy, rule as an oligarchy, and leave to the people the privilege of fighting blindly in the dark. Twenty years of the Tenure-of-Office Act have spread unmistakable evidence upon the record that giving the Senate a voice in removals has simply extended the system of log-rolling, which has always been the bane of the service; and that, instead of preventing the President from removing good men, it has made it difficult to oust bad ones.

Here, then, are three great positive achievements, through the passage of bills each of distinct advantage to the public service. With them must be ranked two great negative achievements, through the defeat or suppression of bills. For some years the disposition of demagogues to outbid each other by higher and higher offers for "the soldier vote," through unfair and unreasonable extensions of the pension system, has been an alarming tendency. Nobody seemed to have the courage to call a halt, and things went from bad to worse, until they culminated a few weeks ago in the passage of the Dependent Pension Bill—a measure which offered such bribes to all old soldiers not now receiving pensions as must inevitably have demoralized a large proportion of them into turning paupers, in order to get supported at the public expense. Mr. Cleveland fortunately possessed the moral courage to veto this bill, and 125 out of 300 members of the House voted to sustain him, thus sharing with him the distinction of placing an effective check upon the pension craze.

Another tendency, no less alarming, towards paternalism in Government, has also met an effective check. When the late Congress opened, a scheme which involved Federal intervention in education in the States was promptly brought forward and pushed through the Senate, as it had been pushed through the Senate two years before, not because a majority of the Senators believed it wise—for Mr. Plumb of Kansas declared, without even Mr. Blair's challenging the truth of his assertion, that he could count on the fingers of his two hands "the members on this floor who are actually in favor of this measure"—but because a majority had thoughtlessly committed themselves to it in the past. It went to the House with the expectation that the thoughtless committal of many Northern Republicans to the idea that Federal appropriations for Southern schools would benefit the negroes, combined with the temptations to Southern Democrats of a $77,000,000 bribe, would carry it through. But meanwhile the nature and character of the "Bill to Promote Mendicancy" had been thoroughly exposed; the country had become convinced that the scheme would work harm rather than good; and, with the approval of such intelligent and unselfish friends of negro education as Gen. Armstrong of the Hampton Institute, the measure was killed in the House—killed, we say, because this was its last chance of success. In the session of 1887–88 a plea for Federal appropriations to Southern schools, on the ground that the South is still "impoverished by the war," and that she cannot herself sustain her schools, will be laughed out of Congress by quotations from the wonderful reports of educational progress contained in the reports of Southern school superintendents, and by citations from the celebrations of Southern prosperity which enliven every issue of a Southern newspaper.

These are, in our view, the half-dozen great features of the Forty-ninth Congress. A failure in its chief duty of tariff reform; three positive achievements of the first order in the passage of the Presidential Succession and Electoral Count Bills, and the repeal of the Tenure-of Office Act; and two negative achievements of equal rank, in the arrest of the pension craze and the defeat of the Federal education scheme. Next after these in importance, perhaps, is to be ranked the Inter-State Commerce Bill—an experiment in Federal legislation regarding railways the workings of which will be awaited with great interest. The law granting lands in severalty to Indians marks a long step forward in the solution of the Indian problem. The passage of a bill authorizing a building for the Congressional Library is cause for congratulation. The drastic law for the suppression of polygamy will undoubtedly be carried as soon as possible before the Supreme Court for a judgment as to its constitutionality, of which there are grave doubts. The act referring all private claims, which have long occupied an unreasonable share of the time of Congress, to the Court of Claims, is an important measure of reform in legislative methods. The steady improvement in the postal service receives another impetus in the acts extending the free-delivery system to all places of 10,000 inhabitants, and reducing the fees on postal money orders. The worst bill to set over against these is the one redeeming trade dollars under conditions which will give a profit estimated at more than $4,500,000 to the speculators, and will increase the amount of standard silver dollars that are not needed and will not circulate—a bill which Mr. Cleveland would have done well to veto.

This constitutes on the whole an exception-

ally good record. In considering the credit and blame for this record, it must be remembered that tariff reform was supported by three-fourths of the Democrats, and defeated only by the coalition of nearly all the Republicans with the Randall wing; that the Presidential Succession and Electoral Count Bills were non-partisan in their inception and progress; that the repeal of the Tenure-of-Office Act was opposed by most of the Republicans in both branches; that the sustaining of the pension veto was due solely to Democratic votes, and that it was the Democratic House which suppressed the Blair scheme. Republican organs will berate the Democratic House for its "inefficiency," and it deserves plenty of such censure; but in common fairness it must be remembered that the country owes the good work of the session to the Democratic House in far greater measure than to the Republican Senate.

THE MONEY POWER IN POLITICS AGAIN.

We gave in condensed form last week a startling array of exact statistical information which Mr. W. M. Ivins had for the first time made public, concerning the amounts of money involved in one way or another in our municipal contests. The central fact in the whole matter, it will be recalled, is, that in every city election there is involved in money, in round numbers, $1,500,000. Of this amount about $500,000 is actually paid out on election day, consisting of $290,000 which is paid by the city as legal expenses, and $210,000 which is contributed by the candidates as "assessments." The remaining million is the stake for which the politicians are contending in the election, and consists of $750,000 as salaries for hangers-on and "heelers," and $250,000 as salaries for district leaders. It should be remembered that these are all minimum figures. In national elections the amounts are in all instances much higher, for not only are the stakes played for much greater, but the outlays by the city and by the candidates and parties are greatly increased. Then, too, Mr. Ivins only takes into account the city salaries which are paid to the men actually engaged in political work. The aggregate of Federal salaries paid in New York city is $2,500,000, and the aggregate of municipal salaries is about $10,000,000. Here is a total of $12,500,000 in salaries alone, and this is one of the prizes which the various Machine bosses are fighting to get "a hack at."

It is easy to see how such conditions have led to the building up of our present political Machines. They were an absolute necessity, from the nature of the case. The State has neglected to provide any election machinery beyond that for registering, receiving, and recording the vote. There is no State provision for printing and circulating ballots, and to perform this work the Machines were put in motion, and, to pay their expenses, the assessments upon candidates followed naturally. As the city increased in size, the expenses also increased, and larger assessments became constantly necessary. It would be a gross injustice to many honorable candidates to intimate that there has been any criminal intent on their part in paying these assessments. The larger part of the money undoubtedly goes in every election to the payment of legitimate expenses. But the great evil of the system is that it is a constant temptation to corruption and greed. It leads naturally to a sale of nominations to the highest bidder. The men who do the work on election day are also the men who make the nominations. Naturally, they desire for candidates men who will make the most liberal contributions before election, and also the most liberal promises of aid and support at the city's expense after election. The only check upon this tendency which the honest sentiment of the city can exert is by defeating at the ballot-box men who are notoriously unfit. This operates strongly enough in times of unusual interest to secure for us good candidates for Mayor and a few of the higher offices, but beyond that it has little or no influence.

The assessment evil is the most pernicious of all. It sometimes puts upon the benches of our courts men who would never have been thought of for judges if they had not been able to buy a nomination. It puts into our county offices men whose chief merit is that they will pledge themselves to use the office to its utmost capacity for the benefit of the politicians. Then, too, a man who has paid a heavy assessment before getting into office is bound to devote all his energies to getting back his money out of the office, if there is any possible way for him to do so. A striking illustration of the way John Kelly used his political power to help supply deficiencies in his assessment funds was revealed a few years ago. A former President of the Excise Board stated that during his term of office, while Tammany had a majority in the Board, John Kelly gave that majority orders to allow no license to be granted unless the applicant could show receipts for two subscriptions to the *Star* newspaper, which Mr. Kelly owned. In this way the Tammany leader accomplished two things, in addition to getting about 6,000 subscribers to his paper—he succeeded in getting the *Star* into the greater part of the liquor-saloons, and in keeping out of them every other Democratic paper, for a liquor-dealer who had to pay two subscriptions to one paper was not likely to take any other.

The remedy for the present evils is plain enough, and happily it is not an experimental one. It consists simply in putting the election machinery in charge of the State, on the same plan which has worked so successfully in England. The printing and distributing of ballots should be done at the State's expense, and, in addition to that, anti-bribery laws like the English should be enacted. Previous to 1883 these English laws forbade the *receipt* of money for uses connected with elections, but in that year a law was passed which forbade the *disbursement* of more than a fixed amount proportionate to the size of the constituency. A borough constituency of 2,000 electors is allowed £350 sterling if one member of Parliament is to be chosen, and £525 if two are to be. The maximum sum for a borough of 66,000 electors is £3,000. This must cover all expenses—printing, postage, renting of rooms, agents—everything. All disbursements must be made by one person, either the candidate himself or his agent. If he employs an agent for the purpose, he must not disburse a farthing himself. An account with vouchers must be kept of all disbursements, and returned under oath after election. Penalties for paying more than the allowed sum are visited upon the candidate and the agent in the form of political disabilities, if the payment is not accompanied by bribery; if bribery be involved, the penalties for that offence are superadded.

This law demonstrated its wonderful efficacy immediately. At the preceding general election the sum of $7,500,000 was spent in campaigning and bribery of one form or another. In the first election under the law, there was only one case in which the money expended exceeded the limit allowed, and in this case the member elected was unseated. While in 1880, with 419 constituencies and with 3,000,000 voters, the expenditures had been $15,000,000, in 1885, with 611 constituencies and 5,670,000 voters, the expenditure was only $3,900,000. Ninety-five petitions alleging corrupt practices were presented in 1880, only two were presented in 1885, and in 1886 only one. Corruption in politics had been practically abolished. A similar law could not fail to work in the same way here. Modifications might be necessary to adapt it to our system of government, but they would be only slight. The main effect—that is, taking the machinery of nominations and elections out of the hands of the men who now control both, and control them for evil purposes—would be accomplished.

COUNTRY LIVING FOR CITY PEOPLE.

We have more than once urged upon innkeepers, and others engaged in providing for the great company of summer visitors to the country, the duty of getting out of the ruts in which that important business is usually "run." We have explained that if not strictly a duty (and indeed it can be esteemed so only figuratively, or, at most, in the way of what theologians call a counsel of perfection), this is, at any rate, a necessity, in order that the "summer-boarder" trade shall yield the highest amount of profit on one hand and a reasonable degree of satisfaction on the other. There is no other occupation of man that we can think of in which a little intelligence, a little reasoning, a little respect for plain facts, a little applied common sense, and a little courage will pay so well. To change thousands of dreary summer boarding-places into small paradises, it would suffice if their keepers would only change their point of view and acquire a trifle of knowledge. If they do not know, let them inquire and learn, what people in towns are used to and therefore must have; and what they are used to and therefore want to get rid of; and let them further learn to distinguish between these two classes of things. People in towns are used to baths, and they want baths; they are used to society, but they do not want that; they are gorged with society, and they want to be let alone, or at least to have the possibility of being alone, in comfort. It is not so necessary that the boarding-house keepers should know what people cannot have in towns, and therefore come to seek in the country, because in general these are things

which the boarding-houses can neither supply nor take away.

We have not been much aided by our contemporaries in this useful missionary preaching. The subject, perhaps, wanted dignity in their eyes. But the New York, Ontario and Western Railway Company sees the importance of it in a business way, and, having regard to its own interest in the increase of summer travel to the wild and beautiful region through which its line runs, has undertaken the education of the rural mind in the art of living. To this end it has caused to be written by "Marion Harland," and has just published, under the title prefixed to this article, a little book of "Familiar Talk," full of really penetrative good sense, so wise and practical and well-directed that, wherever its advice on the proper care of summer boarders is followed, not only will their comfort and pleasure be greatly enlarged, but the ruralist's profit must be increased also. The railway company estimates that the summer visitors to Sullivan, Ulster, and Delaware Counties in 1886 expended there a sum equal to four-fifths of the total annual value of the farm products of those counties, and urges that this comparison shows that a good crop of summer boarders is "the best possible crop a thrifty farmer can raise"; but it "needs hearty effort to harvest this crop."

It is not often that our railway companies go to the bottom of things like this, and the travelling public will do well to see that the little book has a wide circulation, particularly in purely rural regions, where, as we all have often enough perceived, anxiously good intentions exist, together with sufficient means, but with total incapacity of producing pleasurable results, through pure ignorance of what is to be done and how to set about doing it. The value of Mrs. Terhune's advice is that she furnishes information under each of these heads, and in a very lucid manner. She addresses herself chiefly to the women, in a style which women will read with sympathy and understanding. Rather more than half of her book is given to the kitchen, being devoted mainly to recipes not too bright or good for human nature's daily food in a well-conditioned farm-house. The rest of it is directed to the care of the table and of bedrooms, and to suggestion of general principles, which is the most useful portion of all. That direful phrase, "all the comforts of a home," receives due discouragement—a phrase for which the not less familiar "all hope abandon" is a fair equivalent, since the only really hopeless "summer place" is the one where the idea thus expressed finds favor. "Sweep away from thought and from advertisement," says Mrs. Terhune, "the idea of giving the peculiar 'comforts' of a city home. Your best attempts would be a caricature."

We affirm entire agreement with Mrs. Terhune's principles and particulars. The comfort of a summer boarding-place lies almost wholly in making the most of its own peculiarities, and in sinking all rivalry with town luxuries. The air, the view, sun and shade, inviting places in which to sit or lie outdoors, tubs and towels, and plenty of water, profusion of the few vegetables or fruits which will not bear transportation (who ever really tastes green corn—and hardly green peas—in New York?), and all other products of the neighborhood marketed, on the house table — these are of the things which people seek for in the country. They are all easily to be furnished, but are rarely had, for want of thought and of management. Even for air and view, sun and shade, it is required that windows may open and shut easily, that they shall have blinds; that pigsties, and stables, and slop pools shall not be about the house. As for the other things, the bucolic mind is slow but tenacious, and it is knowledge of that which makes it worth urging that "p'doose" really fetches a price three times as high on the boarders' table as in Washington Market; that in a room a good bed, a comfortable chair, a decent reading-lamp, an honest table for washing, in place of the odorous "commode," a big can of water, a tin tub, and twice the usual supply of towels, will bring in, together, a clear addition of at least two dollars a week; that a good vegetable garden, not merely "put in," anyhow, in a spring hurry, and left to grow up to weeds, but early planted, and carefully tended, will be more profitable than any five acres of the farm besides; that New Yorkers do not want stale sea-fish in a mountain country, or look on bull-beef and ham as luxuries, but long for the frogs or trout or black bass or catfish, which the boys might catch close by the house; for poultry, for really new-laid eggs, etc., etc.

These are a few of the simple lessons which the bucolic mind in time will master; and when it does, life for a certain season of the year will wear a new face for most of us.

THE RÉMUSATS.

PARIS, February 25, 1887.

THE last two volumes (v and vi) of the correspondence of the Rémusats have just made their appearance. They extend from the year 1818 to the year 1821, in which year Mme. de Rémusat died in Paris. During this period M. de Rémusat was Prefect at Lille, but his son Charles was in Paris and was living in the most interesting society of the time. The letters of Mme. de Rémusat, as in the other volumes of this correspondence, are the best, in our opinion. She had a real epistolary talent, she knew how to touch every subject with a light hand; she was writing at that time the Memoirs which have already become famous, and which Taine considers one of the most valuable documents for the history of Bonaparte. About these Memoirs she writes to her son:

"Do you know a reflection which sometimes troubles me? I say to myself: 'If some day my son publishes all this, what will people think of me?' I am afraid some people will think me wicked or malicious. I do try to find occasions for praise; but that man [she means Bonaparte] has been such a destroyer [*assommateur*] of virtue, and we were so low, that often my soul feels discouraged and the truth presses me. I know nobody, nobody but you, to whom I should like to make such confidences."

The editor of the Memoirs adds here in a note: "We know, from other passages of her letters, that my grandmother accepted and even desired the posthumous publication of her Memoirs, and my father made this publication one of my duties."

Young Rémusat was a Liberal; he always had something to say against the ultras, against Chateaubriand and his friends. His mother was somewhat of the same idea. She said to him: "The aristocracy was radically destroyed in France before the establishment of a representative government. Our civilization created our middle classes, an enlightened bourgeoisie, the strength of France, and our Constitution is based on this fact." Her son answered thus, as a sort of echo:

"The Revolution, if we understand by this word the events of '89, did not destroy the nobility—the nobility no longer existed. It merely shook down the façade, which was still erect, of a building which had been demolished long before. The Terror passed a plough over these ruins, and the construction rapidly erected by Bonaparte has not survived him. . . . The ultras will be like the Jews, a society dispersed, foreign to the surrounding society. Bonaparte and those who would like to imitate him—that is to say, who would try to rebuild with the remains of the old monarchy—resemble the Emperor Julian trying to rebuild the Temple of Jerusalem. There will issue from the earth flames which will devour the work and the laborers."

Rémusat had given himself body and soul to politics. He was the curious, intelligent, and disinterested witness of the first trial of parliamentary government in France. He was young, but cared not for the pleasures of youth. He spent most of his time at the Chamber and in the political drawing-rooms. He was full of illusions and had few prejudices. He was instinctively hostile to the *ancien régime*, and to the people who represented it. He thought that the time had arrived for a merely intellectual aristocracy, changing, going from hand to hand. He saw society in a state of perpetual transformation, and perceived no fixed laws, no fixed institutions anywhere. His mind was essentially fluid, and his opinions never took any definite form. Contradiction was for him not only an amusement, a necessity. The letters to his mother and of his mother to him are a sort of continuous duel, a duel of wit, of courtesy, of grace.

It is difficult to imagine the state of mind of a young man born to political life in the most terrible crisis, during the invasion of his country by foreigners, after the Revolution and the downfall of Bonaparte. Rémusat's mind had no fixed principles, though he attached himself to the little school of doctrinaires who pretended to make a code of principles for the government of the world. It was surely a great honor for him to be admitted to the familiarity of such men as the Duc de Broglie, who was one of the founders of the doctrinaire school; but he was not so much impressed with it that he could not write a very amusing song on his reception into that sacred *cénacle*. The song was called "The Neophyte," and had much success. It can be judged by this couplet:

> "Mais, repris-je d'un air timide,
> Quand vous vous assemblez ici
> Quel est l'intérêt qui vous guide?
> —Notre but, Monsieur, le voici:
> Ranger l'empire du possible
> Sous un gouvernement normal,
> Et sur le monde intelligible
> Exercer le pouvoir moral."

This is not a bad criticism of the high-sounding vagueness of the doctrinaires, and of their obscurity. The French mind was very ill prepared by the Revolution and by the Empire for a rational use of political and parliamentary liberties. The doctrinaires had to complete their own education before they could effect the education of the people; and the correspondence of the Rémusats shows how much the Chambers and the parties blundered. There was much good will among the men who supported the throne of Louis XVIII., much eloquence, much elevation; there was also much ignorance and prejudice. The Revolution had destroyed, in many senses, the national unity; it had broken all the old barriers, destroyed whatever had a provincial or even a municipal character; but it had divided the nation into victims and executioners, it had sown seeds of immortal hatred and of incurable jealousy.

It is almost impossible at such a distance to form a correct opinion of the state of France in 1818; some little touches in Mme. de Rémusat's letters are more eloquent than volumes "The ultras," she writes to her husband, "are mad with joy, and, as usual, very imprudent. Fancy our cousin, Mme. de Vergennes, going yesterday morning to see the King, and paying him a compliment on his having become a *royalist*. The epithets *coquin*, *faquin*, are given to every Liberal, whatever shade he belongs to." Imagine the Chancellor saying: "Thank God! we shall soon have no Chambers at all." The quarrels of M. de Richelieu and of M. Decazes divided society; they were really the quarrels between the old régime and the new.

An aunt of the Rémusats wrote to them a very solemn letter, blaming the young Charles for having written an article on Mme. de Staël, conceived in a liberal spirit: it seemed to her as if young Rémusat had become a real Jacobin in the society of such men as M. de Staël, the Duc de Broglie, Benjamin Constant—"people," said she, "whose approbation is very little honorable, and would be, for Charles, a misfortune." Young Charles had made his choice; he had thrown his lot among the progressive men of his time. "The simplest policy," he says to his mother, "is to start from the present and to conquer the future. But people are always speaking to us of the past; so the nation also throws herself on the past, and is almost ready to defend '93 because '89 is attacked." He attached himself to the new men, to the doctrinaires. "I assure you," he writes to his mother, "that the doctrinaires are remarkable, not only for their talent, but because they reveal to us a moral nature which is entirely new. It is a fine spectacle to see them claim liberty for mankind, not because it is convenient, but because it is just; fine to hear people ask for tolerance who need no tolerance. It is this spectacle which was wanting in France." M. Guizot was the rising star of the new school, and those who, like myself, knew him in his old age, can imagine with what an air, what a mien, he could say, in the discussion on a law for the protection of religion, to one of those who proposed the law: "Why, sir, do you mean to help with a torch the march of the sun?" Hitherto liberalism had been too irreligious. Tocqueville has well shown, in his book on the institutions of modern France, how the Revolution had been prepared by atheists or deists. Rémusat could write to his mother that "among the 250 members of the Chamber, there are at least 150 who only believe in Voltaire." Such men as Royer-Collard and Guizot were a novelty among all these Voltairians. The Voltarians wanted the altar simply as a basis for the throne: they had not the doctrinaire ideal of liberty associated with virtue and with religion.

Lille was a very small horizon for a woman like Mme. de Rémusat, but she was easily satisfied. She describes her little evening circle: "This circle is formed by a few ladies of this country and by officers of the Royal Guard, with their colonel at their head, who is the best and the most unreasonable of men. His name is D'Aubusson; he was once intoxicated with Bonaparte; he only understands a king on horseback, commanding a charge two hundred leagues away from his kingdom." She had her ultras: "Yesterday," says she, "I had my ultras at dinner. I amused myself by talking like a doctrinaire. 'You don't understand,' said I; 'do try to understand; don't always put men in the place of things.'" The poor ultras did not understand.

The Rémusats were not quite satisfied when their son became a regular contributor to a new paper called the *Courrier Français*, founded by Royer-Collard, Beugnot, Barante, Guizot, Villemain; they were very much afraid of his writing aggressive articles. Mme. de Rémusat came to Paris and discussed the question with M. Guizot; he reassured her, and said that they all intended to help the Government, that they would make no systematic opposition, that they would later find some Government office for Charles. Mme. de Rémusat was equally proud of her son, of his great successes at the age of twenty-two, and afraid of his impatience, of his imprudence. While she was in Paris her son was appointed Secretary of a Commission of Councillors of State, who had to prepare, under the presidency of the Minister of Justice, new laws on the jury. After this triumph she returned to Lille, and looked for some distraction in writing a book on the education of women (this book was published after her death by her husband in 1824, and a new edition is in preparation under the care of M. Gréard).

It must be confessed that these two new volumes of correspondence have not as much interest as the preceding ones. It is difficult for us to feel the same alarms as the Rémusats when they read at Lille their son's articles, written in Paris. He was in the fight, and they were in a quiet city of Flanders. As a prefect, Rémusat, the father, was, of course, completely dependent; and he could not help being afraid that the ministers might become angry with his son and accuse him of weakening the Administration. Passions ran very high in Paris. The doctrinaires found it difficult at times to support the Government; they were placed between two fires—between the ultras and the Liberals, who were becoming stronger every day, and who had allied themselves with the old Bonapartists. There is a curious account, in the sixth volume, of the assassination of the Duc de Berri at the Opéra, by Louvel, with all the details, and the echo of the emotions of the hour. Lally-Tollendal proposed to the Chamber of Peers an address which threw the responsibility of the crime of Louvel on the Liberal doctrines. In the Chamber of Deputies a deputy proposed that M. Decazes should be prosecuted. Decazes had to resign, and Chateaubriand had the cruelty to write in the *Débats*: "His feet slipped in the blood." Rémusat writes to his mother that the drawing-rooms had ceased to be tenable.

The crime of Louvel was the signal for a great reaction against constitutionalism and liberalism. Mme. de Rémusat was greatly agitated by these struggles; she liked Liberalism more than she liked the Liberals; she was afraid that her son might make mistakes. She was highly sensitive, delicate in politics as she was in everything. Her health had become altered, and she was obliged to leave Lille in the spring of 1820. After a while she became so ill that her husband had to leave Lille. Mme. de Rémusat took the most intense interest in the affairs of her country to the very end. Her son and her husband were the objects of her passionate affection, and she could not help feeling constantly afraid of their future. Her last days were marked by great agitation. A very short time afterwards, M. de Rémusat lost his place as prefect; the ordinance of M. de Villèle, which removed him from Lille, was signed on the 9th of January, 1822.

Correspondence.

THE PRESIDENT AND THE CONSTITUTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The recent course of political events seems to make it almost inevitable that the next Presidential contest will turn largely upon the question whether the President is right in his doctrine that "the Government should not support the people."

It is not to be presumed that a single veto has killed for ever a project so full of food for political harpies as the Dependent Pension Bill. That a similar measure will be passed by the next Congress may be taken for granted, as well as that it will again be vetoed. Considering the complexion of the Congress-elect, it may also be presumed that it will require hard work to prevent the passage of such a measure over the veto.

Is it not a fact that we are tasting now of the evils of seeking, by construction, a warrant in our Constitution for powers which its framers never intended it to grant? The Articles of Confederation were abandoned because they were a "rope of sand," and a substitute was adopted which, it was thought, would stand the strain with perfect safety; but, if your readers will pardon the figure, we have greased our new rope, thrown it over a precipice, and started on the descent. It is probably the intention of most people to stop at the end, but as the Supreme Court has carefully removed the knot which our worthy ropemakers tied there, the chances seem to be against an easy stoppage.

In all seriousness, could there be any greater or more necessary safeguard for popular institutions in the United States at present than a firm belief in and practice of the theory that our Constitution is to be taken just as its framers intended it to be taken? If we could depend upon our Supreme Court to block every appropriation of public money for which no positive warrant could be found in the Constitution, the various classes who are continually endeavoring to quarter themselves, in some way or other, upon the Treasury, would be compelled to turn their attention to the work of making a new Constitution. That, of course, would require the conversion to their theories of a good majority of the American people, pending which that part of the population which makes a point of attending strictly to its own business could enjoy a long life of comparative quiet and prosperity.

President Cleveland has brought out the fact that we need to get our feet upon solid ground again. His renomination, which is almost a certainty, will give us a good opportunity to show whether or not we are willing to do so. It is very possible that such a Republican as Sherman or Harrison would be too wise to retreat from the position to which Cleveland has gone forward in reforming the civil service. It is not possible that either one of the men named, or any other man at all likely to be mentioned for the nomination, could be depended upon to stand between the Treasury and such schemes of legalized plundering as the Blair Educational Bill and the Dependent Pension Bill.

Will the people be equal to the occasion?

W.

ONE-MAN POWER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The epitaph of the Forty-ninth Congress might be taken from the Liturgy of the Episcopal Church—"We have left undone those things which we ought to have done. We have done those things which we ought not to have done, and there is no health in us." It would lack, however, the quality of distinctiveness, as it would be just as applicable to any Congress since the war. Is there any hope that it will be less so to any future Congress? Or are we to go on year after year, while the will-o'-the-wisp leads us deeper and deeper into the bog? The papers discuss the conduct of a Democratic majority. It is fair to say that it is little if any better or worse than a Republican majority. The trouble is that Congress is itself a mob, equally distracted in its efforts and its failure to do anything.

One startling result of the session, however, is

a fresh illustration of the way in which the necessity of leadership has developed into one-man power, but unaccompanied by one-man responsibility. Of late years the country has begun to perceive the immense and irresponsible power lodged in the hands of the Speaker, in theory an impartial presiding officer, but in practice a partisan leader. But a new phenomenon has appeared in the despotism of Mr. Randall, as Chairman of the Committee on Appropriations. Not that it is merely a personal achievement of Mr. Randall. The elaborate rules through which the House has struggled to get into working condition furnished the opportunity, and the man was sure to come, as others will be sure to follow him. The peculiarity of the situation is that, while the Speaker is responsible to a majority of the House (in fact a mere tool in their hands), the Chairman of Appropriations is responsible to no earthly authority but the voters of his district, who are much more likely to be gratified by seeing him rule the House, than troubled by his failure to use his power for the public benefit. His danger lies in the fierce competition of jealous rivals, whose object is to supplant rather than reform him.

Senator Hoar described the situation in a speech which called forth nothing but bitter acrimony; and in fact there are two or three considerations which make the effect almost worse than if he had said nothing. In the first place, it was done in the Senate, and of course the corporate spirit of the House will be up in arms at the interference of "the other body" with its affairs. Then Mr. Hoar represents only Massachusetts, and the other thirty-six States will be much more disposed to snub than to suppport him, as may be easily seen by glancing at the newspapers of other parts of the country. Lastly, the pugnacity of Mr. Randall's own constituents will be distinctly increased rather than diminished.

If there must be a leader or leaders, it seems obvious that they should be representative of the whole country. If the Secretary of the Treasury had been in the House during the session, a few questions from independent members might have drawn from him a statement similar, indeed, to that of Mr. Hoar, but having a very different aspect in the eyes of the country, and which, followed up, might lead to a fundamental reform of methods, and thereby of results, and thus make the history of the Fifty-ninth Congress a very different thing from that of the one just expired.

G. B.

BOSTON, March 5, 1887.

BALTIMORE "POLITICS."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The excellent article upon the rule of the criminal classes in Baltimore, which appeared in your issue of February 24, was aptly and pointedly illustrated on the day of its publication; for on that day the Mayor reappointed and the Council confirmed for the position of a Superintendent of Streets one James F. Busey, a notorious desperado of the Seventeenth Ward. The record of the arrests, indictments, and convictions of this man form an interesting and unique chapter in the criminal annals of our city. Busey is not without congenial company, but space would fail me to tell the names and achievements of the various worthies whom our Mayor (to use his own choice phraseology) has bidden to "seats at the Government table." J. H. B.

BALTIMORE, March 5, 1887.

TAXATION OF PERSONAL PROPERTY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your remarks in regard to the taxation of personal property suggest the following point. Holding a mortgage against property that will sell for $4,000, to nearly the amount of its value, the property is assessed $3,000 and the mortgage is assessed $3,000. The rate of taxation being nearly four per cent., the holder receives but two per cent. for the use of his money. In view of this fact, he forces settlement of the mortgage and obtains possession of the property, which he rents so favorably that he obtains over six per cent. on the investment after taxes and other expenses are met. The property now pays but one tax, the personal having been wiped out by cancellation of the mortgage. In accordance with the views of our legislative wiseacres, ought he not to be taxed for the privilege of receiving rent instead of interest?—Yours truly,

M. A. VEEDER.

LYONS, N. Y., March 4, 1887.

WAS JEFFERSON DAVIS A REPUDIATOR?

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In Mr. Roosevelt's 'Life of Benton' (p. 220) I notice the following statement:

"Before Jefferson Davis took his place among the arch-traitors in our annals, he had already been known as one of the chief repudiators."

As Mr. Davis was never a member of the Mississippi Legislature, I should be glad to know the authority for this assertion. B.

THE NEW SOUTH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: History repeats itself, and sometimes one of its repetitions is suggestive. In more than one of the barbarian kingdoms which were established on the ruins of the Roman Empire, when, after a reign of lawless violence, some king had put it down with a strong hand, the resulting security would be described by saying, "A man with his bosom full of gold might pass in safety from one end of the kingdom to the other," or by some similar statement—a kind of barbarian description of barbarian security.

A few days ago the city where I live was honored by a visit from one of the members of a "celebrated" family which has maintained in a neighboring county a partial reign of terror for nearly a generation, in carrying on a bloody feud with another celebrated family. An enterprising daily sent a reporter to interview the gentleman, and his "views" are interesting. After denouncing in vigorous language those who report that human life is not respected in his community, he proves that perfect good order exists there by saying, "A man may ride over our country with an armload of greenbacks, and a thousand chances to one he will never be hurt."

Verily this is progress—a first step, you see, out of the condition which you have so often been pleased to call barbarism. Congratulate us, please. PRESTON.

THE DEGREE OF A.B.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Apart from the question whether the B.A. degree should stand for any kind of college training, or for instruction in the ancient classics together with other subjects, there is not so much danger of its deterioration by the "academies with degree-giving powers" as some persons imagine. The fact of the matter is, that many of the instructors in such institutions are graduates of real colleges; and, holding the genuine degree themselves, they practically withhold it from their students who for one reason or another are unfit for the honor. This is done by establishing a curriculum leading to the degree of B.A., somewhere near the standard of the older colleges, but beyond the ability of most of the students to reach. Then easier courses are laid out leading to the comparatively unimportant degrees of Ph.B., B.S., and B.L., and in these most of the students are graduated. I do not say that this is the rule with all or even a majority of such colleges; but that the number of candidates for the inferior degrees exceeds the number who are to receive the degree of B.A. in many minor institutions, any doubter can see by consulting the last report of the Commissioner of Education.

Again, it is worth considering that the weaker institutions generally have a local patronage, and their graduates do not often come in contact with those of the same generation whose degrees are of the first quality, so to speak; there being no comparison, the evil is not great to the country at large. Still, one is inclined to wish that the general Government could in some way be given a censorship over degree-conferring institutions, so that the same title would have an approximate value all over the country. But as the Government has not such power, certainly the States ought to look to the matter. W. A. M.

COLLEGE HILL, OHIO, February 28, 1887.

PLASTOUNOFF AS AN EMBRYOLOGIST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I received to-day the enclosed letter from our enterprising Russian, in which he poses as an embryologist:

"MOST REVEREND SIR: If it is permitted for a stranger like me, may I ask as a great favour that you will be good enough as to send me kindly a copy of your work, 'Zoology for students and general reader.' In return it will give me great pleasure to send you a copy of my work on Embryology, if you are acquainted with Russian language. I remain, sir, yours most respectfully, ROMAN PLASTOUNOFF.

"KIEW, 19 Febr., 1887."

The works of the Russian embryologists are well known to American students, especially those connected with the University of Kiew; we need scarcely add that Plastounoff's name does not appear among them.

Yours respectfully, A. S. PACKARD.

PROVIDENCE, March 7, 1887.

Notes.

THE CENTURY CO. are about to publish the Rev. C. S. Robinson's course of lectures, during the present winter, on Egypt, under the title, 'The Pharaohs of the Bondage and the Exodus,' in the light of the latest discoveries among the royal tombs.

Recent discoveries in the East are also the basis of 'Echoes of Bible History,' by the Rt. Rev. W. P. Walsh, Bishop of Ossory, Ireland, in the press of Thomas Whittaker.

'The Theology of Evolution,' a lecture by Prof. E. D. Cope, will shortly be published by Arnold & Co., Philadelphia.

Ticknor & Co.'s spring announcements include 'American Literature and Other Papers,' by the late Edwin P. Whipple, with an introduction by J. G. Whittier; 'Last Memorials of Henry Wadsworth Longfellow,' by his brother; 'Due North,' a book of European travel, by Maturin M. Ballou; 'Day Dreams and Musings,' by Mrs. S. G. W. Benjamin; 'Lights and Shadows of a Life,' by Madeleine Vinton Dahlgren; and the following novels: 'Two Gentlemen of Boston'; 'The Strike in the B—— Mills'; 'The Confessions of Claud,' by Edgar Fawcett; 'The Devil's Bat,' by Melville Philips. In May the same firm will begin a weekly issue, for three months, of paper-covered volumes for summer reading, embracing "some of the choicest and most successful novels of late years," with some brand-new ones. Still

later they will bring out 'The New Astronomy,' by S. P. Langley, illustrated; 'Stories and Sketches,' by John Boyle O'Reilly; 'Safe Building,' by Louis De Coppet Berg; a new and enlarged Concordance to the Bible, by the Rev. J. B. R. Walker; and 'Steadfast,' a novel, by Rose Terry Cooke.

Scribner & Welford will be the American publishers of Robert Buchanan's 'A Look Round Literature.' They will also issue a new edition of Fleming's 'Vocabulary of Philosophy.'

Chas. Scribner's Sons will add 'The Early Tudors' to the "Epochs of Modern History" series.

The text of the "Adelphi" of Terence, with stage directions, by Henry Preble, instructor in Latin at Harvard College, will be published on April 1, by Ginn & Co.

Mr. Edmund Gosse has been preparing a course of lectures on the English critics under Queen Anne—an interesting subject, although even the best of them, John Dennis, is now as dead as Queen Anne herself. After being delivered before the Royal Institute in London, they will appear as a book.

Among recent English announcements is the "Mermaid Series," to contain the best plays of the old dramatists, unexpurgated. It will be edited by Havelock Ellis, with a general introduction by J. A. Symonds. There will be about five plays in every volume, besides a preface by an expert. Mr. Ellis begins with a volume of Marlowe, and will edit later a volume of Ford. Mr. Swinburne has written an introduction for the selection from Middleton, and Mr. Gosse will edit the selection from Shirley. Mr. Symonds prepares the volumes from Webster, Cyril Tourneur, and Heywood. The series is intended to include not only the chief dramatists of the Elizabethan period, but those also of the Restoration. The Hon. Roden Noel will edit Otway, and volumes of Dryden, Lee, and Congreve are also announced.

In the monthly volumes of the "Canterbury Poets," edited by William Sharp, twenty-seven poets have now appeared, including five Americans—Longfellow, Whittier, Poe, Emerson, and Whitman. In the corresponding prose series, the "Camelot Classics," edited by Ernest Rhys, thirteen numbers have appeared, of which three are of American authorship—Thoreau's 'Walden,' Lowell's 'My Study Windows,' and the prose writings of Longfellow.

The latest American addition to the Tauchnitz series is Miss Alcott's 'Jo's Boys.'

Mr. A. W. A'Beckett has revised and enlarged his father's famous 'Comic Blackstone,' and it is now appearing in monthly parts with illustrations by Mr. Harry Furniss (London: Bradbury, Agnew & Co.; New York: Scribner & Welford).

Mr. Samuel Arthur Bent's 'Familiar Short Sayings of Great Men' (Ticknor & Co.) has taken to itself the prefix "Familiar" since it first appeared in 1882. It now presents itself in a fifth edition—proof that its solid merits have been appreciated. A very considerable extension has been given to it, sometimes in the way of additions, as in the case of Chatham, whose "atrocious crime of being a young man" is at last recorded; sometimes by wholly new insertions, as in the case of Emerson. The recent Carlyle literature has enabled Mr. Bent to represent this writer much more freely than heretofore, and there is given a very convenient list of judgments on his contemporaries, with a large American contingent—Sumner, Judge Hoar, Margaret Fuller, Dr. Hedge, Washington. In accordance with his method, Mr. Bent passes from Carlyle's estimate of Judge Hoar to some of the latter's views of *his* contemporaries, like the savage one on Wendell Phillips. The Lincolniana are multiplied, and President Cleveland opens a wholly new chapter with "Public office is a public trust," "Offensive partisanship," etc., in the course of which we have the etymology and the political origin of "mugwump," and hear Flanagan of Texas asking, "What are we here for ?" Even "Rum, Romanism, and Rebellion" is not omitted. The devil's insufficient title to all the good times is taken from Wesley and assigned to the Rev. Rowland Hill. Webster, in reply to Hayne, referred to the doctrine that a national debt is a national blessing. We are reminded that it was Sam Patch who first said: "Some things can be done as well as others." A special index has been made for the addenda to this useful work.

'Bedside Poetry: A Parent's Assistant in Moral Discipline' (Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.) aims to furnish a convenient collection of verse chosen with reference to its moral bearings, but also with a view to elevating the literary taste of the children to whom it may be read. To facilitate its application to daily conduct, a so-called Key to the moralities enforced by the poems is furnished in dictionary fashion. The poets found available are comparatively few in number, and our American anthology contributes its full share.

Knowles's "Hunchback" and "Love-Chase," Peacock's 'Crotchet Castle,' more of Plutarch's Lives—Pericles, Fabius Maximus, Demosthenes, and Cicero—and Macaulay's 'Lays of Ancient Rome,' are the latest issues in "Cassell's National Library."

The Clarendon Press, Oxford (New York: Macmillan), publishes in pleasing form 'Thirteen Satires of Juvenal,' edited with introduction and notes by C. H. Pearson and Herbert A. Strong. The introduction comprises five parts, beginning with an admirable sketch of Juvenal's life by Mr. Pearson, who seeks with scholarly care and acumen to sift the truth from the various manuscript biographies of Juvenal, and discusses Juvenal's character and place in literature. On pages 36 and 37, Mr. Pearson observes, with well-concealed humor, that Juvenal was a Puritan, that his wit is American and is comparable with Mr. Lowell's. The second part of the introduction tabulates briefly the conclusions arrived at by Prof. Nettleship in a lecture on the correspondence between the epigrams of Martial and the satires of Juvenal. The third, fourth, and fifth parts treat respectively of the chief codices of Juvenal, the social condition of Rome under the early Empire, and the Roman *satura*. Jahn's text is adopted in the main; but use is made of Beer's collation of the codex Pithœanus described in his 'Spicilegium Juvenalianum' (Leipzig, 1882). This edition is designed for schools and universities, and is admirably adapted to its purpose. The notes are scholarly and are very full, as they must needs be. Although the editors say that they have expurgated the text so that it may safely be perused by mixed classes, they have fallen far short of prudery in their eliminations, and have left not a few lines, as *e. g.*, i. 77 and 78, iii. 65, x. 220, xi. 186 and 187, xiv. 25-29, which modest young men and women could not wish to read together.

M. Abraham Dreyfus, one of the brightest of the younger French dramatists of our day, has gathered into one volume 'Jouons la Comédie' (Paris: Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern), seven little one-act comedies, all of which are quite decorous according to the French code, and most of which are perfectly proper even in the eyes of an American young girl. We may single out for special praise "La Victime," "Une Rupture," and "Le Klephte"—this last being a most ingenious variation of the theme treated more coarsely in the little German play "Eigensinn."

Les Archives Théâtrales is the title of a new monthly record of music and the drama in Paris. It is edited by M. Paul Meyan, and published by MM. Tresse & Stock (New York: F. W. Christern), and will appear as a thirty-six-page pamphlet on the tenth of every month, the final issue of the year containing the index, etc. The '*Erc* Almanack' for 1887 contains the record of the English stage for 1886. Its chief attraction is a series of facsimiles of autograph letters of leading actors and actresses in answer to the query: "What is the most striking incident of your professional experience ?" This is a variety of the "symposium" not yet attempted in America. The record of the American stage of last year is to be found in the '*Clipper* Almanac'—side by side with the record of other things more materialistic.

M. le vicomte d'Avenel has detached from the volumes in preparation of his 'Richelieu et la Monarchie absolue'—two having already been published (Paris: Plon, 1884)—several very interesting chapters for the *Revue Historique*. In these he shows the state of the French clergy in the first half of the seventeenth century. With great impartiality he depicts the numerous abuses that had gradually crept into the French Church, most of these being abuses really introduced by the State, against which pious ecclesiastics struggled in vain. The injurious effects of the union of Church and State as it existed until the Revolution of 1789 are clearly shown by M. d'Avenel, who in many cases makes use of unpublished historical documents with such skill that the dry and often petty facts with which he has to deal become revelations, throwing a flood of light upon a very obscure corner of history.

There are many questions connected with the life of Columbus which are still veiled in obscurity, and concerning which there is great variance of opinion. A new contribution to the literature of the subject lies before us. It is entitled 'Acten zu Columbus' Geschichte von 1473 bis 1492: eine kritische Studie, von Max Büdinger,' a reprint from the proceedings of the Austrian Imperial Academy of Sciences ('Sitzungsberichte der phil.-hist. Classe, CXII. Bd., II. Heft,' 1886). "I venture," says the author, "to appear among the combatants partly to present some new materials which hitherto have not been used, or have been inadequately exploited, partly to attempt a settlement of the very divergent opinions, now prevailing, by looking at the questions in dispute from a new point of view." Dr. Büdinger divides his matter into three parts: (1.) The "Historie," or life of Columbus written by the latter's son Ferdinand; (2.) His service under King René; (3.) His arrival in Portugal and departure from that country. The various opinions of Harrisse, D'Avezac, Peragallo, and others concerning the above subjects are amply stated and criticised. All interested in these questions will find Büdinger's monograph useful, although he definitively settles very few of the points at issue, and presents fewer new materials than one would anticipate from the title and preamble of the work.

We regret the necessity which puts the Bancroft Historical Library upon the market, but we can only regard its proposed purchase by the State of California as eminently proper. There ought to be no difficulty in reaching a just valuation of this invaluable collection.

The double number which ushers in the twelfth volume of the *Library Journal* is an earnest of its conductors' intention to make it simply irresistible to the profession (let us add, to any owner of a more than ordinary private library) during the current year. Its main feature is furnished in advance by the Bureau of Education, and is a detailed list of all the public libraries in the United States having 1,000 volumes and upwards. They number 2,981, or one to every 10,000 of the population, with an average of 3,862 volumes. New Hampshire has one library to every 2,700 inhabitants; Massachusetts, Connecticut, and

Rhode Island, one to every 3,000-3,500. Massachusetts is in the van as regards the number of libraries—427, or rather more than fourteen per cent. of the grand total. New York is close behind with 391, but of course with a marked disproportion when population is considered. The respective volume totals are: Massachusetts, 3,569,085; New York, 3,168,508 A careful count shows that (exclusive of suburbs) New York city's libraries have 1,414,795 volumes; those of Boston 1,015,419. Forty-seven libraries have 50,000 and upwards; the Library of Congress standing first (with 565,134 volumes), and the Boston Public second (434,837). Among these no Southern State, except Maryland and Missouri, is represented, while more than one-sixth are in Massachusetts and nearly one-quarter in New England. Other statistical tables are those relating to the Copyright Office. Here what strikes one as curious is the slight increase in copyright deposits in the years 1883-86 (counting each deposit as one work), viz., 18,330, 17,175, 19,490, 22,719, 22,805, 24,430, 24,032. There is much good reading that we cannot specify. The quarterly Coöperative Index to Periodicals published in connection with the *Library Journal* now completes its second volume.

The *Studio* for February has some very just remarks on Mr. Walter Shirlaw's designs for Goldsmith's ballad, "The Hermit," one of which, by permission, it contrasts with the corresponding design by Flaxman. There are several other illustrations—an etching of a ewer, laudable of its kind if not first-rate; and two process reproductions, viz., of the well-known 1508 medal by Dürer, in very low relief, and of an Italian portrait already copied in the *Studio*, but less effectively.

We find in the Paris *Temps* of February 12 a short account of a very ingenious and valuable contrivance, the *autographomètre*, invented by M. Floran de Villepigne, an engineer connected with the Panama Canal. This vehicle (*petit chariot*), drawn along the thoroughfares of a city, registers as it goes the distance traversed, the grade of the streets, and the angles of their intersection.

In the *Acta Mathematica*, a journal published at Stockholm since 1882, under the direction of Prof. G. Mittag-Leffler, assisted by the foremost mathematicians of Sweden, Norway, Denmark, and Finland, and which has now reached the ninth volume, the sole contribution in the English language is from the pen of an American writer, Mr. G. W. Hill of the Nautical Almanac Office, Washington, and relates to that part of the motion of the perigree of the moon's orbit which is a function of the mean motion of the sun and moon. Mr. Hill is announced as the recipient this year of the Royal Astronomical Society's gold medal for his important contributions to mathematical astronomy.

—The *Century* for March has a page or two of that very rare thing, noble imaginative writing, in a half-dozen prose-poems by Emma Lazarus, upon the fate of the Jews. Though expressed in English, they are truly Oriental in character, but with a humanitarianism and a feeling for America as a harbor of refuge, which give a peculiar strangeness to the ancient Scriptural form into which they are run. No current poetry has touched the level of "The Sower" in vigor of imagination, or of the sudden turn at the conclusion of "The Exodus" and "The Test" in power of style, for a long time. Some lines by Joel Benton on "Dakotah" are also exceptionally excellent. Mr. Stillman contributes a beautifully illustrated article upon Greek coinage, and in the course of his interesting remarks upon the subject one observes the striking declaration of opinion—"With an admiration of the severe and intellectual art of Phidias second to none, I am heretic enough to admit that of the full circle of art Scopas and Praxiteles had more than Phidias, just as Titian had more than Gian-Bellini." It is the old case of expression vs. conception, but in this application it has the material for a very "pretty" argument. He states in a note that his theory that the Venus of Melos is a "Victory" has been "accepted by many students of ancient art as sufficiently established for acceptance as the most probable attribution," and adds some slight new confirmations. Prof. Tillett's enthusiastic article upon "The White Man of the New South" should find many readers, and his hopes for the literature of the South will be cordially seconded; the development of the press is certainly a cardinal sign in that field. "Composite Photography" is the subject of an article of both technical and popular interest, and there is an excellent, kindly, and much-needed paper of reminiscences of Secretary Stanton.

—The fifth number of the publications of the American Economic Association, like the fourth, is devoted to the subject of coöperation. The field covered in this instance is the New England States. The author, Prof. E. W. Bemis, has evidently taken very great pains with his investigation, and states his results with great clearness, although, we apprehend, at somewhat too great length for any but students of the subject. Probably most persons would be surprised to learn of the early date at which coöperative enterprises made their appearance in New England. Their number, too, has been surprisingly large, although comparatively few have been successful. The coöperative stores, or societies for distribution, seem to prosper as a rule only when organized upon the Rochdale plan. But in these enterprises, as in all business, everything depends upon the managers: where they are unskilful or underpaid, the weaknesses of human nature very soon bring about financial ruin. Mr. Bemis is able to establish one generalization of great practical value: where the expenses of doing business are kept below eight per cent. of the amount of the sales, a coöperative store has a good chance of success; if they exceed this limit, disaster is nearly certain. Those who contemplate the formation of societies of this kind, therefore, are furnished with a well-established basis for their calculations. The co-operative banks, or building and loan associations, of New England, are computed to have assets amounting to $3,500,000; the capital of the fifty-three coöperative stores from which reports were obtained was about $140,000, which is "turned over" twelve or thirteen times a year; that of the companies engaged in productive coöperation amounted to about $300,000. But the moral effects of these associations are not to be measured by the magnitude of their financial transactions.

—Appendix V of the Tenth Report of the Historical Manuscripts Commission has just appeared. It is wholly devoted to Ireland, containing reports by John T. Gilbert on the MSS. of the Marquis of Ormonde, the Earl of Fingall, the Sees of Dublin and Ossory, the Order of Jesuits, and the towns of Waterford and Galway. The report on the first-mentioned collection consists of a "Calendar of petitions, A. D. 1666-1669, addressed to James, Duke of Ormonde, Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, and to his Deputy, Thomas Earl of Ossory." These petitions throw much light upon the general and social history of Ireland during that period. Mr. Gilbert gives copious extracts from this as well as from all the other collections. The principal MS. belonging to the Earl of Fingall is entitled "A Light to the Blind; whereby they may see the dethronement of James the Second, King of England, with a brief narrative of his warr in Ireland, and of the warr between the Emperor and the King of France for the Crown of Spain—Anno 1711." The partisan bias of this interesting work may be gathered from the following brief extract:

"The nature of King James the Second was farr different from that of Queen Elizabeth. He was a lamb, she a tyger. He compelled noe Protestant by fine, imprisonement, forfeiture of estate, or by death to turn Roman Catholick. She by all the said means tyranically constrained the Catholicks to embrace her phrenzy, and swear her to be (O profane woman!) Vicar of the Saviour of the world in the government of the Church of England. . . . In fine, this Jezabel with bloody force (as Mahomet extirpated the Christians of Asia) so she destroyed the Catholick religion of England (which had been there planted in the 7th age of Christianity in various miracles), after she had made an end of all the ould Bishops of the land in prison and exile, and murdered the inferiour clergy, and banished them; giving all the ecclesiastick liveings of the kingdom to mock-Bishops of her own, and to her ministers" (pp. 116-117).

The oldest record connected with the See of Dublin is the "Crede Mihi," the surviving portion of a register book of documents, chiefly relating to that See and ranging in date from 1178 to the latter part of the thirteenth century. Mr. Gilbert gives a calendar of its contents on pages 206-219. This is followed on pages 222-265 by excerpts from the "Red Book of the Diocese of Ossory." The documents in the archives of the Jesuits, extending from 1576 to 1698, consist of original letters and other papers, most of the former being addressed to the Generals of the Order. Mr. Gilbert has forgotten to name the place where these records are deposited. The reports on the civic muniments of Waterford and Galway (pp. 265-339, 380-520) constitute a valuable contribution to the study of municipal history, and are models of admirable editing. Those employed by the Commission to report on the municipal archives of England will do well to study Mr. Gilbert's method. This volume will add much to the good reputation which the Commission already enjoys. Every specialist in the domain of English, Irish, and Scotch history, and all who are interested in the advancement of historical learning, must feel under obligations to the Commission which is making such valuable treasures accessible to the public.

—One of the recent additions to Bohn's "Standard Library" (New York: Scribner & Welford) consists of a selection from the correspondence of Goethe with Zelter, edited and translated by A. D. Coleridge. The original correspondence appeared in 1833-34, in six volumes containing, in the aggregate, 855 letters. Of these Mr. Coleridge's volume gives us, wholly or in part, 382 numbers. The translator informs us that his first intention was to present the letters of Goethe in their entirety, with such extracts from those of Zelter as might be necessary in order to render the others intelligible. This plan, which would have necessitated two volumes, was given up; only a selection is offered from the letters of Goethe, these being often abridged, and not a little of Zelter is given apparently for its own sake. Whether the volume as it lies before us is worth the making, is a question which we should antecedently be disposed to answer in the negative. Zelter, it may not be wholly superfluous to say, was born in 1758, and became by trade a stone-mason. He found time, however, to educate himself in letters, and especially in music, and, aside from his friendship with Goethe, his best title to remembrance is that he was the teacher of Felix Mendelssohn, and the "restorer" of Sebastian Bach. His acquaintance with Goethe began in 1799. A warm and intimate friendship, based upon a community of ideal interests, sprang up between them, and found expression in a correspondence which continued without long intermissions until the death of Goethe in March, 1832. This correspondence has always been accounted

a valuable source of biographical information, although it reveals but little concerning the higher aspects of Goethe's intellectual life. It is, in fact, in the main, a quotidian chronicle of small beer which is only now and then lighted up with a stray glint of humor or a wise reflection such as one likes to store away in his memory. The daily occupation of the two correspondents, the doings of mutual friends, musical and theatrical interests, literary gossip—these are the staple themes of the original six volumes and of Mr. Coleridge's one volume. Few people in these days, we should imagine, would care to read this correspondence at all for purposes of literary edification, while all who might have occasion to use it as a source of biographical information will be able to read, and will naturally prefer, the original. At least so it would appear to us.

—Mr. Coleridge says, however, apparently by way of forestalling such criticism: "Any new light thrown upon Goethe's genius and character should be welcome to the student of German literature. The recent production of the *Jahrbuch*, and the affiliation of the English Goethe Society to the Weimar *Goethe-Gesellschaft*, have so stimulated the interest of readers in the publication of new matter affecting Goethe, that it is to be hoped the present volume may be opportune rather than otherwise." We sincerely hope that Mr. Coleridge does not misjudge his public. He has at any rate, so far as our comparisons have gone, done his own work well, and given us in good idiomatic English a large amount of matter, which does, in truth, throw some light upon Goethe's "genius and character," and a great deal more upon his daily walk and conversation during the last three decades of his life. Even the "small beer" will doubtless have its uses. There are those for whom Goethe in his later years is only a Sage throned in cærulean mists of speculation, and feeding from day to day upon sublime abstractions concerning Man, Nature, Art, and Science. To all such it will be salutary to look over the shoulders of their hero, so to speak, and watch him as he writes to his friend in Berlin: "Turnips and fish have arrived safely, the former beautifully dry, and the latter well frozen." . . . "The turnips are all the more welcome as there are no chestnuts on the Rhine or Main this year. So we do not eat them as a separate dish, but, served up with cabbage, they are very effective."

—The *Revue Internationale*, in its issue of January 10 (Christern), began the publication of an extremely valuable literary curiosity, the *journal intime* of Benjamin Constant. This entirely unintentional contribution to the literary history of the beginning of the century has been preserved among the private papers of the family of Constant de Rébecque, and it is to one of the descendants of the family, the Countess of Pückler-Branitz, that the present publication is due. At some time not stated, her father, M. Adrien Constant de Rébecque, seems to have made the selections now published, and to have written the short but excellent account of his famous relative which is given as an introduction. The journal itself begins at Weimar in 1804, when the writer's ten years of exile from France had just begun. His *amie* and companion in exile, Mme. de Staël, whose chains had already become very heavy for Constant, was then living near Leipzig. Here and elsewhere in Germany he made her flying visits, but the extracts at this period are generally at times when he was alone, and could give himself up to the delights of an intellectual life and the society of the great writers of the period, with whom he was in familiar contact. The names of Goethe, Schiller, Wieland, and later Schlegel and Sismondi, constantly recur, often accompanied by a judgment or an appreciation in which the most acute observation and insight are shown. No less clear-sighted and subtile are Constant's observations upon the authors whom he encounters only in his reading. Those upon Herder and Schelling are especially interesting, and also all his impressions of the "new philosophy" of Germany. The notes are generally very short, and they are written with the utmost simplicity and frankness. Very seldom is there anything that can be made to seem like posing, even for himself. A very clear and positive vision of Benjamin Constant disengages itself from these fragments of his journal, and an almost equally clear one of Mme. de Staël at this period of her life.

—*La fièvre verte*, in allusion to the green palms on the official academic costume, is an expression sometimes used to designate the intense desire that comes over French men of letters to be ranked among the "Forty Immortals." As all cannot be chosen, many have been the storms in the Academy when men representative of new ideas and tendencies have sought to be admitted. The history of these struggles may be read in the just published volume of M. Albert Rouxel, 'Chroniques des Élections à l'Académie Française' (Paris: Didot; Boston: Schoenhof). Unfortunately, it does not go beyond 1841, when Victor Hugo finally gained admittance, succeeding one of his bitterest enemies, Lemercier. Generally, however, whatever animosity the public at large might feel towards the candidates before their election, subsided when the Academy had decided upon its choice. In regard to the last two elections, this has not been the case. The choice of M. Hervé did not meet the approval of the Republicans generally; the choice of M. Gréard has not been taken kindly by the Monarchists. M. Hervé is a well-known and influential publicist, who, especially since he founded the journal *Le Soleil* in 1873, has devoted himself to the fusion of the Orleanists and the Legitimists. Since the death of the Comte de Chambord, he has been urging the Orleans princes to action. It is no wonder, then, that, in the present state of feeling towards the exiled princes, the choice of the Academy should not have been well received. The most radical even called for the immediate suppression of the august body, "the only monarchy that remains standing in France."

—With M. Gréard the case is different. He would here in no sense be looked upon as a political character. He has devoted his life to education. No man has done more for the development of primary instruction in France. His various reports on this subject are admirable documents of high literary merit. But the laicisation of schools is a burning question in France, and M. Gréard has incurred the ill-will of all who do not wish to see the education of the young in the hands of the laity. Great, therefore, was the outcry of the clerical and royalist press when he was chosen to succeed M. de Falloux, a *catholique libéral*. Why, say his opponents, not have chosen M. d'Haussonville, the son of an academician who died but recently, the grandnephew of another academician, the nephew of another still living, and the great-grandson of Mme. de Staël? Why choose M. Gréard, the "prompter of the school laws of the Republic." And then names, not over-courteous, are lavished on the new member elect. He is a *universitaire*, a pedagogue, his works are those of *un professeur de rhétorique*. Thus, while the revolutionists demand the suspension of the Academy because it is too monarchical, the monarchists and conservatives do not think it in harmony with the spirit of the day. Meanwhile, M. Gréard answers, in the only way becoming the new honor conferred upon him, by publishing a book which shows him to be worthy of it: 'L'Éducation des femmes par les femmes' (Paris: Hachette; Boston: Schoenhof). This is the first volume of a series of "Études et Portraits." It treats of Fénelon, J.-J. Rousseau, Mme. de Maintenon, Mme. de Lambert, Mme. d'Épinay, Mme. Necker, Mme. Roland, with a preface on Mme. de Sévigné. The author announces a second series as in preparation, reaching down to modern times.

GIUSEPPE VERDI.

Verdi: an Anecdotic History of his Life and Works. By Arthur Pougin. Scribner & Welford. 1887. Pp. 308.

THIS translation, by Mr. James E. Matthew, of the most complete biography of Verdi in existence, appears opportunely at a time when the musical world is busy talking about Verdi's latest and probably last work, "Otello." It cannot be said that it is anything more than what it purports to be—an anecdotic record of the composer's twenty-six ("Otello" not included) operatic productions in the order of their appearance, with details regarding their reception and the principal singers who took part in the first or otherwise notable performances. Inasmuch as of these twenty-seven operas only about half-a-dozen have ever had any vogue outside of Italy, some of these details are necessarily of little interest; yet the author wisely reserves most of his space for the best-known of Verdi's operas, and, moreover, gives a large number of new and entertaining biographic details, especially regarding the composer's youth. The reader who desires a critical estimate of Verdi's operas will find much more material in the forty pages which Dr. Hanslick devotes to them in his 'Moderne Oper' than in M. Pougin's 300 pages. It is perhaps fortunate that the latter abstains from criticism, for there are intimations that he would not disagree with a writer in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, who spoke of Verdi as "the foremost, or, we may almost say, the only dramatic, artist of our time."

In his first chapter M. Pougin reproduces a facsimile autograph of the certificate of Verdi's birth, extracted from the registers of the *état civil* of the commune of Busseto, which shows that Verdi was born in the same year as Wagner —1813—and not 1814, as is often stated. But in 1814 Verdi, as his biographer remarks, a second time owed his life to his mother. The Russians having invaded the village Le Roncole, she took refuge with others in the church. The soldiers, however, broke in, and a scene of carnage ensued. But Signora Verdi succeeded in hiding in the belfry with her little Giuseppe until the danger was over—an incident which one rather wonders that the composer of "Rigoletto" did not find a congenial subject for an operatic text. The boy received his first musical impressions from a poor wandering musician, whose "wretched violin charmed the little Verdi till he nearly fell into ecstasy," and who is supposed to have been the first to advise Verdi's father to let him study music. At the age of eight he managed to secure an old spinet which a tradesman repaired for his benefit, and the organist of the village church was his first teacher. In three years he had made so much progress that his father sent him to the neighboring town of Busseto, where he boarded with a cobbler for thirty centimes or six cents a day. Every Sunday he went on foot to Le Roncole to perform his duties as organist, for which he received the princely sum of $20 a year. On one of these expeditions he fell into a ditch on a dark night, and would probably have been drowned had not a peasant woman heard his cries and saved him.

To the world at large, Verdi is known exclusively as a composer of operas—including a

quasi-operatic requiem. But his operatic career was preceded by a period of miscellaneous composition, as is shown in this citation from the *Gazzetta Musicale* of Milan:

"From the age of thirteen to that of eighteen, the period at which Verdi came to Milan to study counterpoint, he wrote a heap of compositions of all kinds: marches for band up to *a round hundred;* perhaps as many short symphonic pieces, which served for the church, for the theatre, or for the concert room; five or six concertos or airs with variations for the pianoforte, which he performed himself at concerts; many serenades, cantatas, airs, a vast number of duets, trios, and various works for the church, among which is a 'Stabat Mater.'"

Some of these pieces were utilized in his earliest operas; and subsequently, too, after the fashion of the time, Verdi did not hesitate to transfer to a new opera the best melodies of an earlier one that had failed. Nor is there any reason for objecting to such a proceeding in the case of Italian melodies, which rarely have any dramatic individuality or local color. If, on the other hand, we reflect on the incongruity of transferring, *e. g.*, the *Flying Dutchman* motive, or the swan motive in "Lohengrin," or the magic-fire music in the "Walküre," to another opera, we realize most vividly one cause of the superiority of the German music drama over Italian opera.

Many of the early compositions just enumerated were written for the Philharmonic Society of Busseto, at whose concerts Verdi at first played the drum, though subsequently advanced to the posts of pianist and conductor. Nevertheless, when he presented himself for examination at the Milan Conservatory, he was rejected—a fact attested by one of his own letters. But if his musical accomplishments failed to make any impression on the hard-hearted Conservatory professors, they served him a better turn in the case of the tender-hearted daughter of a friend and benefactor of his. He used to play four-hand pieces with this girl, and, as usual in such cases, engagement and marriage followed. Their happiness was of only a few years' duration. "In the space of about two months," he writes in a letter, "three loved ones had disappeared for ever. I had no longer a family. And, in the midst of this terrible anguish, to avoid breaking the engagement I had contracted, I was compelled to write and finish a comic opera." No wonder that this opera, "Un Giorno di Regno," failed. It was his second opera, the first having been "Oberto," on which his profits were $350. His next opera, "Nabuco," was a success—so much so that Verdi was asked to write the *opera d'obbligo* for the next carnival season, and to make his own terms. He asked for the same sum that Bellini had obtained for "Norma"—about $1,350. From this date the history of Verdi, so far as known, is little more than the history of his operas. These had the most diverse fortunes, some being successful everywhere, some only in Italy, and not a few of them failures even there. "Rigoletto," "La Traviata," and "Il Trovatore," however, had put his reputation on a firm basis for the time, and when, in 1869, the Khedive of Egypt asked him to write an opera for his new theatre in Cairo, the sum demanded—$20,000—was paid without a murmur. The copyright and other profits on his latest opera, "Otello," are said to amount already to almost twice that sum.

As Verdi's fame increased, his patriotic countrymen made numerous efforts to lionize him, but he never cared to be "trotted about" as a curiosity, having been averse all his life to posing as a genius. Even the offers of conducting one of his works in some new "Teatro Verdi" could not induce him to make an exception. To one such invitation he replied: "Everything opposes it—my age, my health, and, still more than everything else, my inclination. Just tell me, Mr. President, what should I do there? Show myself? Seek applause? That cannot be." Nor did offers of political honors tempt him. When Cavour wanted to unite in his first national Parliament all the men who had distinguished themselves in Italy, he begged Verdi to accept a seat in the Chamber of Deputies. Verdi refused at first, saying that he hated to find himself prominent, and wanted nothing but to be allowed to work quietly in retirement. Finally he consented to appear in the Chamber, but three months later he sent in his resignation. In 1875 Victor Emanuel appointed him a senator. He took the oath, yet, so far as M. Pougin is aware, has never taken his seat.

With all this retiring modesty, Verdi has always known how to preserve his dignity and insist on his rights as a composer. A few instances will illustrate this. During the rehearsals of "Ernani," the prima donna insisted on having the score end with a rondo in which she could display her powers of vocalization. Such a demand was nothing unusual in the palmy days of Italian opera, when the composers were the slaves of the singers, and had constantly to sacrifice their artistic conscience to the vanity and whims of famous vocalists. The librettist in this case was willing to accede to the prima donna's wishes, but Verdi "went off in one of those fits of artistic wrath which the poet had long been accustomed to submit to with great philosophy. 'Do you wish,' said he, 'to ruin the finest situation in the work?'" And he firmly refused to do it. On another occasion, when his "Vêpres Siciliennes" was brought out at Paris, Manager Perrin begged Verdi to conduct some performances. Verdi consented, but insisted on having an orchestral rehearsal. The members of the orchestra, however, appeared in a sullen humor, playing at first much too fast, and, after being remonstrated with, dragging the tempo in an extravagant manner. "It is a poor joke, no doubt," Verdi remarked to the *chef d'orchestre*, Dietsch. "The fact is, Maestro," replied Dietsch, "these gentlemen think that they have no need to rehearse." "Really?" "Yes; they have their own private business." "Ah, they have their own business, which is not that of the Opéra. That makes a difference." With this he seized his hat, left the house, and did not enter it again, although he had his revenge, for Dietsch was discharged three days later. When in 1873 the manager of the Opéra applied for permission to produce "Aïda," Verdi wrote: "I have been so little satisfied each time that I have had to do with your great theatre, that I am not disposed to risk a new attempt. . . . I have not the courage to face again all the trickery and opposition which rule in that theatre, of which I have preserved a painful recollection."

Considering the obscure and uninviting character of most of Verdi's librettis, one is rather surprised to read that he took great pains personally in having everything to suit himself. Concerning one of his librettists, who prepared eight of his texts, M. Pougin writes: "A tolerably bad poet, quite wanting in invention, Piave was not without a certain skill as librettist, and he had, from Verdi's point of view, the overwhelming quality of effacing himself completely, of putting aside every kind of personal vanity, and of following entirely the indications and the desires of the composer, cutting out this, paring down that, shortening or expanding at the will of the latter—giving himself up, in short, to all his exigencies, whatever they might be." In some cases the censors made sad havoc of his librettis. In another place M. Pougin informs us that Verdi not only always chooses the subject of his operas, but, in addition to that, "he draws out the sketch of the libretti, indicates all the situations, constructs them almost entirely as far as regards the general plan, brings his personages and his characters on the stage, in such a way that his *collaborateur* has simply to follow his indications to bring the whole together and to write the verses." The best of his librettis is "Aïda," the author of which, M. du Locle, says, in a letter, that he wrote it "scene by scene, phrase by phrase, under the eye of the maestro, who took a large share in the work. The idea of the finale of the last act, with its two stages, one above the other, belongs especially to him." In his "Otello" Verdi has been still more fortunate in having the services of Signor Boïto, who, being an able composer, knows just what a musician wants.

This is not the place to discuss the merits of Verdi's music, but it is amusing to read that in Paris and London for a long time he was declared to be no melodist. If his operas should not survive the present century, the fault will not be a lack of melody, but a lack of concentration and elaboration of details. Wagner required two or three years of hard labor to complete a score, every page of which bears evidence of his genius. Verdi did not go to such extremes in the opposite direction as some of his predecessors, who often wrote an opera in a fortnight (their *names* are still preserved); he usually devoted four months to an opera. "Rigoletto" was written in forty days, and "Don Carlos" in six months. "Aïda," which is by far the best of his operas, owes some of its excellence to the fact that the scenery prepared for its first performance was locked up in Paris during the Prussian siege, which gave Verdi opportunity to retouch and polish his score.

ANCIENT ISRAEL.—I.

Geschichte des Volkes Israel. Von Dr. Bernhard Stade, Professor an der Universität Giessen. Mit Illustrationen und Karten. Vol. I. Berlin. 1887. New York: Westermann. ['Oncken's Weltgeschichte in Einzeldarstellungen.']

Half a century ago, ancient Israelitish history was generally written as Roman history was before Niebuhr. It began with Ur of the Chaldees and the stories of the patriarchs, just as the history of Rome began with Alba Longa, its kings, and Romulus and Remus. The narratives of Genesis, Exodus, Joshua, or Judges were repeated like the legends of Livy, as traditions containing much that is naturally impossible, but on the whole historical. The story of Sarah's maternity might be left untold, like that of Rhea Silvia's, but the wonderful escape of the infant Moses appeared more natural than that of Romulus, the capture of Jericho was recorded like that of Veii, and the regicide of Ehud like the deed of Mucius Scævola. The miraculous was reverently separated from the naturally possible, and this presented as history. Jacob migrated with his family through Canaan, though he may not have wrestled with God or an angel; Moses gave to his people laws at Sinai, no matter whether the mountain smoked or not; Joshua routed the Canaanites at Gibeon, the sun standing or moving; Samson again and again smote the Philistines, though never, perhaps, with the jaw-bone of an ass. This manner of writing the early history of Israel has now become almost obsolete, though not through the powerful efforts of any single Niebuhr in this field.

Israelitish history has been slowly but completely revolutionized by the steady and progressive labor of many eminent scholars, mostly German. The discoveries of Egyptology and Assyriology have had their share in the work. Biblical criticism, an evolution of very old growth, has paved the way for critical history, which, after emancipating itself from the bondage of orthodoxy about the close of the last century,

has in our time succeeded in throwing off also the shackles of literary tradition. Ewald's 'Geschichte des Volkes Israel,' which made its appearance more than forty years ago, marks the first great advance. But Ewald was more bold than free, more suggestive than sound; he stimulated to further work without laying foundations. Hitzig, whose smaller history with the same title (1869) followed Ewald's last edition, was freer, almost reckless, in the treatment of details, but not more independent of the traditional views concerning the composition and comparative documentary value of the Pentateuch narratives. But almost simultaneously with Hitzig's book appeared, in Holland, Kuenen's 'Godsdienst van Israël,' which, clearly developing the results successively matured by Vatke, Reuss, and Graf as to the growth of Israelitish religion and legislation, presented a wholly transformed aspect of both the history and historical literature of the people. Wellhausen, in his 'Geschichte Israels' (vol. i, 1878) and other writings, has carried out in grand style, and firmly established, the "Graf and Kuenen theory." Stade, in the volume before us, stands on the same basis, but goes a little beyond Wellhausen in historical and literary iconoclasm, and evinces sufficient independent research and original ingenuity to take a place among the successive leading writers on the subject. To define his standpoint is to sketch the latest stage at which Israelitish historiography, led by the strings of Biblical text criticism and archæology, has arrived in Germany and Holland. Let us hear him first as to the narrative sources of his history.

The Pentateuch was composed of original documents of widely different character. It embraces two works presenting the early legends of the people, written with the object of glorifying the national worship; two law books; and a work comprising both legend and law. Its Hebrew name, Torah (law), is derived from the book of laws discovered during the reign of King Josiah, in 621 B. C., which forms now a part of the so-called fifth book of Moses, or Deuteronomy. Its oldest original document is the historical writing of a Judæan narrator, now distinguished as the Jehovist, from the constant use of the name Jehovah. This document contains mainly mythical accounts referring to the patriarchs, Moses, and the sacred spots in Canaan. It was probably composed in the latter half of the ninth century B. C. The next in age is the work of the Ephraimitish Elohist, often called the second Elohist, from whom we have the Decalogue, and whose images of God (whom in his recitals of pre-Mosaic events he calls Elohim) are less anthropomorphic than those of the older narrator. It was written about 750 B. C. These two works were loosely woven into one, about a century and a quarter later, by a writer imbued with the spirit of the prophetic productions of the preceding periods, who may be designated as the first or pre-Deuteronomic redactor. The same (or else the later Deuteronomistic) redactor may have inserted the third component part, the so-called Book of the Covenant (contained in Ex. xx-xxiv), a codified collection of ancient law usages, probably executed about 690 B. C. A more important component part is the Torah discovered and promulgated in 621, the Deuteronomy proper—with an historical introduction and exhortative supplements—in the spirit of which some of the older narratives were redactorially modified. The youngest part is the Priestly Codex, or the Groundwork, composed in Babylonian exile. It consists of legal enactments and narrative portions. The former, though ascribed to Mosaic revelation, were elaborated for use in the restored Jewish state and temple; the latter gave a post-exilian coloring to the patriarchal history of Israel. A later redactor—Ezra or a man of his time, about 460 B. C.—joined the Groundwork to the older historical parts, adapted the latter to the chronological plan of the former, and completed the Pentateuchal compilation.

Very similar in composition is the book of Joshua, which, in fact, forms with the Pentateuch a larger whole, now frequently designated as the Hexateuch. It contains little of the narrative of the Jehovist, has ample extracts from the (second) Elohist, shows the same Deuteronomistic varnishing, and comprises portions of the Groundwork. The Jehovist knew no Joshua as conqueror of the land west of the Jordan; the Elohist recounted this conquest under Joshua—originally an Ephraimitish hero—in imitation of the legends of Moses's conquest of the Transjordanic lands; the Groundwork fully transformed Joshua into a second Moses. A redactor later than Ezra combined all these component parts into the present book, when the Pentateuch had already obtained its canonical sanction as the Torah. The Torah alone was accepted by the Samaritans as canonical. Even additions of a later period, which are wanting in the Septuagint version, are discoverable in Joshua. The book of Judges is a still freer, unauthentic compilation. Its heroes are almost all unhistorical; they are *heroes eponymi*, legendary representatives of clans. Thus Jephthah is designated as the son of Gilead, and Gilead, like Gad, designates a tribe and its territory. What is related of his fight with the Ephraimites is an imitation of the story of Gideon. His fight with the Ammonites is told without any tangible features. The names of the Judges Ehud, Elon, Tola, and Jair appear elsewhere in lists of towns and clans. That Ibzan and Abdon are eponymi representing clans is evident from the fact that only their places and the numbers of their children are stated. "These remarks will have proved that a period of judges preceding the period of kings cannot be spoken of seriously." There were kings, or chiefs of clans, like Gideon or Shamgar, but no judges of Israel. There was no united Israel then, and still less an Israel theoretically organized, such as the story of the struggle with Benjamin at Gibeah presents to us. This story is a *Tendenzroman*, "contradicting everything we know of Hebrew antiquities." Ruth is a post-exilian idyl, also composed for a purpose. The picture of Samuel, in the first book of that name, shows most clearly "the character of Hebrew historical tradition by its transformation of the traditional matter." In the oldest traditional form Samuel is a seer and priest of the Ephraimitish town of Ramah. Later he is brought into connection with the ancient sanctuary of Shiloh, as the true heir to the priesthood of the house of Eli. Still later he is transformed into a prophet in the style of Amos or Isaiah, who fearlessly steps before the king and declares that God likes obedience better than sacrifice. The second book of Samuel and the books of Kings contain, of course, more genuinely historical matter, but even the contents of the last-named work are "partly worthless and almost everywhere deficient." Entirely untrustworthy is Chronicles, in whatever it does not directly draw from the other books of the canon, although here and there valuable threads are woven into its tissues.

All these books, as we now have them, are thus very deceptive guides as to the earlier periods. And yet they contain a vast amount of information. To make their accounts valuable a constant application of critical operations is needed, in which the historian is guided by the light derived from Amos, Hosea, Isaiah, and other prophets, whose writings not only are true mirrors of their own times, but also clearly reflect the conditions of things in preceding ages. A few poetical fragments of older date, imbedded in the historical relations, can also be turned to good account. Every historical book, every narrative, must be analyzed and dissected into its component parts; the original text and its age, if possible, discovered; every addition, insertion, interpolation—and they are numberless—found out, examined, and reduced to its proper value; concurrent, explanatory, or contradictory testimony compared and weighed; everything spurious fearlessly rejected. Out of the saved residue the tissue of genuine history must be rewoven. The analytical work of free criticism has been carried on with unremitting zeal, and often with corresponding ingenuity and success, for more than a century; the reconstructing process is of our own age. The minor results obtained are very numerous, much rests on plausible conjecture, and much is still covered with obscurity. The general aspect of history is changed, as we shall see.

HAYWARD'S CORRESPONDENCE.

A Selection from the Correspondence of Abraham Hayward, Q.C., from 1834 to 1884. With an Account of his Early Life. Edited by Henry E. Carlisle. 2 vols. Scribner & Welford. 1887.

Mr. Hayward, alluding at the end of his life to his literary début as the translator of "Faust," humorously remarks: "Lady Blanche Hozier asked me, the other day, if I read German; and it is by no means the first time that the same question has been put to me." It is as the author of that excellent prose version of Goethe's great work, published more than half a century ago, that his name is best known, though he has a reputation of another sort as a critic, which rests upon the solid and copious volumes of his reviews. He was born in 1801, and, after school days, was articled to a solicitor, and in due course entered at the Inner Temple. He joined the famous London Debating Society which Mill and the philosophical Radicals had founded, where he supported the Tory side, and in 1828 he became editor of the *Law Magazine*, which was established to further the cause of law reform. Out of his interest in this subject grew some relations with the law professors at Göttingen, whom he visited in 1831, and this was the beginning of his extensive acquaintance on the Continent, which was afterwards of great influence on his career. The immediate literary result of this trip to Germany was the translation of "Faust," issued in 1833, which at once gave its author the position of a known man of letters. Mr. Hayward remained a working lawyer, however, and received in 1845 an appointment to the rank of Queen's Counsel; but this advancement, giving rise to a professional quarrel in consequence of the Benchers refusing the customary election to their body, practically terminated his legal career. He had been received into society, and, as he was already in association with eminent party men, he fell naturally into politics, as one of the Peelites, and was a main support of the *Morning Chronicle* while it was in the interest of that coterie. His labors in journalism were signalized by his writing a leading article on an important debate, on the bill for the repeal of the Navigation Laws, in season for the morning's paper—a feat of which it is said: "It revolutionized at a stroke the whole art of leader-writing, and statesmen found all at once that, with a quiet man of letters sitting in a corner of the gallery with a bit of pencil, they had to lay their account for prompt and energetic criticism in the newspapers the next day, concurrently with the publication of their own speeches, instead of criticism the day after, when the speeches had done their work."

The close connection with public life which Mr. Hayward formed in the course of these years

was maintained by him; and, though he was never in the House or in Government, his place in society, his long experience and his abilities, and a certain knowledge of men, sustained him in an unofficial position of influence. Thiers made him the channel of advice during the Crimean war; and in 1870, during the former's diplomatic tour to solicit the good offices of the Powers in behalf of France, his first visit in England was at the rooms of his old friend. Slidell, of Confederate fame, also used Mr. Hayward as a means of communication in his efforts to obtain recognition for his Government; and, in connection with this, one notes a call he made on Motley at Vienna in 1862, whom he found "more unreasonable than ever, vowing that the restoration of the Union in its entirety was 'as sure as the sun in heaven.'" In the changes of the Ministries, especially in the days of coalition, Mr. Hayward was *en rapport* with the principals, and occasionally was useful in personal negotiations. It was on services of this nature, in the formation of Lord Aberdeen's Cabinet, that he grounded his application for a Charity Commissionership, which failed; and it is curious to note his observation on this incident: "When men work together for a party object, they are all entitled, in their several ways, to a share in the advantage of success." This is not the spoils doctrine, for which it might be mistaken, but that of party reward in filling new or vacant offices as against the aristocratic system of nepotism.

Mr. Hayward never obtained any of the material fruits of political service, though a second attempt was made for him in later years. He was successively in intimate relations with Lyndhurst, Newcastle, Palmerston, and Gladstone, and apparently grew liberal with his times. It is amusing to find him dismissing Disraeli in 1850 in a couple of lines as "very nearly if not quite forgotten"; and he adds, "How soon one of these puffed-up reputations goes down!" In 1880 he writes, "I have been longing for the fall of the Disraeli Government as I did for the fall of the Second Empire." He had taken his name off the Carlton Club in 1870, having apparently had the experience of much bad manners there, after it became more a strictly political club than it was in the first part of the century; and he was evidently a thorough-going Liberal when he died, as we read in one of his last letters, "During my long life I never remember a period when the English *people* were less Radical than now." Ten years ago Gladstone was writing to him in respect to the obstructiveness of the Upper Ten Thousand in the political progress of the century, to the same effect as was the language he used upon the stump in the last campaign. Hayward's interest in politics continued unabated until his death.

In the whole course of his career he was a careful and fluent writer, being reckoned the best of the essayists of the old school; and since, in his later years, he had the great advantage of treating of men whom he had known all about in life, his work has a special interest and value. Literature consequently shares with politics the pages of this correspondence, which derives considerable lustre from the many distinguished names among the signatures. At the date of the beginning of the series Mr. Hayward was thirty-three years old, and had already given some of those little dinners at his rooms in the Temple for which he was afterward noted. He gathered there intellectual men and brilliant women, and in particular he exercised hospitality toward foreigners; men so various as Gen. von Radowitz, Louis Blanc, and the poet Dupont, being among his guests. He gives in one place a few instances of the ignorance of one another among the eminent writers of Europe that had come under his observation. Manzoni did not know Bulwer by name in 1834; Schlegel, arriving in England in 1832, had not heard of Macaulay; M. Charles Dupin did not know of Babbage's 'Manufactures' four months after publication; and Say, the economist, was unacquainted with Whately's name, though Mr. Hayward found in Say's library at the time a presentation copy of the 'Lectures' "from the Archbishop of Dublin." At Mr. Hayward's rooms such international indifference was as likely to be corrected as anywhere in London. He made many short journeys to the Continent, usually to Paris, and thus renewed and strengthened old ties and formed new ones; but his travels dealt with persons of distinction and affairs, and were fruitful only of information and social alliances. The mass of his correspondence, consequently, is wide in range of acquaintance, and friendly in tone; there is in it naturally a very large proportion of what is transitory and not a little that is trivial —society and political news, the record of dinners, the chances of Parliament, ministerial changes, etc. The whole is a very heterogeneous collection of notes and letters, light and serious, dull and entertaining, but it affords a fair retrospect of half a century of London life in the world of affairs and entertainment. Of the substance it is to be said that it has less solid value than one would have expected.

The literary portion is extraordinarily meagre. The best of the letters are from the sprightly pen of Mrs. Norton; and the feminine correspondence in general is the most pleasant feature of the volumes. Very few of the letters, however, deal with literary reputations either in the way of anecdote or criticism. In reply to a request for material for an essay upon Rogers, Mrs. Norton writes very justly of him as a small man filling a miraculously large place in the world, and defines his individuality by saying that tastes were to him what passions are to other men: "He did nothing rash. I am sure Rogers as a baby never fell down, *unless he was pushed;* but walked from chair to chair of the drawing-room furniture steadily and quietly till he reached the place where the sunbeam fell on the carpet." He preferred a lullaby to the merriest game of romps, she thinks, and would have begged that his long clothes might be made of fine *mull* muslin instead of cambric, which was capable of a thing "he loathed, *starch*." Lady Dufferin writes on the same subject: "I never could *lash myself* into a feeling of affection or admiration for him. . . . I have heard him say many graceful things, but few kind ones, and he never seemed to me thoroughly in earnest save in expressing contempt or dislike. . . . It seemed a positive pain to him to hear any modern poet praised, and I remember his treating me with a rudeness almost bearish because I indiscreetly avowed how much I admired Tennyson's 'Princess.'" She then tells the anecdote of being accidentally left in the dark with him, and his jest: "Ah, my dear, if sweet seventy-eight could come again! *Mais ces beaux jours sont passés.*" Besides these brief passages on Rogers there is really nothing of interest in regard to the world of letters, except an opinion of Bulwer's on Macaulay, in which he remarks that the historian's acquaintance with the world—that is, with men's actual characters—was slight, and then recites what are now the commonplaces of criticism on Macaulay (but this was in 1861)—that his style excludes many of the nobler excellences, being without modesty or suggestiveness, and is, besides, indebted to coarse tricks of art in color and contrast, while the secret of his vogue is discovered in his relieving his readers from any necessity to think. Apropos of a wordy letter of Carlyle's, Mr. Hayward himself writes: "I never yet followed him to the authorities without finding him wrong. In my 'Essay on Marshal Saxe' I have proved from signed documents that Carlyle's labored account of the battle of Fontenoy is essentially incorrect. He is a man of genius, undoubtedly, but he has injured instead of improving literature and taste; and, as to his conversation, if he spoke English and attended to the rules of good breeding, its charm for the mass of his admirers would disappear." In another place is an equally brief judgment on Balzac, whom he was rereading in his seventy-eighth year and found not to improve: "the fineness of observation and analysis of feeling are undeniable, but his descriptions, both of places and characters, are tediously spun out, his plots teem with improbability, and he has a vulgar fondness for wealth and rank."

These extracts practically comprise the entire literary interest of the two volumes; nor are there any anecdotes by the way to speak of, if we except the droll suggestion of Hook to Lord Lyndhurst, who had come to a dinner with gold-laced trousers, that "to appear with all his glories he should reverse his position in the chair." Lord Lyndhurst appears very agreeably in the earlier pages, but death soon removed him. To him is attributed the witticism apropos of Mme. Genlis's keeping her books in detached cases, the male authors in one and the female in the other, that the reason was "she did not wish to add to her library"—a joke unfairly claimed by James Smith.

Of the correspondence with public men, that of Sir Henry Bulwer (Lord Dalling) is of most note. In his long and varied service he had experience of state affairs in many lands, and his remarks are pointed, shrewd, and sensible. Writing of the Ionian Island difficulty in 1863, he illustrates his width of view and soundness of principle: "The tendency to resign empire is a dangerous one for an empire to fall into; but if a people wish to get out of your hands, and public opinion is not for keeping them, a Minister in what is called, and is, a free country can have no policy of his own in the matter." And, again, of the Eastern question, in the same year, he states the function of England very aptly as being "to prevent no government taking the place of some government, and urging and helping a bad government to be better than it was." As the negotiator of the Bulwer-Clayton Treaty, what he thought of our diplomacy has some interest, and he expressed his opinion very frankly on the question of the indirect claims being urged under the Washington Treaty: "When I had to make a treaty with them [the American statesmen] I took the trouble of going over all their own treaties, and only using in important passages such words as they had used, in the sense in which they had used them. Then when they began their usual disputes about interpretation, I quoted their own authority. All their own newspapers acknowledged I was right." Sir Henry's mode of meeting his cousins in diplomacy was one of commendable safety. He exhibits solidity and sense on all occasions where he is met in these letters, and yet there was a vein of daring in him hardly consonant with his caution. His characterization of Peel as a state-clock which was silent till it struck the hour, is admirable, as are also his observations on the inconveniences of such a political time-piece in a representative Government.

There are one or two interesting communications from Mr. A. G. Dunlop about Spain, in which he notices that Spanish art was a temporary importation from Italy, as Spanish wealth was from America, and both almost to be classed as matters of chance, not national development; and he contrasts the Spanish peasant with the Italian, South German, or Greek people, as without appreciation of art, not caring for flowers or trees even, and staring at pictures only be-

cause they are "holy" and appeal to his superstition. He adds that the Spaniards are likewise without any desire for knowledge, and declares there is no *avenir* for the pure-blooded race: "If the Spaniard remain any longer as he is in spite of railways and increased intercourse, the commerce of the seaboard will more and more slip away into the hands of foreigners—French, German, Swede, English—and the pure race (native) will fall back on the interior and inland villages, hewers of wood and drawers of water." There are letters, too, from Lady Clanricarde (daughter of George Canning), with excellent passages on the condition of Ireland, worth reading now as evidence of the long-established, long well-known state of affairs there. "It appears to me," she says, "contrary to all I have seen or read that a great amount of discontent *continuing* in a country should not produce serious results of some sort." This concludes the list of really notable letters in the department of public affairs.

Of Mr. Hayward himself one forms a conception not very deeply marked. Mr. W. E. Forster says that the unique characteristic of his political thought and experience was "the result of a curious combination of a hard, worldly, even cynical appreciation of men and things, with strong sympathy with popular movements, and ideal aspirations." He had enemies and prejudices; but his strength of character seems to have included independence, sincerity, and perfect courage as elements, and he was undoubtedly liberalized by the variety of his associations with other minds. His career was laborious and honored, and one cannot but regret that he left no more extensive and notable memoirs, as he might well have done. This correspondence is but a meagre substitute.

CONWAY'S EARLY FLEMISH ARTISTS.

Early Flemish Artists and their Predecessors on the Lower Rhine. By Wm. Martin Conway. Macmillan & Co. 1887.

PROF. CONWAY has given us a very interesting and exhaustive book on the character and affiliation of the earliest naturalistic school of painting which has ever existed, so far as we know. If, in his bent in favor of the art in which he has in his past studies most interested himself, he has now and then lost sight of the great standard of absolute art, we need not therefore disparage his admirable summary of that art which is his specialty. When, for instance, he says, "Enter beneath the sculptured portal of Our Lady of Paris, and say, have any people (even the Greeks themselves) attained higher rank in the expression of noble thought through the language of the chisel? Has the brush of the painter been more deftly wielded than by the tender hand of a Wilhelm of Köln?" we are compelled to bring him to book on the terminology of art, because "higher rank" means higher artistic achievement in expression of the ideal, and a higher degree of refinement in that expression; and, with all admiration for the fertility of invention and decorative instinct of the Gothic church builders, we must maintain that Greek sculpture is higher art than Gothic, since it is carried nearer to the perfection of those qualities of expression which are the especial *raison d'être* of plastic art. Neither can we accept his estimate of the comparative qualities of Gothic color (p. 4), or the political dignity of a "world-emperor and a world-bishop," which are entities only possible in the dark ages whose exaltation as a world epoch Prof. Conway has undertaken. Nor can we admit the distinctions drawn between mediæval and modern relations between art and religion as he has stated them. That there *was* a difference is certain, for now we have little of that form of religious feeling which hinges on belief in a priesthood or the necessity of churches to faith, nor have we any great amount of serious or really sincere art; but it is a part of a great idealizing process we too generally indulge in, in reference to the past, to say that

"the life of Christ, to the Gothic mind, was a permeating influence in the whole course of human life. The husbandman at his plough and the churchman at his prayers were *alike* fulfilling their heaven-appointed task, and were *alike* performing a religious action. For this reason you will find that the Gothic church bears always in prominent position representations of the occupations of the months of the year, these occupations being as much a part of the Christian religion as the events of the life of Christ himself."

So far as the influence of the true life and character of Christ are concerned, they had as little to do with human life in Gothic spheres as now, and as much as the life of Buddha—it was the ecclesiastical organization and the heavy mastery of the priesthood, forbidding thought to rise beyond its control, which made the life of the dark ages so full of the imagery of the Christian religion. The churchman as little thought of heaven in his prayers as the husbandman at his plough, and, in one sense, therefore, they were "alike" sincere. Heaven no more belongs to the fools than the knaves, and ignorance was the gift of the husbandman as hypocrisy and sanctimony of the priest, through the properly so-called dark ages, which were dark in spite of art, because human reason and human liberty were alike darkened by the "world-emperor and the world-bishop" of Prof. Conway's admiration.

We might object seriously to the large portico made before the history of painting by the dissertation on Gothic sculpture, but at least our author might, in giving his subject true proportions, have made more account of the share which Byzantine art in both branches had in the general result, and ask what he means by the sentence, "When the Jewish philosophers introduced the commentaries of Averroës and the Arabians to the philosophers of Christendom, and thereby gave substance to the nascent opposition of Nominalist and Realist, they sowed the seed which was in due time to produce *that convulsed offspring*—the Reformation." We are disposed to question all the conclusions of Prof. Conway based on hypothetical religious influences, which are a very dubious part of the true motives of any art, though they do indisputably provide subjects for its exercise. Religion, coupled with intelligence, leads to freedom and right—its form is secondary in the consideration; coupled with ignorance, it becomes superstition, and this has been the same in all epochs and countries and with all forms of belief. "The religion of the thirteenth century," says our author, "was one for free use at every moment of the day. It mingled in and *tended to sanctify every act of life*. Barter and sale, manufacture and war, alike presented their religious aspect at that noble time." But there is no evidence whatever that any change has taken place in human nature, or that there were more honest men in the thirteenth century than to-day, or that good work of any kind was more due to religious sincerity than now. What made art more sincere, if it was so, was the fact that the artist was regarded as a craftsman, and held to the same standard as the weaver, the blacksmith, etc., etc., and to a strictly commercial responsibility, while now art rarely ministers to anything but a poor personal vanity or a formal and insincere devotion. The history of the guilds of the various arts and trades, which the author traces in great fulness, is therefore of the highest interest, and will explain better than any other agency the qualities of the mediæval artist:

"Painting, to the mediæval mind, was a craft like any other, and was therefore organized in the usual way. A painter did not look upon himself and was not regarded [by others] as a person superior to ordinary discipline. It is only in times of decay that artists give themselves airs, and require to be considered in a Bohemian category of their own. In the great ages of art painters lived like other craftsmen, and were paid for the work they did according to a fair scale of remuneration."

The chapter on the guild system and its effect upon art may be studied with great profit. What Prof. Conway says on the character of fifteenth-century art is sometimes indicative of his incomplete technical knowledge, as, for instance, where he compares Titian with the Flemings, saying: "Painters like Titian, whose pictures from beginning to end seldom took so many days as those of a Fleming occupied months, might with little sacrifice abandon any unpromising work and start afresh." He might have learned that Titian was occupied always for months on his pictures, and that the appearance of dash and energy in the finished result was simply the foundation, which showed through repeated and most studious repainting. So far from being the facile work Prof. Conway imagines it, Titian's process was long and complicated, and required the most absolute certainty in its beginnings. But in what he says of the philosophy of art he is more correct:

"The historian of art has it continually forced upon him that with the growth of civilization the artistic power of the human species by no means continually increases. What was possible to a less developed generation is impossible to one more advanced; and indeed it is hard to avoid the conclusion that the artistic powers of the human race, far from increasing in periods of general progress, may often notably diminish. It would seem, then, that certain forms of art prot duction, beautiful enough in themselves to excite the wonder and admiration of succeeding ages, are possible only to a semi-developed race, and demand an order of intellect inferior to that of the after-coming men who yet must bow before them in delighted awe."

The fact is well stated, but to explain it it is only necessary to remember that the growth of the rationalistic and æsthestic powers does not run in parallel lines. The latter is emotional, and emotion is checked and often deprived of its normal outcome by the domination of reason. As human progress goes on, it involves large alternations of development—reason and feeling taking by turns the guidance; and art is only possible in any of its true phases when feeling controls the intellectual activity. What we call "progress," which means to us simply progress in scientific attainment, has nothing to do with art; for, as Prof. Conway says, "Art gains very little [he might have said nothing] from the progress of science." But what he says further on, "Hence the art of any generation depends not upon its knowledge but upon its ideals of Faith and Hope," is not true, for faith is an intellectual exercise and hope one of temperament, possibly artistic and possibly not, while art is emotional and imaginative; and though, as mental influences, religion and devotion may prove quickening to any emotional tendency, it is only as any other cause of emotion, as love or the influences of nature, may be.

We have only space to say that, as is general in English illustrated art works, the present illustrations are quite unworthy of the text, and such as an American publisher should, and probably would, be ashamed of. They answer an educational purpose, but give a book a cheap and unconsidered aspect.

Dr. Channing's Note Book. Passages from the unpublished MSS. of William Ellery Channing. Selected by his granddaughter, Grace

Ellery Channing. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1887.

THE origin of these 'Notes' is not made so clear by the editress in her preface as one could wish. We are told that they "are from unpublished MSS. left by him [Dr. Channing] and set apart for this purpose by his nephew and biographer, William Henry Channing, and his son." "For this purpose" means, presumably, for the purpose of this or some similar volume; but "unpublished MSS." suggests something different from the memoranda which Miss Channing's material appears to have been, judging from subsequent expressions. That "it was Dr. Channing's habit to make notes at all times" is another doubtful phrase, suggesting a more engrossing habit of note-taking than our knowledge of the man permits us to attribute to him. The editing is better than the preface, but here and there we find an obvious slip. On page 7, we should certainly read, "If I have been invigorated," and not, "If I have invigorated." On page 8 the second paragraph should have been omitted, unless the place meant by "here" could have been bracketed. As it stands, it reflects too severely upon Boston. On page 100, "sensualist" should be "sensationalist," even if Dr. Channing wrote the former, as he surely did not mean it. On page 19, "Past powers" should evidently be "Vast powers."

Dr. Channing's style was so little aphoristic or epigrammatic, its stream was so essential to its effect, that he appears to better advantage in these brief, disconnected paragraphs than we should have imagined that he would. Not that he is often aphoristic or epigrammatic here, but he is so at times, and generally the sentences in their isolation are more impressive and agreeable than isolated sentences are apt to be. Even such admirable separate sentences as those of Joubert and Amiel kill each other by juxtaposition, like many pictures together in a gallery. Of the more epigrammatic, one of the best examples is on page 14: "The suppression of the multitude by force is not order. It is rebellion kept down." "We must become our own friends" is shorter and as good. The sentences are grouped under about fifty different heads. Those under the head of "Slavery" show how swift was his deduction of anti-slavery principles from the dignity of human nature: "I would no more think of owning a man than of owning the earth or heavens." The following, which comes just before the slavery section, should have been included in it, for it evidently refers to Garrison and his coadjutors: "Is any class of men to be so honored as those who espouse the cause of the most friendless, and who can gain nothing but reproach, who make no compromise with opinion?" The section on "Self-Culture" has the ring of Emerson's "Self-Reliance": "To give ourselves up to others to be guided, controlled, and so forth, is to betray our trust." "Is not the mind to be made strong by exposure? must it be housed, nursed, kept within limits? may it not be trusted amidst all kinds of opinions? Let us associate with the wise as *friends*, but, like Jesus, dine with sinners." His individualism is of the same piece with these sentences, and is another proof of the substantial unity of his thought with Emerson's: "I may desire others' virtue, but must not interfere with their freedom." "It were better for a man to do a wrong act in obeying his own conscience, than a right one in obeying mine." This, under the head "Thought: Reason," is well put: "Doubt must have the authority of reason. How, then, can we doubt its authority?" And this also: "The very question why we trust our faculties is an appeal to them." Under the head "God: Religion" we have these unconventional opinions: "We have no forms in domestic life. Friendship has none. Is not religion more free?" "It is as incongruous to profess religion as to profess benevolence." "The adoration of goodness—this is religion": a sentence that some modern Unitarian conservatives will very much regret.

Dr. Channing, as did Parker after him, contemplated an *opus magnum*. Parker's was to be a history of religion. The exigencies of the anti-slavery conflict prevented its completion. Channing's was to be a treatise on psychology. His health was not equal to the necessary labor. The sentences included by Miss Channing under the last six or seven sections of her little book are from the notes he made for that intended work. They indicate that it would have had little formal exactness, hardly more than Emerson's Essays. They also indicate that we must class him with the transcendentalists. His idealism is only less absolute than Emerson's, after Fichte. It is that of Kant—allowing the not-me, but insisting on its plastic character: "The truth is, our sensations flow from us and furnish the universe with its varying robes." "It is the soul which aggrandizes nature."

The Rise and Early Constitution of Universities, with a Survey of Mediæval Education. By S. S. Laurie, LL.D. [International Education Series.] D. Appleton & Co. 1887.

IN three hundred pages, Prof. Laurie of Edinburgh presents an interesting study of the higher education of Europe during a period which stretches from the ninth to the fourteenth century. Two introductory chapters exhibit briefly the character of preceding Greek and Roman schools, and also the changes which came about when cloister and cathedral began to appropriate learning to themselves and to teach those who were to conduct their offices. The closing chapters repeat in topical form the results of the previous survey. They discuss the changes of meaning in the term university, and gather together the more important facts about the university studies, students, faculties, privileges, discipline, and graduation. A somewhat abstract preface by Dr. W. T. Harris opens the book, and no index ends it.

Prof. Laurie's thesis is, that until the fourteenth century there was no conscious founding of universities. A university grew, and was not made. The germ from which it started was usually some religious foundation. An ecclesiastical school began to admit lay pupils and to teach its trivium and quadrivium with some relation to secular life. With the enlargement of learning and the increase of civic liberties, came the need of specialized studies to supplement the ordinary work in arts. A great teacher—Constantine, Imerius, William of Champeaux, or Abelard—then gave so decisive an impulse to a single class of studies in his locality, that the place became known as the home of medicine, law, or theology, and attracted thither other teachers and students of similar tastes. An epoch was thus created in the development of the school. A university began—that is, a community of the learned—which soon assumed privileges of organization, self-government, and exemption from public burdens such as at that time were commonly accorded to trade guilds. The towns found the presence of large companies of scholars commercially valuable, and readily conceded moderate claims for privilege. In case of conflict with the towns, an appeal to pope or sovereign for protection generally brought a recognition as authoritative as any modern charter could give. These modes of semi-conscious growth the author illustrates at length by the examples of Salernum, Bologna, and Paris; the more intentional foundations, by the case of Prague.

For English readers this book probably offers the best brief account of the important subject with which it deals. Most teachers who read it will gain something. Yet it cannot be called a good piece of work. For treating coherently so long and complex a period in so brief a space, elaborate preliminary studies of original authorities are essential; and no less essential is the artistic planning of a scheme by which the mass of matter may be brought economically and in neat sequence before the reader's attention. There are no signs of such studies here, or of any such painstaking purpose to ease the student. Most of the authorities, when cited at all, are given at second-hand; and though each sentence is clear, there is no even development of the argument from cover to cover. Hundreds of valuable facts are shovelled together, with many repetitions, omissions, and allusions. Do we praise or condemn when we call the book "suggestive"?

The Military Annals of Tennessee: Confederate. First Series: Embracing a review of military operations, with regimental histories and memorial rolls, compiled from original and official sources, and edited by John Berrien Lindsley, M.D., D.D. Printed for subscribers. Nashville: J. M. Lindsley & Co. 1886.

THIS is certainly a remarkable book. It is one of those publications of which Macaulay said they might have been light reading before the Deluge, when one who died at six hundred was regarded as having been cut off in his prime. Dr. Lindsley's book contains 910 closely printed pages, the steel engravings, of which there are about two score, not being included. And yet this is but the beginning. We are soon to have "The Index of Officers and the Index of Men," containing the names of 8,000 officers and 60,000 men. This in turn will be followed by a third series, giving biographical notes of the prominent Confederates. This last will complete the Confederate Annals. Dr. Lindsley will then undertake, on a commensurate scale, the general history of Tennessee, and will "edit and publish a series of volumes covering the whole field." It is possible that even the antediluvians might have rebelled at this point. Tennessee, Kentucky, and Louisiana are the only Southern States, not of the Continental Confederation, which have received extended historical treatment. But, with the exception of the "Commonwealth Series," almost exclusive attention has been paid to the early settlers. 'The Military Annals of Tennessee' is, in this respect, a pleasant exception.

We cannot but think Dr. Lindsley has made a mistake in the plan he has adopted. With all due respect for the brave men who fought for the Confederate cause, the monument can be justly considered out of proportion to the subject. In its present form, the book will hardly meet with any popular acceptance even in Tennessee, beyond those whom patriotic motives actuate. Outside of the State, its circulation will be confined to public libraries and compilers of encyclopædias. With the rest of the series, we have now nothing to do. But granting the plan of the present book, we are compelled to rate very high the execution of its details. It might be called simply a collection of regimental histories and memorial rolls. Each regiment of infantry and each regiment of cavalry receives separate treatment, the rolls being preceded in most cases by short sketches written by some one actively engaged in its campaigns. Most of the memorial rolls are official, having been copied from the archives in the War Department, by permission of Secretary Lincoln. The opening article is by J. M. Keating, on "Tennessee for Four Years the Theatre of War, 1861 to 1865," a concise and

at times rather graphic account of the part played by Tennessee, or of the scenes enacted on Tennessee soil, during the progress of the great tragedy. Gen. A. P. Stewart's monograph (for such it is) on "The Army of Tennessee" is very fine of its kind, and is like a guiding lamp to one attempting to explore the caverns of this book.

The historical value, or, more accurately, the value to historians, of this work is very great. It cannot, of course, claim to be history—it hardly deserves the title of annals—archives would have been the proper word. But it supplies valuable material for the use of some future historian. If Dr. Lindsley carries out his present plan in reference to the general history of Tennessee, he will supply a mass of historical data surpassing the 'Annales Germaniæ.' It is an additional evidence of progressive enterprise as well as of the awakening of renewed literary activity in the South, that such a volume could have been written and printed exclusively in a State which, less than a quarter of a century ago, was one of the battle-grounds of a great civil war.

The typographical execution of the book is decidedly good and tasteful. The paper is thick and heavy, the type clear, the errors of the typesetter few, and the margin comfortably broad. The numerous steel engravings are equal to the average of such work.

Souvenirs of my Time. By Jessie Benton Frémont. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.

MR. FRÉMONT belongs among that class of specially endowed women who are born to give social pleasure, of which the dames of the French salons are the historical type; and in her day she has seen so many interesting phases of life, and has gathered such a store of anecdotes by merely looking on at what was doing about her, that she makes reminiscence an unfailing source of entertainment. In this volume, which unfortunately is disfigured by some wretched illustrations, she directly addresses young people rather than the general public; but this need not really limit her audience, and it allows of a familiarity in tone, a conversational pitch, and a freedom which are natural graces, and harmonize well with her high spirits, vivacity, and light touch. As the daughter of Senator Benton she saw much of Washington society in its ante-bellum days, and, by virtue of her Virginia family connection, she knew well the men and manners of the Old Dominion, while, her father's home being at St. Louis, she spent a considerable part of her early life in the atmosphere of its old French and western-border associations. Afterwards, as the wife of General Frémont, she saw New Orleans and the Isthmus in a very familiar way on her journey to join him, in the California times; and when she reached San Francisco she began a new chapter of strange experience, in the course of which she discovered Bret Harte. The last half of her volume is devoted to foreign parts, where she had advantages in seeing whatever was to her taste; and she describes some scenes with English and Danish royalty in the foreground, a delightful Tyrolese excursion, and the Paris of the Second Empire, with the same enjoyment in them and eye for their qualities as she shows in her earlier political and pioneering recollections.

This is, we should say, preëminently a woman's book. The womanly element pervades it. The home of the Bentons, at Washington and St. Louis, is described with great feeling for its domestic side; and the strength of family ties, the regard for housewife ability in the management of an establishment with order and dignity, the minuteness with which gala costumes are remembered, and the feminine delight in their fabrics as well as their effects, the irrepressible fact, the profound respect for the men and women of the elder day, the humane feeling for every one with a weakness or a misfortune—are all recurring traits of the volume. The result is a really charming book of minor memoirs, for it is only of the little things that Mrs. Frémont writes—of what happened every day or at famous social fêtes, of how men looked and what happy passing remarks they made, and all such trivialities, which make up the course of life. There is more than one touching anecdote, or rapid, spirited vignette, or pleasant country scene. Mrs. Frémont has the art of brief narration, apparently, as a gift of nature, and she knows what is the essential and living thing in her memories of the past. The old French Count de la Garde is an admirable figure in drawing and life-likeness, and the sketch of his boyish appeal to Mme. Récamier is done with exceeding simplicity and economy. The old St. Louis nurse, the California Democrat, and the Catholic friends at the Isthmus, to mention no more, are studies that an old hand need not be ashamed of; and Count Bodisco's wedding, Mrs. Madison, the burning of Senator Benton's house (both houses of Congress adjourned at once to rush to the scene), and the visits she made to Jackson in her girlhood, are pictures of Washington life, full of reality, and historic, now that those days and their usages have so utterly passed away. Mrs. Frémont was remarkably well favored by her position; she united in her life the interests and affections and purposes of the different parts of the country, and was a national woman in a true sense—not Virginian, or Western, or Unionist only, but an American. Her associates were the distinguished men of the older and the younger period, and her family interests were those of the nation in a broad sense. Hence the wide range and the historic interest of these 'Souvenirs,' which, however, gain their best attraction from the author's character and the womanly charm so unconsciously exhibited. It is a good book for the girls, to whom much of it is addressed, and for the boys, who have their share of special attention; but older readers will enjoy it also, both for the story's and the writer's sake.

A Nomenclature of Colors for Naturalists, and Compendium of Useful Knowledge for Ornithologists. By Robert Ridgway. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1886. 8vo, pp. 129, pll. xvii.

LESS than half of this treatise is devoted to the nomenclature of colors, treated under the heads of principles of color and general remarks, colors required by the zoölogical or botanical artist, and a comparative vocabulary of colors. It is prepared with the best of intentions, for which Mr. Ridgway should have full credit, as he should also for the pains he has taken in this step. But the accomplishment is not here, and the very serious defects of the work leave it little more than an indication of what might have been done. The author is not entirely responsible, perhaps, for such sad typographical errors as that, for example, which appears on page 29, where we are told that a mixture of sepia with French blue and cobalt produces ultramarine blue, or those which hopelessly confound plate 2. The value of the colored plates would have been greatly increased had white slips been attached to each in such manner as to hide from view all but a single one of the parallel columns of color-patches. As these patches stand all in sight at once, the contrasts of these columns of graded colors produce a temporary color-blindness, fatal to the nice discriminations the author seeks to convey to the eye. Again, if there ever was a case for chromotypy, this would seem to be one; yet the patches of color are all rude and irregular hand-painting, most of them mere smirches and daubs. But the idea and the aim of the author are admirable, and his object of establishing a uniform system of color-nomenclature for naturalists may yet be attained by the means he has endeavored to employ.

Part 2 consists of a glossary of technical terms used in descriptive ornithology, and tables for converting the metric system into English inches and conversely. The glossary is much like that furnished by Dr. Coues in Baird, Brewer, and Ridgway's 'History of North American Birds' (1874), but marred by some singularly unhappy definitions. Thus we are told that *gymnopædic* is "synonymous with ptilopædic," whereas it is just the opposite; *homalogonatous* is spelled "homologonatous"; a queer word, *interrhamal*, is said to mean 'between the forks or rhami of the lower jaw,' whence we presume *interramal* is meant; *limicoline* is defined as 'shore-inhabiting,' as if it were from *limes*, a limit, instead of being from *limus*, mud, as it is.

Probably the most satisfactory execution to be found in the treatise is the delineation of forms on plates 14 16, where such terms as "rhomboid," "quadrate," "ocellate," etc., are prettily illustrated by spots on single feathers.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alcott, L. M. La Petite Rose, ses six tantes et ses sept cousins. Adaptation par Stahl et Lermont. Christern.
Bascom, J. Sociology. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Beaumont, Mrs. B. Twelve Years of My Life: An Autobiography. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. $1.50.
Bedside Poetry: A Parents' Assistant in Moral Discipline. Compiled by W. P. Garrison. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. 75 cents.
Bemis, Dr. E. W. Cooperation in New England. American Economic Association. 75 cents.
Benjamin, S. G. W. The Story of Persia. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Black, H. C. An Essay on the Constitutional Prohibitions against Legislation Impairing the Obligation of Contracts, and against Retroactive and Ex-Post-Facto Laws. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Blackmore, R. D. Springhaven: A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 25 cents.
Bourget, Paul. André Cornelis. Christern.
Brette, Rev. P. H. E. An Introduction to French Prose Composition. Harper & Brothers.
Bryans, C. Cæsar. Gallic War IV. Macmillan & Co. 40 cents.
Crosby, W. O. Geological Collections: Mineralogy. Boston: Massachusetts Institute of Technology.
Davis, L. S. Studies in Musical History. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
De Vere, Sir S. E. Translations from Horace, and a Few Original Poems. With Latin Text. 2d ed., enlarged. London: George Bell & Sons.
Dodd, Anna Bowman. Cathedral Days: Tour Through Southern England. Illustrated. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $2.
Goebel, Prof. K. Outlines of Classification and Special Morphology of Plants. A new edition of Sachs's Text-Book of Botany. Book II. Illustrated. Macmillan & Co. $5.25.
Haggard, H. R. Jess: A Novel. Harper & Brothers.
Hasskarl, Rev. G. C. H. Evolution as Taught in the Bible. Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Society.
Hayes, A. A. The Jesuit's Ring: A Romance of Mount Desert. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Hoare, L. Some Chinese Ghosts. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $1.
Hervilly, E. d'. Cinq anniversaires de Molière. Boston: Schoenhof.
History of the New York Stock Exchange and the New York and the London Clearing-House Systems. The Financier Co. 50 cents.
Holland, Canon H. S. Creed and Character: Sermons. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50.
How Private George W. Peck Put Down the Rebellion; or the Funny Experiences of a Raw Recruit. Illustrated. Belford, Clarke & Co.
"Jak." Professor Johnny. Thomas Y. Crowell. $1.25.
Jay, J. The Fisheries Dispute: A Letter to the Hon. William M. Evarts. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Johnston, W. Arguments to Courts and Juries. 1846—1874. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. $3.
Long, A. L. Memoirs of Robert E. Lee: His Military and Personal History, together with Incidents relating to his Private Life subsequent to the War. Collected and edited with the assistance of Marcus J. Wright. Illustrated. J. M. Stoddart & Co.
Longfellow, H. W. The Golden Legend. With Notes by Samuel Arthur Bent. In 2 Parts. Part II. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents.
Luce, Dr. L. H. A Synopsis of the Nature and Effects of Alcohol and Narcotics. Boston: D. C. Heath. 10 cents.
Marston, Dr. L. M. Essentials of Mental Healing; the Theory and the Practice. Boston: The Author.
Maupassant, Guy de. Mont-Oriol. Christern.
Miesse, C. Points on Coal and the Coal Business. Myerstown, Pa: Feese & Uhrich.
Modern Etiquette in Public and Private. Frederick Warne & Co. 50 cents.
Morning Glories. A Volume of Fugitive Verse. Brooklyn: Charles N. Andrews.
Murrell, Dr. W. Massage as a Mode of Treatment. 2d ed. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston, Son & Co. $1.25.
Naftel, E. L. Lessing's Fables in Prose and Verse. Boston: Carl Schoenhof.
Naumann, E. The History of Music. Translated by F. Praeger. 2 vols. Illustrated. Cassell & Co. $10.
Nuttall's Standard Dictionary of the English Language. New ed., revised, extended, and improved, by the Rev. James Wood. Frederick Warne & Co. $1.50.
Oliphant, L. Haifa, or Life in Modern Palestine. Edited with Introduction, by Charles A. Dana. Harper & Brothers.
Parnell, G. S. Cornelius Nepos; Selections. Macmillan & Co. 40 cents.

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HOMŒOPATHY.—EMERSON SAID the mind of J. J. Garth Wilkison had "a very Atlantic roll of thought," and Wilkison wrote of Homœopathy: "The dimensions of power are not weighed by scales, or told off on graduated bottles. . . . I look upon my little bottles as giants that shake great diseases to their marrows and rid the whole man of a foe life-size. Away, then, with bigness based on quantity, and which sits like a vulgar bully in medical shops," etc. This seems to be a very Atlantic breaker roaring on a medical lee shore. All those little bottles, those "giants," decorated with medals and diplomas, may be had at our pharmacies:
New York: 7 W. 42d St. and 145 Grand St.
Philadelphia: 1011 Arch St. and 1030 Walnut St.
Baltimore: 212 W. Fayette St.
Washington: 938 F. St., N. W.
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Chicago: 234 Wabash Ave. Also at many drug-stores.
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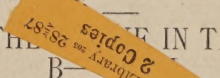

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 217

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS 220

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:
The State of Pennsylvania vs. the Anthracite Coal Companies 222
Money and Political Machines 222
"Pulls" 223
A Study in "Politics" 224
Henry Ward Beecher 225

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:
British Politics and Society 226
The Report of Lord Cowper's Commission 227

CORRESPONDENCE:
The Elective System 228
The Tariff and Socialism 229
Results of sanitary inspection in Chicago 230
The Philadelphia Postmastership 230
Transformation of Surnames 230

NOTES 230

REVIEWS:
Gardiner's Great Civil War 233
Ancient Israel.—II. 235
Recollections of a Private Soldier in the Army of the Potomac 236
The New English 236
The Practical Horse Keeper 237
The Fall of Maximilian's Empire 237

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 237

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 17, 1887.

The Week.

It is a long while since there has been a more conspicuous application of the spoils doctrine in our politics than in the substitution by Gov. Lounsbury of a paper-barrel manufacturer for Prof. Arthur T. Hadley as Commissioner of the Bureau of Labor Statistics in Connecticut. During his two years' service Mr. Hadley has won a place as an investigator and statistician beside such men as Carroll D. Wright and Francis A. Walker; he has disarmed the not unnatural prejudice of the labor organizations against a college professor; he has rendered not only the State but also the country great service by reports which have taken a high rank in the literature of industrial study. Experience had qualified him to render the public far greater service in the future; and every consideration which would lead a man like Gov. Lounsbury to retain in his private employ a man of demonstrated capacity and fidelity, dictated Mr. Hadley's retention in the service of the State. The Republican party had really by implication committed itself to his reappointment when, in the convention which nominated Mr. Lounsbury, it adopted this resolution: "We demand an honest and thorough enforcement of the Civil Service Law, and as far as practicable we favor the extension of its principles to municipal and State administrations," the most fundamental of these principles being the retention of faithful officials.

Gov. Lounsbury's attempt to explain his extraordinary course only shows how sadly the acceptance of the spoils system may warp the judgment of a man. In the conduct of his private business Mr. Lounsbury probably has no fixed terms of employment, engaging his trusted subordinates upon the usual system, which really amounts to retention during good behavior. If there were, however, regular times for deciding the question whether a man should be reëngaged for another definite period, he would expect the man to rest his claims to such reëngagement solely upon his record. This is precisely the course which Prof. Hadley pursued in his relations with his employer, the State of Connecticut. After remarking that some persons, chiefly protectionist manufacturers, had objected to Prof. Hadley on the ground that he was a free-trader, the Governor says, as though he were adducing a perfectly conclusive reason for his course: "I have not been asked to reappoint Mr. Hadley by a single individual. I have not received a single letter requesting his reappointment. Mr. Hadley himself never mentioned the matter to me. In view of all these facts, I decided that I should not be justified in making a reappointment." In other words, Prof. Hadley, like a self-respecting gentleman, chose to rest his claim to reappointment solely upon his record. He employed no lobbyists to urge his reappointment. He urged no friends to write letters to the Governor in his behalf. (We should not be surprised to learn that he might even have asked his friends to refrain from writing, because he did not wish the element of personal solicitation to enter into the matter.) The newspaper press of the State, as the event has shown, and as he doubtless knew, was almost unanimous in desiring his reappointment, and yet he did not procure, as so easily he might have done, the intervention in his behalf of a single Republican editor. And because he pursued this course, because he preferred his own self-respect as a gentleman to the adoption of the truckling politician's methods, the Governor decided that he "should not be justified in making a reappointment"!

Mr. Edmunds has been interviewed on the subject of the next Presidency, and his remarks will be read with interest in the latitude of Augusta, Me. To the question whether Mr. Cleveland would hold the Republican votes he got before if he should run again (as Mr. Edmunds expects him to do), the Vermont Senator replied: "As between two evils they would vote for him." But he does not expect that it will again be a choice "between two evils" in 1888. Having confidence in the wisdom of the Republican party, he thinks it is "sure to nominate a good man" the next time.

Mr. Wharton Barker, one of Mr. Blaine's stanchest supporters in Pennsylvania, says in last week's *American*, discussing the Presidency in 1888: "We say frankly, and we know that we are speaking for many Republicans when we say, that it would be a most desperate experiment, in view of the consequences of failure, to renominate Mr. Blaine. He has had his candidacy. He was loyally supported by every element that will have the right or the opportunity to consider the second proposal of his name. That he failed is not their fault, but his misfortune. He cannot justly ask them to enter with him again on so perilous a venture." He intimates, also, that Mr. Blaine, like Mr. Clay in 1844, reached the height of his strength in 1884, and he asks, "Is it possible to increase or even maintain the enthusiasm of his admirers of two years ago? Is it possible to bring him any new elements of support? Is there any quarter in which he is more popular now than in 1884? Is the confidence which he inspires in other public men and party leaders greater?" All these questions he answers in the negative. Of Mr. Barker's suggestion of Sherman and Harrison as substitutes for Blaine, we will now say nothing, except this, that if Mr. Blaine's supporters mean to withdraw him from the field next year, they must do it thoroughly, and without reservation or subterfuge—that is, they must not only relieve the party of Blaine, but of Blaineism. They must not put up somebody who has a secret agreement with Blaine to work under his orders or influence, or to put him into the State Department, so as to enable him to begin over again the old pyrotechnics of 1881. For t must not be forgotten that Blaine's performances as Secretary of State disgusted and alarmed nearly as many Republicans as his financial trickery and falsehood.

Senator Sherman says that "the House of Representatives should have taken the initial step looking to some measure to reduce taxation," and he berates the Democratic party for incapacity because nothing was done. Two conspicuous attempts to "take the initial step" in this direction by considering a tariff bill were made during the Forty-ninth Congress—in the first session on the 17th of June, 1886, and in the second on the 18th of December. On these occasions the two parties divided as follows:

	For Consideration.	Against.
June	156 Dems.	35 Dems.
	4 Reps.	122 Reps.
December	143 Dems.	25 Dems.
	6 Reps.	129 Reps.

It thus appears that on the question of taking the initial step 80 per cent. of the Democrats voted yea the first time, and 86 per cent. the second time; while only 3 per cent. of the Republicans stood on the right side in June, and but 4 per cent. in December. It will puzzle a shrewder politician than Mr. Sherman to convince the public, in the face of such a showing, that it is the Democratic party which should be held responsible for the failure to reduce taxation.

Speaker Carlisle's address to the Boston Democrats at the dinner of the Bay State Club on Saturday, like Senator Hawley's address to the Michigan Republicans at Detroit on Washington's Birthday, was a vigorous plea for State rights. Explicitly disclaiming any belief in secession or nullification, he enforced the necessity of maintaining States' rights in the proper sense against the present tendency toward centralization and a dangerous aggrandizement of the Federal Government. He urged that the Democratic party should reassert its ancient doctrines as to the nature and extent of Federal power. "It believes," he said, "that the Government was created for the people, and that its functions should be confined to the limits prescribed by them." This is the same idea which Mr. Cleveland so forcibly expressed in his Texas Seed Bill veto, that "though the people support the Government, the Government should not support the people." Indeed, Mr. Carlisle's speech throughout was really a response to the position against paternalism which the President assumed in his Seed Bill and Pauper Pension Bill vetoes. Its chief value is as showing that the wisest leaders of the Democratic party recognize that Mr. Cleveland's stand on this vital issue is as popular as it is sound.

The Tennessee Legislature responds quickly and heartily to the President's plea for a revival of the old-time "sturdiness of our national character." Within a week after Congress had adjourned, and the scheme of Federal aid to Southern education had thus lapsed,

the lower branch of the Legislature, by a vote of more than five to one, passed a bill, in which the Senate will doubtless concur, increasing the amount of the permanent fund available for school purposes from $2,000,000 to $5,000,000, and so much more than doubling the annual contribution of the State to public education. Tennessee has been growing rapidly in material wealth of late years, and this action of the Legislature shows not only that the State is able to maintain a good school system, but, what is still more important, that she is ready to do it without trying any longer to unload the burden upon the shoulders of the Federal Government. It is an object-lesson in self-reliance and self-help which will not be lost upon other Southern States that have been backward in this matter. The Memphis *Appeal* does not exaggerate in the slightest degree when it declares that "Tennessee has not done anything in the last twenty-five years that redounds so much to her credit as the passage of this bill."

The refusal of the Missouri Legislature to make any appropriation for the expenses of the militia is beyond question due to the pressure of the labor vote, which was annoyed by the interference of the militia to protect life and property when the Knights were engaged in "war" with the railroad companies and the community in general last year. Of course the labor voters there as elsewhere are a small minority, but they frighten demagogues in the Legislature there as here, by the fact that they are organized and work together at the polls; and they will continue to frighten them until decent people band together in like manner for the punishment at the polls of the demagogues, like Gov. Hill, who pander to them. This is, however, an obvious view. We mention the subject mainly for the purpose of calling attention to the way in which such occurrences as this abolition of the militia in Missouri steadily encourage the growth among us of mercenary troops like Pinkerton's Men. Of course owners of property in Missouri, whether corporations or private individuals, are not going to leave themselves dependent on the city police and the sheriff for protection against "Labor." When threatened, they will promptly call in Pinkerton and garrison their premises in mediæval fashion. Pinkertons, too, will begin to multiply as the demand for private armed force increases, and the discipline and organization of their troops will be improved. It is not impossible that before the end of the century, if Americans do not wake up in the interval, we may see yards and factories protected by bastions armed with light artillery, and pitched battles fought between Scabs and Labor like the fights of the Ghibellines and Guelphs.

The attempt to organize the whole body of those who labor with their hands into a society hostile to all the rest of the community, and, indeed, to the Government and the laws, has been shown very clearly by the events of the past year to be a failure. Even Henry George begins to see this, and has the courage to say so. The notion that a large strike is more formidable than a small one has been thoroughly exploded. But the fact still remains that not only the Knights of Labor, but nearly all the trade-unions, are managed on the theory that employers are necessarily the enemies of the laboring man, and that capitalists—meaning people who have saved money and hold it as a fund for the employment of labor—are enemies of society and to be treated as such; that is, discouraged, denounced, and legislated against. This is not all, however, nor the worst. They are all, or nearly all, managed as military organizations; that is, ruled despotically by a few officers, whose word of command overrides the individual judgment of the members, not only about the general policy or utterances of the organization, but about each man's personal interests and those of his family. A very large proportion, the larger part, in fact, of the workingmen of this country, see all this as plainly as anybody and do not belong to the unions. But their position outside the unions is, as Mr. Hewitt has said, a "pitiable" one. Being unorganized, they have to stand alone, not only as against their employers, but as against the unions, which persecute them remorselessly, hunting them from town to town and shop to shop, as if they were wild animals, with a pitilessness and cruelty such as neither king nor capitalist would in our day venture to display towards any human being.

We are glad to say that a movement for the organization of the non-union men has at last been begun. The non-union printers have started an organization, which is intended to give those who do not care to surrender their individual judgment in the control of their lives, all the benefits in the way of assistance and protection which the unions now give their members, without robbing them of their freedom, and without placing them in an attitude of hostility to the rest of the community. It leaves its members, in short, part and parcel of the American business community—dependent, as editors, lawyers, and merchants are, for success and respect, in their callings, on integrity, and capacity, and independence, but shielded, as far as mutual help and coöperation can go, against all misfortunes not brought about by misconduct. It leaves every man to rely on honesty, diligence, and fair dealing for his standing in his calling, and discards such questionable practices of the old unions as striking without cause or without discussion, or waiting until the employer is in some pinch or necessity, and then stopping his business in such manner as to do him the greatest possible amount of damage, as if he were a criminal or outlaw. It proposes, in short, to place the workingman on a footing of business equality with the capitalist, with common aims and aspirations, and it recognizes the undoubted fact that no employer who is fit to carry on a business of any kind, is ever likely to resist the reasonable and fairly presented demands of a body of workmen whose intelligence, and reliableness, and capacity make them valuable to him. The new organization is called the Printers' Protective Fraternity.

Cardinal Gibbons, if correctly reported, has been partaking freely of the labor beverage, and appears to be as much under its influence as Gov. Hill. His report to the Propaganda on the view to be taken of the organization by the Church, which was published a fortnight ago, was, as far as literary form goes, a far better document than Gov. Hill could produce, but the reasoning was in all respects worthy of the Governor when his head is stuck deepest in the sand, and shows that "politics" sustained a terrible loss when the Cardinal entered the Church. He has since been reported as having announced himself "the enemy of plutocracy and of soulless corporations and men," as indeed we all are. But he adds, also, that the Catholic Church is "in this instance" (the case of the Knights) "going to take the side of the weaker against the stronger," which is also a blessed announcement, but, in the Cardinal's mouth, needs explanation. We hope that it means—but should like to be assured that it does—that the Cardinal himself is in this country going to take the side of the "scabs" against the Knights of Labor, which is, towards those laborers who do not belong to it, the most "soulless corporation" in existence.

The Cardinal, as a good Catholic, must surely intend, when he gets back, to assert the right of the individual poor man to regulate his own life in his own way, and especially his right to belong or not to belong to societies or organizations, and to sell his labor on his own terms to customers of his own choosing. By "the weaker" he must surely mean that vast body of laborers—the majority—who, because they do not wish to join the Knights or other associations, are, as Mr. Hewitt has well said, "called opprobrious names, hunted from shop to shop, denied employment on the fearful penalty of stopping all work, however pressing or important." This is not all, however. Mr. Hewitt might have added that they have often to follow their callings under the protection of an armed guard, are often afraid to return to their homes at night lest they should be murdered or maimed on the way; are often fired at with pistols, struck down with slung-shots, beaten with bludgeons, and denied food at the stores, simply for exercising the simplest of an American citizen's rights. The men who carry on this atrocious persecution, or encourage it, or wink at it, or say it cannot be helped, are the Knights of Labor, and notably such eminent Christians as Powderly, Turner, Quinn, and others, and that eminent philanthropist and philosopher, Henry George. We take it for granted the Cardinal has not heard of all this, and that when he does he will let loose some of his ecclesiastical thunder on those oppressors of the poor, the soulless ruffians who have been humbugging him into supporting at Rome the claims of one of the most anti-social and despotic organizations ever set up, to be petted and fostered by the Vicar of Jesus Christ.

We can vouch for the correctness of the following statement of the real features of the Sully-Garrett deal. Sully agreed to buy and Garrett agreed to sell 80,000 shares of Baltimore and Ohio stock at 200—that is, for the total sum of $16,000,000, payable as follows: $1,000,000 on Thursday last, 10th inst., $5,000,000 additional in forty-five days thereafter, $10,000,000 more in one

year from the date of the contract. The contract further gave Sully the right to make the whole of the stock the basis of an issue of $10,000,000 collateral-trust debentures. In this very feature lay the impracticability of the scheme, for the creation of such a trust would leave the first six millions to be paid entirely "in the air." Mr. Garrett did not bind himself to put any of the stock in escrow, thus leaving the question an open one whether he would have been able to deliver the whole amount conditionally sold. For a long time negotiations have been carried on between Mr. Garrett and other parties than the Sully combination for the purchase of his interest in the Baltimore and Ohio stock. We have reason to think that these negotiations are far more likely to result in the accomplishment of their object than the collapsed other "deal."

The decision handed down by the Supreme Court a few days ago, whereby the "drummers' tax" levied on salesmen from other States by the "Taxing District of Shelby County, Tenn." (in other words, the city of Memphis), was declared to be unconstitutional, will deprive several States of considerable revenue. In an argument made last year before the House Committee of Commerce, counsel for the Traders' and Travellers' Union pointed out that fourteen States and Territories and the District of Columbia levy this tax in some form. Among them are Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, Alabama, Louisiana, Texas, and Colorado. The Richmond *State* says that the revenues of Virginia will be diminished by not less than $50,000; the revenues of North Carolina will fall off quite as much, and the loss will not be smaller, perhaps, in any of these States which had built a protective barrier against the "commercial missionary." Some of them levy a tax on salesmen whether they solicit orders for houses within or without the State; but since the Supreme Court has declared the tax on those who live outside the State unconstitutional, because it is an interference with the freedom of inter-State commerce over which Congress has exclusive control, the present taxes on "home drummers" are sure to be repealed by the next Legislatures of all these States. This decision makes unnecessary the bill introduced in Congress by Mr. Darwin R. James, which prohibits the levying of any such tax by any State on salesmen from other States.

The decision will have—at least it ought to have—a good effect on commercial morals that will do more than make up for the loss of revenue. These taxes were so generally evaded that in many communities it had become a point of honor among travelling salesmen not to pay them. At this evasion their customers winked, and not infrequently both drummer and customer profited privately by it. A premium was put on commercial dishonesty. The Traders' Union published the statement last year that 7,000 drummers visited Washington in 1885, and that instead of the $1,400,000 which the District of Columbia would have received if its $200 license fee had been paid by every one, it received only $10,000. "It may be pertinent," they remarked, "to inquire what became of the $1,390,000 not accounted for?" There is no reason to believe that the treasury of any State or Territory received a much larger proportion than this of the revenue that its law contemplated, and it is certain that this kind of "protection" did not protect anybody or encourage respect for the laws in general. Financially and morally it was very like protection on a larger scale.

If any of the women of this State feel downhearted over the defeat of the Municipal Woman-Suffrage Bill at Albany, they may find some consolation in a report just made by the Secretary of State of Massachusetts on the practical operation of the law of that State allowing women to vote at elections for school committees. This law has been in operation long enough to test the question how eager women are for the ballot, and the statistics are as follows: In 1881, 3,349 women qualified themselves to vote by registering, but of these only 1,571 went to the polls. In 1882, 2,951 women registered and 1,346 voted. The registration in 1883 was 3,138, and the vote 1,469; in 1884 the registration was 3,778, and the vote 1,896; in 1885 the registration was 5,260, and the vote 3,227; and in 1886 the registration was 4,219, and the vote 1,911. Thus in the six years the average number registered was 3,782, and the average vote was 1,903. Placing the average male vote of Massachusetts at 300,000, the total female vote should be 337,500, as the female population of the State exceeds the male by about 66,000. Therefore, we find that the eagerness of the female part of the population of Massachusetts for the ballot is measured by the fact that one woman in every 176 votes when she is allowed to. There is one point, however, brought out in these statistics which deserves consideration. While only one woman in 176 votes when she can, one in every 80 takes advantage of the opportunity to register. Perhaps, now, the female suffragists have made the mistake of demanding the ballot, when what the political female heart is longing for is to put her name on the registry list.

The Salisbury Ministry seem to be floundering from one difficulty into another in their dealings with the Irish question, and each one seems greater than the last. They have secured the promise of 70 votes from the Unionists in support of a measure of coercion, which is to consist simply of an enlargement of the summary powers of the local magistrates. Of Hartington they are tolerably sure to the end, as he looks at the whole Irish problem, land question and all, from the point of view of the heir to a great dukedom. The hold they have on Chamberlain and on the rank and file of the Unionists is of a different kind. These men calculate that if, by supporting the Tories pretty steadily, they can keep them in power during the present Parliament—say five years—they will before the next general election have got rid of Gladstone by death or infirmity. They feel very confident that no other Liberal will be able to keep home rule before the voters as a burning question, and they will thus be able bye-and-bye to step back into the Liberal ranks themselves without fear or reproach. This policy may work very well if nothing occurs to excite public opinion against the Ministry to a point which would frighten the main body of Unionists and lead to desertions. But things are daily occurring which make this contingency seem very probable.

As was expected, Bismarck's victory in the late electoral contest has had a tranquillizing effect upon European international politics. He has proved to France that he has all Germany, practically undivided, behind him, and that he will be prepared for every emergency. During the Parliamentary debates which preceded the election he had repeatedly assured France, and all Europe, that he was not going to be the attacking party "under any circumstances," and his conduct after the triumph is in evident harmony with that assurance. The reasonableness of the determination was, in fact, so patent, considering the general military and political situation, that only blind hatred could doubt its sincerity. The cry which some weeks ago went through France and Russia, and was re'echoed in other countries, that the republic was going to be invaded, is now almost completely hushed, and France is so delighted with the triumphant manifestation of French patriotism by the electoral constituencies of Alsace-Lorraine, that she quietly enjoys the cheering prospect of immunity from aggression, and waits for Russia to begin the attack on Germany.

This temporizing disposition of France keeps the sword of Russia in the scabbard, while to render Russian aggression a still more hazardous task, and the consummation of a Franco-Russian alliance an attempt of most questionable utility, the German Chancellor has tightened the bonds of the formerly indefinite alliance created by himself between Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy. A formal triple alliance, mutually guaranteeing the present possessions of the contracting Powers, is now positively asserted to have been concluded at the beginning of this month for three years. And it also appears from various indications that Rumania, hitherto wavering between two opposite tendencies—the desire to insure her security from the overwhelming pressure of the Russian neighbor, and the equally strong desire to wrest from Austria-Hungary, with the help of Russia, extensive districts mainly inhabited by Rumans—has finally decided on casting her lot with the Central European coalition. The King of Servia is more than an ally, he is almost a vassal, of the Hapsburg Emperor, who secures his throne against the pretenders of the House of Karageorge, now related by marriage to the Prince of Montenegro, the only faithful friend of the Czar in the Balkan Peninsula. The Sultan himself was nearly won over by skilful diplomacy to the Russian side in the great imbroglio, but he, too, has apparently been driven from it by the fear of having to contend both with Bismarck's coalition and the power of Great Britain. Russia thus remains isolated, with only France as a prospective ally. But she has a population of a hundred millions, a tremendous engine in autocracy, an undying fanaticism, and an unbounded faith in her Slavic destiny; and passion goads her on,

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

WEDNESDAY, March 9, to TUESDAY, March 15, 1887, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC

THE bill providing support for the militia of the State of Missouri was defeated in the Legislature on March 9, and the companies theretofore organized have disbanded, or will disband. The failure of the bill is reported to be the result of the opposition of the labor organizations.

The lower house of the Tennessee Legislature has passed a bill to increase the permanent school fund of the State from $2,000,000 to $5,000 000, which, at six per cent. interest, will yield nearly $300,000, or $180,000 more than the present fund yields.

The Legislature of California has passed a "Pure-Wine Bill," which prohibits the manufacture of impure wine, and requires every wine-maker and bottler in the State to affix his name to all his bottles and casks. A label for every bottle or cask must be procured from the State Comptroller. But the law is not a revenue measure, for the State charges for the labels a price that covers only the expense of printing and distributing them.

More than 1,000 women at Leavenworth, Kan., have registered and will cast their votes, as allowed by the recently enacted law which grants municipal suffrage to women.

In the New York Assembly on March 15 the High-License Bill, which fixes the tax for selling spirituous liquors at $1,000, was ordered to a third reading by a vote of 65 to 51. All the yeas were Republicans. This insures the passage of the measure.

The Congressional Apportionment Committee of the lower house of the Pennsylvania Legislature has agreed on such a redistricting of the city of Philadelphia as, it is thought, will prevent the election of any Democratic Congressman from that city. This action is significant because it may "shut out" Mr. Randall.

The Florida State Colored Fair was opened at Jacksonville on March 15. The total value of the exhibits is not less than $400,000, and among them are drawings, maps, and other handiwork of the colored pupils of Florida schools. There is a big display of preserved fruits and cereals, and of fancy work, silk wraps, dresses, and the like.

Texas cattlemen have decided to build a large refrigerator canning and packing establishment at Houston, which will make Houston the most important cattle market in the South. Arrangements have already been made for the transportation of the beef to England.

The loss of cattle in Montana Territory this winter is thought already to be not less than 30 per cent., and many more will die before the snow entirely disappears. For two months the stock in many places has been almost without food and exposed to intense cold. The thermometer has been as low as 57 degrees below zero in Northern Montana. For the first ten days in February the average was 20 below. This extreme temperature, and the lack of grass, and hard-crusted snow two feet deep, have caused the death of even the hardiest animals. Sheep-raisers are suffering to almost the same extent as the cattlemen. The consequent financial depression extending to many branches of trade will be felt for the whole year. Stock-raising on the "rustling" plan, that is, by trusting to favorable weather on the ranches, it is reported, will not be extensively tried another season. The winter ranch, it is thought, will give way to the stock-farm.

Great destitution has been caused among the Cheyenne Indians in Montana because the snow has cut them off from the Government's supplies.

Many plantations below Vicksburg have been inundated by the overflow of the Mississippi River.

A company has been formed with $5,000,000 capital, it is reported, which will build cotton-seed oil mills in most of the Southern centres of trade.

The strike of the railroad employees at Pittsburgh and west of that city has caused a serious blockade of freight at Youngstown, O., but the strike has been discountenanced by the leaders of the labor organizations, and no further trouble is anticipated. Five hundred laborers on a railroad near Marquette, Mich., who struck for higher wages, were prevented by officers of the law from doing violence to new employees, and the work which was suspended for a few days has been resumed.

Great excitement was caused in railroad circles on March 9 and for several days following by the rumor that the control of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Company had passed into the hands of a syndicate which would thereby become controllers of one of the most extensive railway systems in the world, extending from New York almost to the uttermost parts of the South and far into the West, and including the Central Railroad of New Jersey, the Philadelphia and Reading system, the Richmond Terminal and Richmond and Danville lines, the East Tennessee, Virginia and Georgia lines, the Central Railroad of Georgia, and the Baltimore and Ohio, making not less than 16,000 miles of track. This great consolidation has not been made, but there is yet expectation that some modification of it will be consummated.

On April 13 the centenary of the reorganization of Columbia College will be celebrated.

On March 9 the Board of Trustees of Cornell University elected a Law Faculty, consisting of Judge Douglas Boardman of the Supreme Court of New York, who will be Dean of the school; Prof. H. B. Hutchins of the Law School of the University of Michigan, Professor of the Law of Real and Personal Property and of Equity, and Charles A. Collin of Elmira, N. Y. In addition to these resident members of the Faculty, Judge Francis M. Finch of the Court of Appeals, Daniel H. Chamberlain of New York, William F. Coggswell of Buffalo, and Theodore Bacon of Rochester, were elected non-resident lecturers. Prof. Herbert Tuttle was elected Professor of English Constitutional Law and International Law, to lecture both in the Law School and in the School of History and Political Science. At a subsequent meeting the Executive Committee of the Board of Trustees appointed Francis M. Burdick of Hamilton College Associate Professor of Law.

A statue of Gen. Garfield will be unveiled in the circle at the junction of Maryland Avenue and First Street, Washington, on April 12.

The warden and engineer of the Cook County (Ill.) Hospital (in Chicago), the warden of the insane asylum, and a bookkeeper of a firm of contractors who have done work for the county, have been indicted by a Special Grand Jury for conspiracy to defraud the county.

The American yachts the *Dauntless* and the *Coronet* set sail from Sandy Hook on March 12, for a transatlantic race to Queenstown for a wager of $10,000 a side.

On the morning of March 14 a suburban train from Dedham, Mass., bound for Boston, on the Dedham branch of the Boston and Providence Railroad, fell through an iron girder bridge between Roslindale and Forest Hills, a station about six miles from Boston. The train comprised nine passenger coaches, six of which were thrown in the gap below, causing an appalling loss of life and limb. As many as 30 persons were killed and 100 injured. All the passengers were persons who lived in the suburbs of Boston or in the city itself.

Many thousands of people viewed the remains of Henry Ward Beecher in Plymouth Church, Brooklyn, on March 11. The funeral was preached by the Rev. Charles H. Hall, and funeral services were held in several other churches, and the business houses in Brooklyn were closed during the greater part of the day. Mr. Beecher was buried in Greenwood Cemetery on March 12.

James B. Eads, the engineer of the bridge across the Mississippi River at St. Louis, and of the Mississippi River levees, and the designer of a ship-railway across the Central American isthmus, died at Nassau on March 8. Eben F. Pillsbury died at Melrose, Mass, on March 12. He was until within a few years a resident of Augusta, Me., and was a prominent lawyer and Democratic politician in that State. He was appointed Collector of Internal Revenue for the Eastern District of Massachusetts by President Cleveland, but the Senate refused to confirm him.

FOREIGN.

On March 13, the anniversary of the assassination of Alexander II., an attempt was reported to have been made to take the life of the Czar. Persons with explosives in their possession were arrested in St. Petersburg on the route he was to have taken to attend a service held in commemoration of his father. The strongest confirmation of the seriousness of the plot is that the Czar again retired to his secluded residence at Gatchina, which he occupied during the first months of his reign. A report has been published at Vienna that a well-organized plot has been discovered to overthrow the Government of Russia, and to establish a limited constitutional government. This, however, lacks confirmation. The Imperial Court of St. Petersburg attended a funeral service before the tomb of Alexander II. in the Cathedral of St. Peter and St. Paul. Services were held in all the churches and at the shrine over the spot where he was killed. In the evening the city was illuminated in honor of the accession of Alexander III. The Czar on his forty-second birthday (March 10) received cordial telegrams from the King of Italy, the Emperor of Austria, and the Prince of Montenegro. The Emperor and Empress of Germany gave a gala dinner in his honor, at which Gen. von Moltke, Count Herbert Bismarck, all the members of the Russian Embassy, and many other distinguished persons were present.

Definite information was published on March 15 at London and Vienna that while the Czar was returning from the requiem services a bomb attached to a cord was thrown under his carriage. The intention was to tighten the string, which was connected with the mechanism, and thus explode the bomb; but, before it could be executed, the student who threw it and a suspected accomplice were seized. It was found that they lived together in a lodging-house in a suburb of the city. The police visited this house and discovered there a quantity of explosives and a number of revolutionary pamphlets. More than 200 persons have been arrested. The bomb was shaped like a book, so that it could be carried in the hand without exciting suspicion.

The persons arrested in connection with the constitutional plot indignantly deny that they are in any way connected with the effort to take the Czar's life. Their motto, they say, is "The people; with the Czar or against the Czar." They have published a lithographic periodical composed mainly of extracts from the works of notable writers on constitutional law and political economy. The statutes of the Society obliged all the members to join, at the signal of their chief, in doing their utmost to subvert the existing Government and establish a constitutional government. It is reported that the conspiracy of Russian land-owners and tradesmen to overthrow the Czar's Government was very extensive, and included a number of military officers, and that it was chiefly on this ground that the Czar was averse to undertaking war.

The plot against the life of the Czar has had a tendency to revive talk of war. The Berlin *Post* on March 16 said: "With terror and regret we say that Europe must prepare to see Russia adopt a policy of despair, taking shape either in fatalistic resignation or frantic adventures. The latter is the more probable. It will require a superhuman effort on the part of the Czar to oppose the tempest of voices calling for war as a remedy for Russia's woes."

Two more of the leaders in the recent insurrection in Bulgaria have been sentenced to death, and 125 other participants in the revolt have been sentenced to prison. Conflicting reports have come of thwarted plots of insurgents, but there has been no other outbreak. The Regents have decided to summon the Great Sobranye and submit to it reports of the recent trouble, and to ask either that a supreme power for the government of the country be formed or that the present régime be confirmed.

It has been reported that the German police have discovered a great Anarchist conspiracy extending throughout Germany, Switzerland, Russia, and America. But no definite facts about it have been made known and no action taken, except to disband certain suspicious societies in Alsace-Lorraine.

During the discussion of the budget in the Provincial Committee of Alsace Lorraine, a Deputy, speaking for the Government, said, on March 15, that the spirit which the late elections had shown, induced the Government to resort to measures to protect the province from illegal agitation. The Government was convinced that the time had arrived when it was necessary to adopt measures more severe than it had wished to adopt to weld the province in closer cohesion with the rest of Germany.

Great preparations are making for the celebration of the ninetieth birthday of the Emperor of Germany on March 22. The King and Queen of Saxony, the Crown Prince of Würtemberg, the Princes of the Houses of Baden and Hohenzollern, Prince Louis of Bavaria, and the Dukes of Saxe-Coburg and Saxe-Meiningen are going to Berlin to take part in the festivities. It is reported that eighty members of royal families will be present on that occasion. The Prince of Wales is expected on the 20th and will remain a week. The Crown Prince of Denmark and the Crown Prince of Sweden and Norway are also expected. Prince von Hohenlohe, Governor of Alsace-Lorraine, has ordered a grand celebration of the day, the festivities to include military reviews and other pageants. The Czar will send the Grand Duke Vladimir and the Grand Duke Michael, with a large suite, to Berlin; and Nizami Pasha will represent the Sultan of Turkey.

Paragraph 1 of the Septennate Army Bill, which passed its final reading by a vote of 227 to 31 (84 members not voting) in the Reichstag on March 11, fixes the peace effective force of the German Empire from April 1, 1887, to March 31, 1894, at 468,400 men, exclusive of one-year volunteers. Paragraph 2 fixes the infantry at 534 battalions, the cavalry at 465 squadrons, the field artillery at 364 batteries, the foot artillery at 31 battalions, the pioneers at 19 battalions, and the trainmen at 18 battalions.

The passage of the Septennate Bill in the German Reichstag and the quiet that followed the insurrection in Bulgaria gave a peaceful tone to European news for a week. But it is now reported that 10,000 men are engaged night and day in fortifying Cracow. Austria has made great though late preparations for war, and Germany is prepared to start a campaign on a day's notice. The army contracts are signed, the officers have sealed marching orders, and the expectation of war is yet general in both Austria and Germany.

The fourth son of Prince William, son of the Crown Prince of Germany, was bapuized at Potsdam on March 12. The Emperor was present and held the infant at the font during the baptism.

M. de Lesseps has made a visit to Berlin, which it has been suspected and denied was of political significance. On March 9 he was the guest of Emperor William at supper, and both the Emperor and the Empress bestowed upon him marked attentions. His effort to secure the neutrality of the Suez Canal is reported to have been amicably but evasively received by Prince Bismarck.

Russian admirers of the French Gen. Boulanger have presented to him a valuable sword.

By an accidental explosion of mélinite, a new explosive, in the French Arsenal at Belfort on March 10, six men were killed and eleven injured.

An important incident of political discussion in Great Britain was a speech by Mr. Joseph Chamberlain on March 9, in which, speaking for the Liberal-Unionists, he declared that groundless hopes had been raised among the Gladstonian Liberals, who were mistaken in throwing up their hats before they were out of the woods, and that the difficulties in the way of a union of all factions of the Liberal party were greater than ever. The Liberal-Unionists, he said, would never surrender an inch of their demand that the Imperial Parliament should retain its supremacy with members from every section of the United Kingdom within its walls. The central authority at Dublin must be subordinate to Parliament and not coördinate. They would never consent to surrender the Irish Protestant counties to the control of a Dublin Parliament against the will of the citizens of those counties. He congratulated the Liberal-Unionists on the fact that they remained in fighting trim.

Mr. Gladstone on March 10 gave notice to the Liberal party that he himself would lead the opposition to the Coercion Bill in Parliament.

Mr. Gladstone, replying to the request of a number of his adherents for information as to the coacessions offered to the Unionists, has said that the Liberals may rely upon his firm adherence to the principles and bases of his home-rule policy. The Radical Unionists attribute the failure of the conference negotiations to Mr. Gladstone's decision to abide by Mr. Parnell's demands. Since the breaking off of negotiations with the Gladstonian Liberals, the demands of the Unionists have grown. As formulated they comprise the following essentials: That Ireland be represented in the Imperial Parliament; that Ulster be separated from the jurisdiction of the Dublin Parliament; that the Irish Parliament be subordinate to and not coördinate with the imperial body; that the subordinate powers of the Irish Parliament be strictly defined and limited; that the maintenance of law and order remain under the control of the imperial authority; that Mr. Gladstone's financial proposals be abandoned; that his proposition that the Irish Parliament be composed of two orders be abandoned, and that British credit be not pledged for the benefit of Irish landlords. The Parnellites and Gladstonians scout these demands as unworthy of consideration.

A sensation was caused in British politics by the publication of Gen. Sir Redvers Buller's evidence before the Irish Land Commission. The drift of his testimony was that it would be a serious matter, with their grievances unredressed, to attempt to suppress by force the tenants' right openly to associate for the protection of their interests. This testimony was so reported as to take much of its force away, and it was said that the important part of it was suppressed. That any part of it was suppressed was promptly denied, but that this testimony was embarrassing to the Government has not been denied. On nearly every one of the thousand pages of the blue book is evidence favorable to a suspension of evictions and to Gen. Buller's plan of legal machinery between tenant and landlord. The testimony for coercion occupies about one twentieth of the space, the remaining being for legislation.

The Prince of Wales presided on March 11 at the annual meeting of the Royal Thames Yacht Club. The money for the 1,000-guinea jubilee prize has already been subscribed, and the 14th of June has been fixed as the date for starting the race. The course laid out is from the Nore northward up the east coast of England, around Scotland and Ireland to Dover.

The cataract in Sir Michael Hicks-Beach's eye is becoming more dense, but his health is better.

A foreman and a draughtsman at the British navy-yard at Chatham have been discharged for revealing secret naval designs to Russian agents.

At the Papal Consistory on March 14 the Pope announced that Monsignor di Rende, Papal Nuncio at Paris; Rampolla del Tindaro, Nuncio at Madrid; Vannutelli, Nuncio at Vienna; Masela, ex-Nuncio at Lisbon; and Bishop Gordani of Ferrara, had been created Cardinals. He also announced the appointment of eight Italian, two Spanish, one Portuguese, and three East Indian Bishops.

The Pope has asked Cardinal Manning for his opinion on capital and labor, and will await a reply before writing his encyclical. Cardinal Gibbons, who is now in Rome, has been reported as saying that there would be no conflict in the United States between the Catholic Church and the Knights of Labor.

An earthquake shock was felt on March 11 throughout the region of the late disturbance. At Mentone it was the most violent since that of February 23. The walls of many houses were again cracked, and mirrors and glassware were broken. Visitors hurried away, and residents camped out in the open air. At Monte Carlo the shock caused a panic in the gambling rooms. The vibration was felt sharply in Marseilles, where for a time there was a panic. The hotels and the Bourse were emptied in a very few seconds. The walls of many buildings were cracked.

Mr. Walker Fearn, United States Consul-General to Greece, on March 14 opened the new building erected by the American Society at Athens for the study of classical archæology. Mr. Fearn and the principal of the Society thanked the Government for the gift of the site.

The Stanley expedition for the relief of Emin Bey arrived at Cape Town on March 10, and proceeded to the Congo River. The men composing the expedition were reported to be in fine condition.

News has been received at Zanzibar from Emin Bay. In November he went to Uganda, but permission was refused him to go through the country. Advices from Uganda, dated January 24, say that Dr. Junker's caravan reached Emin Bey safely, and that he was well.

The members of the House of Commons of the Canadian Parliament recently elected are divided as follows: Ministerialists 112, Opposition 95, with 8 members from disputed districts not reckoned.

The Canadian Government has forwarded a proposition to the Colonial Office in London concerning the fisheries dispute with the United States, wherein it is suggested that Great Britain should at once propose to the United States the settlement of all questions without reserve by the appointment of a commission to consist as follows: One delegate to be named by the Governor and Council of Canada, one from Newfoundland, by and with the consent of Great Britain; two from the United States, and one from some independent European Power. With such a Commission, it is said, all questions could be satisfactorily adjusted. It is understood that Germany is the Power which Canada would prefer as referee.

The Canadian protective fleet in the fishing waters this year will be larger than that of last year, and "the Yankee smack that succeeds in trespassing within the three-mile limit without molestation," Sir John McDonald is quoted as saying, "will have to be commanded by an uncommonly cunning old sea dog."

THE STATE OF PENNSYLVANIA VS. THE ANTHRACITE COAL COMPANIES.

TOWARD the end of last summer the Governor of Pennsylvania let it be known that he had discovered a corrupt agreement between the companies engaged in carrying anthracite coal, and that he had determined to exert the whole power of the State to break it up. As every one who read the newspapers knew that the "coal pool" had been in existence for nearly two years, and as there seemed to be no reason for supposing that there was any more corruption in it than in other pools, the public listened to this announcement with chilling indifference. It was suggested that the Governor's action was caused by the approach of the fall election, and the feeling that something ought to be done to rescue his Administration from impending oblivion. He had been elected as a reform Governor, but he had instituted no reforms, and his course from the beginning had been a disappointing one.

Such suggestions as these called forth vigorous protestations of good faith from Gov. Pattison; but the report of the proceedings in the suit that he caused to be instituted against the coal companies precludes belief in these protestations. A more humiliating failure on the part of a plaintiff is inconceivable. To be sure, the suit was begun too near election time to advance very far before a change of administration occurred, but the witnesses called by the State heaped up such a mass of evidence against it that no subsequent proceedings could make much difference with the result. That must be a weak case for the plaintiff in which he relies upon the defendant for his evidence; but, with one exception, all the witnesses called by the Attorney-General were officers or agents of the defendant companies. That exception was in the case of an officer of the State Bureau of Industrial Statistics, and his testimony was more damaging to the case of the State than was that of the defendants themselves. The State had charged that the companies had restricted production during the year 1885. The Attorney-General succeeded in establishing out of the mouth of his own witness that this charge was false, and that, in fact, the production of that year had increased by 6,000,000 tons. The palpable absurdity of these figures would have discredited the defendants' case had they introduced them; when brought out by the plaintiff they turned the whole proceeding into a farce.

That the way of the demagogue is hard was curiously illustrated by another circumstance that appeared upon this investigation. The miners are now generally paid upon a "sliding scale"—their wages rising with the price of coal—and their pay constitutes from five-sixths to six-sevenths of the cost of production. If, then, the companies had succeeded in raising the price of coal, they would have conferred a benefit upon "labor." In some communities it might be urged that the interests of the great mass of laborers who consume coal were of more consequence than those of the small number who produce it. But this argument has always been regarded as fallacious in Pennsylvania, and is, moreover, hostile to the "labor" policy. Gov. Pattison, therefore, found himself in the awkward position of denouncing the employers of about 100,000 laborers, most of them voters, and Democratic voters at that, for adopting a policy that would raise their wages and lessen their hours of work.

For these reasons the attack upon the coal companies must be pronounced a failure; but the testimony taken in the suit is in some respects of real value. It illustrates several important economic laws. The production of anthracite coal is substantially a monopoly. This is not so much due to an agreement among producers as to an agreement among the carriers, who are much fewer in number than the producers, and upon whom the producers are dependent. Monopolies have an odious name; but it is often the case that their interests are the same as those of the public. It may be questioned whether the great coal companies have in the past been governed by this principle, but the circumstances of the present time have compelled them to act in accordance with it. They have been ground between the upper millstone of the competition of the producers of bituminous coal and the nether millstone of the unions of miners, with the result that they have to treat all parties fairly. In fact, it seems to be their stockholders, and not the public, who have now most cause to complain.

Thus it appears that in the case of the Lehigh Coal and Navigation Company the price of coal was lower in 1886—under the alleged corrupt combination—than in any year since the war, and lower than the average of any previous year except 1879. This price, moreover, was very little above the cost of production, nearer to it, in fact, than in 1879, on account of the advance in wages. The profit made by this company, whose coals are exceptionally valuable, was in 1886 only 15 cents a ton, without allowing for royalties, interest, or depreciation of improvements. As the surface seams of coal are exhausted, it becomes necessary to use expensive hoisting machinery, and the cost of keeping the collieries free from water steadily increases. As the coal is taken out more thoroughly, more timber is used, and the price of timber has itself advanced. Greater care also has to be taken in preparing coal for market, for people have grown fastidious.

The fluctuations in price that regularly take place during the year, and the variations in the amounts produced from month to month, are not so arbitrary as the public suppose. They are caused by a very simple physical fact—the bulky character of the commodity compared with its value. The expense of storing coal is so great where land is valuable that large consumers prefer not to buy it until they need it. Furthermore, the expense per ton of rehandling it when it is stored by the companies is more than the average profit. The cheapest place for storing coal is the mine. The economical management of the business, therefore, requires that when the coal is once moved, it should be kept steadily in motion until it reaches the consumer. Hence it becomes necessary not only to reduce production when the demand is slack, but to lower the price at the same time. Were this not done, the cost of production would be greater and the average price higher, while the miners would be idle for months at a time. Were the production to be the same in every month, the companies would at one time be overloaded with their own products, for they have not storage room for more than a million tons, while at another they could not supply the demand. Formerly, when there was no "pool," the fluctuations of price were much more violent, the periods when the miners were idle were much longer, and the expense of doing the business was much greater.

Upon the whole, it seems that the "coal pool" has been the result of an economic necessity, and produces an economic gain. The companies were charged with entering into a conspiracy to restrict the production of coal, to raise its price, and to lower the wages of miners. The evidence so far brought forward in support of these charges shows that, whatever the purpose of the "conspiracy" may have been, it has been attended with an increase of production, a reduction of profit to the producers, a reduction of price to the consumers, and an increase of wages to the miners. There is no reason to suppose that this state of affairs will be bettered by the interference of the State.

MONEY AND POLITICAL MACHINES.

MR. WILLIAM M. IVINS has published in the *Evening Post* two more papers, in which he follows up the growth of the evils so forcibly pointed out in his paper before the Commonwealth Club, and indicates the remedy for them. His new revelations, while not so startling as those in the first paper, are scarcely less interesting. Mr. Ivins shows that we owe the demoralizing practice of heavy assessments to the fertile political genius of John Kelly. Nothing affords stronger evidence of the merits of the invention, from a political point of view, than the broad general results which it accomplished within the short period of a dozen years. The grand total of "assessments" was run up from a few thousand dollars in 1872 to nearly a quarter of a million in 1884. Three political Machines were built up, controlling on election day an aggregate force of 45,000 men, equal to one fifth of the entire voting population, all of whom were under pay and who had a pecuniary interest in the outcome of the election. The total amount of money distributed among these 45,000 on election day was over $700,000. They had at stake in the election at least $1,000,000 more in salaries, which their leaders hoped to get from the city for themselves and as many of their followers as could be quartered upon the city's pay rolls. Looking at John Kelly's mission in politics, in its proper light, that of obtaining the largest possible amount of spoils, no man can view these results and deny that he was a great leader. He reduced politics to such a perfect system that, when his power was at its height, he made the government of this city literally a matter of bargain and sale. He quarrelled with Governor Cleveland because the latter would not take this view of public office, and he quarrelled with every Mayor who made like objection. He had Tammany Hall organized into as subservient an army of mer-

cenaries as ever existed, and we had an example of what he was able to do with them when, in 1884, he threw almost their solid vote against the Presidential candidate of his party, whom he had repeatedly pledged himself to support. He literally sold his whole Machine vote to the Blaine managers in return for Republican votes for his candidate for Mayor, and nobody can examine the figures of the returns and not be convinced that the bargain was kept by both sides. The failure to deliver quite enough to insure success in the election undoubtedly had much to do with hastening Kelly's death. He had made a final and remarkable demonstration of the perfection of his system, but he had failed in a stake for life or death.

That bargain of 1884 was only an instance on a large scale of what goes on in every municipal election, and what must, from the nature of the case, go on in every election so long as the present machinery is continued. Mr. Ivins shows with great clearness why this must be so The State has neglected to supply the needed machinery of elections beyond the mere recording, receiving, and counting of the vote. Gradually there have been built up to supply this deficiency three political organizations, composed of men who have taken up this as the most profitable business lying open to them. They have gone into it from no motives of public duty or patriotism, but simply to get a living The more extravagant and corrupt politics can be made, the better living will they get. They cannot be blamed for this. They have taken up a business which nobody else would touch. They are able to take it up solely because the respectable people have been too indifferent to do it for themselves, and too careless of the public good to provide for its doing by the State. The wonder is not that the Machines are so corrupt and unscrupulous, but that they do any good at all. They do put fit men into office occasionally, though if they were always to combine in favor of bad men, they could win in spite of all obstacles.

There are encouraging signs that the people of this city are waking up to the disgrace of allowing such a state of affairs to continue. We put a tax upon nominations for office which excludes all but rich men from getting into high positions, and we put a premium upon political dishoncsty and trickery by throwing all the machinery of elections and all the money for its operation into the hands of the worst elements of our population. We do not mean to say by this that there are no honest men in the Machines. There are many there, but the majority in all Machines is composed of men who have gone into politics because they had no other business, and were unfit for any other. We can never hope to reform this by starting a Machine composed entirely of honest men, simply because the honest men will not do the work. It is useless to talk more about reforming the Machines by infusing into them a larger proportion of what is known as the "better element." That has been tried over and over again, but has always failed and failed ludicrously. Then, too, even if we could reform the Machines, what right have we to put a tax upon candidates which is so heavy that it excludes poor men and even men of moderate means from public office? The State pays for the registration and reception of the ballot, and on precisely the same principle it should pay for its printing and distribution. Instead of this being, as some persons curiously claim, contrary to the spirit of our institutions, it is in perfect accord with it, for it is the only way by which we can be supplied with a free and untrammelled exercise of the right of suffrage.

Mr. Ivins shows, in the ingenious parallel at the close of his second paper, how completely the evils which we are suffering under Machine control can be eliminated by the adoption of the remedy which is embodied in the English law. In his third and concluding paper he sets forth elaborately and clearly the provisions of this law, whose working in the elections of 1886 can now be studied in a very exhaustive report which has recently been laid before Parliament. This report gives for the first time a detailed statement both of the expenses of the candidates under the heads into which the law divides their outlay, and of the charges made to the candidates by the returning officers The most significant fact disclosed is, that the grand total of expenditures by candidates is only a little more than one-half of the grand total allowed by the law. Omitting the universities, there were in the election 794 candidates in 460 English constituencies. The maximum scale allowed under the Corrupt Practices Act for all these constituencies was £667,400. The actual outlay on items allowed by the law was only £364,811. In Wales the maximum was £43,675, and the actual outlay was only £18,838. About one-fourth of the elections in England and Wales were uncontested, and the expense of most of these was very small. But had they all been contested at the average cost of the other three-fourths, the maximum would still not have been reached by more than £200,000.

Commenting upon these figures, the London *Daily News* says: "The first thing which they prove is the complete success of Sir Henry James's act. The chief feature of that act was that it laid down a maximum expenditure, to exceed which would be a corrupt practice, voiding the seat. The experts said that the maximum was placed too low—the experience of the last election demonstrates that, as usual, the experts were wrong, and that on the contrary the maximum is too high. It would be possible to reduce by at least one-fourth the sums allowed by law without in any way starving the elections. There are very few cases in which the maximum was reached."

This is a remarkable showing. Within the short space of four years, and after two elections, it has been demonstrated by actual figures that the extravagant and corrupt use of money in elections can be completely abolished by the simple process of forbidding it by law. As extravagant expenditure constantly bred greater extravagance, so on the other hand does honest expenditure breed economy, for if one candidate does not bribe and corrupt, his rival has no need to. Neither do we find in the English comments on the results achieved any intimation that there is a falling off in the popular interest in the elections. The voters go to the polls with as much eagerness as they did when they were paid for their votes.

"PULLS."

No effect of the spoils system is so striking as the way it distorts people's notions about the relations of the Government to the people. A most curious illustration of this is the apparent novelty of Mr. Cleveland's saying that "public office is a public trust." When one thinks over it a little, this seems so obvious a truth as to wear somewhat the air of a platitude. Nevertheless, when first produced it startled people a good deal, and for some months took rank as a discovery in political science. Indeed, it is still repeated in the newspapers frequently as a valuable addition to the literature of trusts. The reason of this was, that although the doctrine of trust in government had never died out in moral philosophy, or in school and college text-books, it had assumed in American politics the character of what theologians call a "pious opinion"—that is, an opinion which may or may not be true, and which it does one's soul good to entertain, but by which nobody is bound to regulate his conduct. It was open to any good American to look on an office simply as a great responsibility imposed on him solely for the benefit of his countrymen, but at the same time any one who took this view was held by politicians to be a man as unfit for office as one who felt himself bound to give his coat to anybody who had taken his cloak, would be for the dry-goods business. Two-thirds of the work of civil-service reformers has, in fact, consisted in contending with the notion that offices are not private property, and that a man who acknowledges that the public has any interest in them is not an amiable visionary.

Fifty years of the spoils system have had a somewhat similar effect on the political mind about the exercise of the appointing power. The common-sense and ordinary business view of the appointing power is, that anybody who is invested with it is bound to keep in office all persons whom he believes, on due inquiry, to be discharging the duties of their respective places efficiently, and is bound to search diligently for persons qualified, in his own judgment, to fill vacancies. Nine out of ten Mayors and Governors, however, have wholly lost this early human notion of political duty. When they find themselves charged with the duty of filling vacancies, they are very apt to look on themselves simply as the custodians of lost articles, bound to deliver them to all who can identify them, or as officers charged with the distribution of prize money or of an indemnity fund. That is to say, instead of going to work to find proper persons to fill the places, they sit down and wait for "pulls." "Pulls" are among the most curious and interesting products of the spoils system. A "pull" is an occult force by which a public officer is compelled to do something which his judgment condemns, and for which he himself sees no

good reason—such, for instance, as putting in an important place somebody of whom he knows nothing, or whom he knows to be a great rascal. It is only in politics that "a pull" is ever pleaded as an excuse for doing a shameful or absurd thing. A respectable man who excused himself for the neglect or violation of any private duty by saying that he did it in obedience to "a pull," would be considered insane or a humbug. But if he says that "a pull" has made him in some manner betray the public interest, we are all disposed to go about saying, "You know, poor fellow, he could not help himself. He hated to do it, but so-and-so had a 'pull' on him, and he could not stand up against it."

The performance of Gov. Lounsbury, described in another column, in refusing to re appoint Prof. Hadley, is an almost comic example of the way in which a "pull" works. The Governor found an excellent officer in charge of the Labor Bureau of that State. The chief business of the Commissioner is the collection and arrangement of statistics touching the condition of laborers. Prof. Hadley had remarkable training for the work, was, in fact, a man such as any government is lucky in securing for such work, and, moreover, had during one term given ample proof of his fitness for it. One would expect that, under these circumstances, the Governor of a highly civilized State would at once satisfy himself that it was his duty to reappoint him. But Gov. Lounsbury did nothing of the kind. He knew the vacancy was coming, but he made no preparation to fill it. He simply sat down and waited for "pulls." They soon began to be felt. There were "pulls" from manufacturers, and "pulls" from labor organizations, and "pulls" from "callers," *against* Hadley. He supposed of course there would be pulls *for* Hadley also, and that Hadley himself must have been running about the State starting "pulls" in his own interest. But to his surprise he felt no Hadley "pulls" at all—none came from any quarter. Even Hadley said nothing in his own favor. Accordingly, says the Governor, with delightful simplicity, "in view of all these facts I decided that I should not be justified in making a reappointment." About the manner in which Hadley had done his work, or about the nature of the work to be done, not one word does he say. His explanation is all about "pulls." It is evidently inconceivable to him that anybody should expect him to reappoint a man who had no "pulls." All he says for Hadley's successor, Mr. Hotchkiss, is that he knows "the men who have endorsed him would not endorse him unless he were worthy of endorsement"; or, in other words, that his "pulls" are strong.

A STUDY IN "POLITICS."

A COMMITTEE of the Legislature of Indiana was lately appointed to investigate the condition of one of the State prisons known as the "State Prison South." It has made its report, which ought to be in the hands of everybody who still believes that public offices should be used for the reward of party service, and that any sort of politician is good enough to take charge of criminals and paupers.

The Committee found, to begin with, that the books of the prison were falsified and entries omitted, under the direct orders of the Warden; but they nevertheless discovered, without much difficulty, a deficit of $20,000. What became of the money they were unable to say, because the Warden refused to show his check-book. The Warden himself, A. J. Howard, is a most interesting person. Of course he is a good Democrat. The State being Democratic, the State prison had, of course, to be managed by Democrats, on the Jeffersonian plan. It does not clearly appear through what influences he got his place in the first instance, but the Committee found reason to believe that he used money on the directors, both when he was first elected, and when he was reëlected two years ago. The main argument in his favor which could be produced was the very familiar one, that "Jack Howard was honest and big-hearted," and always stood by his friends, and "never was known to break his word." When he was reëlected two years ago, the directors not only forebore to overhaul Jack's accounts, but reported the prison as being in beautiful order, and did not require him to renew his bond. So he went to work to steal and misappropriate with renewed vigor.

Jack Howard, like our late friend John Kelly, has a newspaper, called the Jeffersonville *Evening Times*, in which doubtless he denounces, or used to denounce, Cleveland and "snivel-service reform," and urge upon the President the duty of "turning the rascals out." Kelly used to make the liquor-dealers subscribe to his paper, in order to procure licenses. But Jack Howard was a more enterprising man than even Kelly, for he made the convicts subscribe to his paper, charging them on his books $4.50 per annum out of the money they earned. Those who were "hard up" were allowed to subscribe by the month, and the librarian, a convict named Martin, acted as canvasser for the journal among his brother criminals. Jack used also to borrow money from the convicts—that is, appropriate their earnings, and money sent them by their friends and on account of pensions. Sometimes, when a convict's term expired and he had to be paid what was due, Jack would be terribly embarrassed, and used to have to borrow from his subordinate officers and other "big-hearted" friends. He had other resources, too. He used to appropriate to his own use flour belonging to the prison, and "garden truck and vegetables" raised by convict labor on ground belonging to the State, and used to convert raw material belonging to the State also. Jack never advertised for bids for his jail supplies. He bought them from his friends, one of whom, a Louisville butcher, supplied "quarters and shanks" to the jail, "the choice portions going to other parties"—of course, on prison account. Besides this, Jack used to supply pork from a pork house owned by himself and his brother. He used also to inflict cruel and unusual punishments. Two men died from punishment while under his charge. The body of one was cut up and burnt in the furnace. The body of the other was disposed of without a proper inquest.

The account given by the Committee of the filth of the prison is too disgusting to be laid before any community which is not responsible for Jack or his doings. With regard to the Prison Directors who appointed him, and who regularly reported that he was behaving in an exemplary manner, the Committee find them guilty of "gross if not wilful neglect of duty," and recommend that "their immediate resignation be requested." They also declare that, as usual, Jack Howard had a ring who worked with him inside the prison. It consisted of the Deputy-Warden, the Steward, and the Clerk, each of whom had his own special share of the spoil.

The oddest figure in the affair, who would also be a droll figure, too, if anything or anybody could be droll in such a sink of iniquity, is the chaplain, a certain L. F. Cain. The Committee call him "the Chaplain," but in his examination the wretched wag called himself "the Moral Instructor." He "worked" his official position, as politicians would say, or, as the Committee say, "prostituted it," by "securing the confidence of the convicts and obtaining money from them for the alleged purpose of securing pardons for them." While he was in the prison he apparently got tired of giving "moral instruction," and determined to study medicine. Being intrusted officially with the purchase of books for the library out of a fund formed by an admission fee paid by visitors to the prison, he bought medical books exclusively, and charged them to the prison at nearly double the cost price. He was a man of very large views, in fact, and fit for something better than a retail business; for, according to one witness,

> "At one time he called the lifetime men together, and told them if they would donate him so much money—some considerable amount, I do not remember just now—that he would go before the Legislature and he would procure the passage of a bill making fifteen years a lifetime sentence; and they gave him the money, and he went to Indianapolis, and when he came back he laughed and said, if they didn't get their bill through he would get his bill through to raise his salary from $800 to $1,400."

We may add, in conclusion, that the maximum number of times in which Jack Howard was, by the evidence, seen drunk in the jail was fifty. McFadden, the hospital steward, used to get more drunk than the Warden, but apparently not so often, and the guards did a fair retail whiskey business with the convicts.

We cordially commend the report to the perusal of such of our readers as are interested either in the spoils system or in prison discipline. But we would caution those who may feel disposed to reproach the decent people of Indiana for allowing such horrors to exist so long in a State institution, not to roll their eyes over them too much. For they must not forget that a Warden has been appointed to the principal prison in this city whose character and career offer far fewer guarantees of efficiency and integrity than Jack Howard's did when he got his place. We are displaying to-day to all the young criminals in the city the spectacle of an old and life-long member of the criminal class, known as "Fatty" Walsh, at the head of a great penal establishment. We are denouncing the liquor-dealers as the foes of decency, and order, and morality, and moving heaven and earth to get a bill passed reducing their number and restraining what we consider their infernal

activity, and yet we have submitted without a murmur to the appointment of an old liquor-dealer and gambler to take charge of the murderers and thieves and rioters whom his trade has created or fostered.

HENRY WARD BEECHER.

THE death of Mr. Beecher leaves in the United States no man of such unique and striking personality as his, no man of such rich and strange experience, no man whose part in the anti-slavery conflict was comparable with his own. His face and form and motion were as individual as his mind. For those who knew him well they seemed its inevitable expression.

> "His eloquent blood
> Spoke in his cheeks, and so distinctly wrought
> That you might almost say his body thought."

His humor twinkled in his eye. One had but to see his mouth to know his nature's tenderness; and equally his enjoyment of all things purely sensuous—all lovely colors, all beauteous forms, and all delightful sounds. The physical volume of the man was necessary to his intellectual energy and to his stormy eloquence. His impassioned outbursts would have been ridiculous in a man of slighter mould. His appearance during the last years of his life, if it did not gain in fineness, acquired greater impressiveness from his ruddy face and flowing silver hair. A stranger could not meet him on the street without knowing him to be no ordinary man; without wondering if he were not quite extraordinary.

He was one of many children in the house of his parents. So far as we can trace his qualities to his immediate progenitors, his mother seems to have done much more for him than his father. His love of nature and of all beautiful objects and his glowing piety were distinctly her impression. Of beauty as a means of grace Lyman Beecher had a very poor opinion. "It is all moonshine," he said, "with no doctrine, nor edification, nor sanctity in it, and I despise it." But the mother died when he was three or four years old, and her immediate successor was of such strict and ghastly manners in religion, and the father spared the rod so little, that the wonder is that religion and morality were not equally distasteful to the boy's maturer mind. Mrs. Stowe has written that as a child not a single toy was ever given to him, nor any little fête. And yet, because he was a boy and had good health and knew where sweetflag grew, and where the sassafras and chestnuts and the hickories were to be found, he was not by any means unhappy. Doubtless it was by force of contrast with the grim and loveless circumstances of his youth that beauty had for his manhood a keener zest, and love a more insatiable charm.

Father Taylor objected to Channing that he had not had a liberal education. His meaning was that the latter had only been to college—that he had none of his own rough-and-tumble sort of life. Doubtless the Boston Latin School and Amherst College did much for Mr. Beecher, though in neither was he devoted to the curriculum; but what made his education liberal was a habit early formed of eager observation—a passion for good books, not mainly theological—the homely life of rising Western towns—the necessity for making his strength self-serviceable in many ways—the political and theological circumstances of his early manhood. "A course of mobs," said Emerson, "made Phillips the best stump-speaker in America." Mr. Beecher's experience of one mob in Cincinnati—that which destroyed the press of James G. Birney—was a distinguished factor in his anti-slavery education; but for his lessons in the art of public speech his main reliance was on the rudeness of his congregations at Lawrenceburg and Indianapolis, the necessity of making himself apprehensible to them by speaking in the vernacular and with the aid of abundant illustrations. There was a time when the attractions of the ministry for him were less than those of journalism, at which he made some trial in 1836 as temporary editor of the Cincinnati *Journal*. The Birney outrage happened during his brief incumbency, and his first anti-slavery work was done in the way of vigorous denunciation of that miserable affair. That he had already attained to some strength of fibre, to some capacity for individual thought and purpose, is witnessed by his conduct here and by his rejection of the theological system which his father, with "logic afire," was at that time doing noisy battle for against the "Scotch-Irish-Presbyterian-Calvinistic fatalism" rampant in the region roundabout.

The time spent at Lawrenceburg and Indianapolis, ten years in all, may be regarded as a time of preparation for the succeeding forty years of Brooklyn life and work. That was the ante-room in which he tuned his instrument before he came upon the stage. It is true that his 'Lectures to Young Men' date from this early period, and they still have a steady circulation. They were important, too, as bringing him the recognition which resulted in his call to Brooklyn. But they were essentially 'prentice work. On his arrival in Brooklyn he had already done something in the line of book-making, lecturing, and journalism—the three avocations that were to engross him more and more, but without taking anything from his preaching, the work which he rightly apprehended as his regular vocation, and to which he made all other things subordinate. His earliest connection with journalism was, as has been said, in Cincinnati, when, theologically, he was—

> "Wandering between two worlds, one dead,
> The other waiting to be born."

His next was with the *Western Farmer and Gardener*, the first non-political paper published in Indiana. The love of flowers and of all green things growing was native to his mind; but in connection with his editorial work in Indiana he entered on those horticultural and floricultural studies which became a passion in his later years, furnishing him with myriads of apt and striking illustrations for his talks and sermons, and making a seedsman's catalogue more fascinating and religious for him than a theological treatise. Of much more importance was his editorial connection with the *Independent*, and later with the *Christian Union*. The former was the principal vehicle of his anti-slavery opinions. His editorials were dashed off at the last moment, but the immediate haste was justified by ample preparation, not only from complete acquaintance with the current topics of the time, but also from a thorough knowledge, broadly but not finely accurate, of our political and constitutional history. The *Christian Union* was his most characteristic journalistic enterprise. His object was to make a journal like his church, in which persons of every sect might come together in a genial fellowship. With excellent coöperation, his success was great and admirable in accomplishing his object, together with a circulation reaching at one time to 130,000. It would be hard to overrate the diminution or obliteration of sectarian boundaries involved in such an enterprise as this.

The *Plymouth Pulpit* was another of his regular serial publications.* From week to week it contained his sermons and his prayers. It went on for several years, and was an immense extension of his pulpit influence. His books, with two or three exceptions, were also reproductive in their character; they were made up of extracts from his sermons and selections from his articles. His 'Life-Thoughts,' the sermon-excerpts of a friend, succeeded by a similar volume which he much preferred, probably did more than any other agency to win for him the sympathy and admiration of the young people in America—the many thousands who, in normal schools and female seminaries, and humbler colleges and theological schools, were preparing to do the teaching and the preaching of a generation, and to shape its thought and feeling. His novel 'Norwood' showed him in no new light. There was nothing in it which was not in his sermons in a better form. His 'Life of Christ' is without any critical value, and its discontinuance is not a matter for regret. It was a brilliant paraphrase of the New Testament narration, in which Mr. Beecher spoke ten times from his emotion to once from his reason. That he did not sooner resolve to write his autobiography, and carry out his purpose, is a great pity.

Mr. Beecher's voluntary lecturing, as that part of his lecturing might be called which was not necessitated by the pressure of political events, was simply the more secular, social, political, or æsthetic side of his Brooklyn preaching seeking a wider audience. It gave fuller scope to his humor than his Sunday pulpit, and to his skill in repartee when there was any "talking back." On this he actually throve. What would have disconcerted Sumner, what would have left Phillips simply imperturbable, was exactly what he needed to bring him fairly to himself. He never did so well as when there was some violent and noisy opposition. No orator of the anti-slavery conflict had his control of adverse elements, or his power to rouse a sympathetic audience to its highest pitch of generous enthusiasm and heroic purpose. When, at the Broadway Tabernacle in 1860, he seized the chains John Brown had worn, and, making them a symbol of all slavery, dashed them to the floor and spurned them with his feet, those who were witnesses to that "jubilee of sublime emotion" were lifted to a seventh heaven of impassioned ardor for humanity.

Less emotional, but more intellectual, and, as a revelation of his personal force, alone in his experience, was the series of addresses made in Great Britain in the fall of 1863. In the reports of the speeches the questions asked, the cheers, the gibes, the laughter, occupy almost as much space as Mr. Beecher's words. If sometimes the result seemed doubtful, his pluck and humor and good-nature triumphed in the end. At Liverpool it took him an hour and a half to get control of the meeting; then, for an equal length of time, he had his way with it. The series of addresses, five in all, was a masterly vindication of the position and the purpose of the North. In each he treated a new aspect of the matter, making good Dr. Holmes's comment: "Mr. Beecher delivered a single speech in Great Britain. . . . Its exordium was uttered on the 9th of October in Manchester, and its peroration on the 20th of the same month in Exeter Hall." This "single speech" made Mr. Beecher for a time our most honored citizen. If in England it did less than has sometimes been reckoned to change the course of public sentiment, it did much, and it gave the sympathizers with the North their first good opportunity to show their strength and to enjoy a splendid vindication. For the speech was not more bright and humorous and audacious than it was just and strong and wise.

Mr. Beecher was not at any time an abolitionist in the technical sense of that term. His anti-slavery position was that of the Republicans, as such: freedom national; slavery sectional. But while legal interference with slavery stopped for him at the State boundary, for moral interference he accepted no such limitation. The vote rolled up for Frémont and for Lincoln had no individual aid superior to his. His brother Thomas once said of him that he had no more backbone

than an eel. But it was a faulty analysis which charged him with lack of courage. In 1850, amid and in defiance of the pro-slavery violence stimulated by the compromises of that year, he opened his church to Wendell Phillips, overruling the trustees. In 1866 he took sides with President Johnson. Of the President's character and motives he had no rightful apprehension. His position was an expression of his abiding faith (in which he had great companions) that a policy of the largest clemency was the best policy of reconstruction. But the act which marked his utmost courage was his support of Cleveland in 1884. Often impulsive, he was here exceedingly deliberate. In 1876 he was resolved as clearly as in 1884 that if Blaine were nominated he would bolt the ticket. To oppose an impersonal crowd of hundreds or of millions does not require the courage necessary to oppose a dozen friends. For Mr. Beecher, liking to be liked and loving to be loved, fond of success and popularity, it must have been a fearful thing to array a score or two of his best friends against himself, and at the age of seventy-one to endanger, if not shatter, the congregation which was his joy and crown. Nevertheless, he did this thing, and waited the event. It was less damaging than his partisan Republican parishioners expected and desired.

It was, however, as a preacher, not as a writer, journalist, or orator, that Mr. Beecher was most proudly conscious of himself, and it is as a preacher that he must principally be considered in any general estimate of his influence and fame. He was the most remarkable preacher of his time, the most popular, the most influential. He preached to nearly or quite 5,000 once a week, and the art of printing multiplied this number many times. No preacher ever spoke more freely and frankly about his methods as a preacher than he did in his 'Yale Lectures' and elsewhere. His ideals were simply the reflection of his individual ways and means. He did not blunder into his success. He studied other preachers, but he studied still more carefully himself. He was very careful of his general health and of his immediate physical condition. On Sundays he was ascetic. On Saturdays he loafed on principle. On Sunday morning the chosen subject was magnetic to the multitude of data, read or observed, with which his mind was stored, and it pounced on its own wherever it found it. The sermon had little organic unity. Its parts were always better than the whole. These were what the people carried away—the telling passages, the striking sentences. He theorized that sermons should have dull and dreary passages to rest the audience, and as he theorized he preached. The illustrations and the bursts of eloquence made the main impression. His illustrations were innumerable. He was always on the watch for them in his walks about town and his rambles in the country, and later they came trooping to his call. To be appreciated, it was necessary that he should be heard; for he was a good actor, and, lacking his impersonation, the illustrations and the humor lack more than half their value. His whole body was at the service of his art. Sometimes there was no heart in his vehemence, but at other times it was so central that his whole frame trembled and shook with his emotion, and the very building seemed to rock beneath him as with an earthquake's throes.

"All men like poetry," said Emerson, and Beecher was essentially a poet. Few of all our major poets have said so many poetical things, so many beautifully tender and pathetic things. Then, too, he was well-nigh our greatest humorist, sometimes as broad as Dickens, sometimes as delicate as Charles Lamb, sometimes as gentle as Thackeray, or as satirical—and he could suit the action to the word. Here were two great attractions, but the greatest was his humanity and his sympathy with all things human. He was a man, and nothing human was foreign to him. His delight was with the sons of men. He had a great and overwhelming sense of the Divine Love, and he never tired of celebrating its incarnation in the life and character of Jesus Christ. He was very far from being orthodox, judged by any of the traditional or formulated creeds. His theological preaching varied with his moods, but it was habitually less sound than his deliberate doctrinal expressions. But even these at various points—election, human depravity, atonement, future punishment—were much at variance with the Westminster Confession, the God of which he denounced as "barbaric, heinous, hideous." The "salvation" of his preaching was Christian manhood: a clean body, a sound mind, a clear conscience, a good heart—not escape from any possible doom beyond the grave.

Already his influence upon theology and religion in America has been very great.

> "All can raise the flowers now,
> For all have got the seed."

But forty years ago the rigidness of dogma and the exclusiveness of sect were much more intolerable than they are now, and Mr. Beecher has done more than any one else to scatter and tend the seed from which a harvest of untheological religion has sprung up. What he has done he will go on doing—not by his printed words to any great degree, but through the mediation of hundreds of preachers and thousands of the laity who have been touched and quickened by his spirit. In all the nooks and corners of America, as well as in its populous cities, there are men and women who owe to him their escape from a religion of terror, and are grateful to him for a gospel full of hope and cheer.

Few men of his time had so much admiration as was granted him; few had such honor and success; and few were tried as he was in the furnace of adversity. If it is true that never after this did he have the weight, the influence, the authority in political and religious matters which he had before, it is equally true that the afterthought of many grew less and less adverse to him as the years went by. To many who hated him for political or theological reasons, "the great scandal" was a pretext for despising him for which they were not ungrateful. But many others (and a much greater number) have not and never had a doubt of his complete and perfect innocence of any serious fault; and all who have any adequate appreciation of his great career must feel that, whatever fault was his, it was inherent in a nature strong and sweet and sane, and that it cannot be permitted to outweigh his general devotion to all high and noble ends. "They say, best men are moulded out of faults"; and, if he was not moulded out of his, he was, in spite of them, a man most kind and lovable, of splendid gifts, of generous purpose, and of lasting service to mankind.

BRITISH POLITICS AND SOCIETY.

LONDON, March 5.

THE present Government is a Ministry of surprises. The resignation of Lord Randolph Churchill, the displacement and death of Lord Iddesleigh, and the entrance of Mr. Goschen into the Cabinet have been followed by the retirement of Sir Michael Hicks-Beach from the Chief Secretaryship for Ireland, and the appointment of Mr. Arthur Balfour in his place. The news is but a few hours old, and is still in the stage of discussion and speculative contradiction. There are journals and news agencies which prefer to be startlingly wrong rather than to be unobtrusively right, and they are trading in the public uncertainty and curiosity. But the news is true. Sir Michael Hicks-Beach suffers from an affection of the eyes, necessitating, it is said, an immediate operation. In almost any other office than that which he has held it would be possible for him to take a few weeks' leave of absence. But the Irish Secretary cannot "interpose a little ease" even for a few hours. Sir Michael Hicks-Beach is respected by every one. He is a good type of the English country gentleman in office—a man of business and a man of breeding. Officially hated by the Irish Nationalists, he is not personally disliked by them, as Mr. Forster always was and as Sir George Trevelyan came to be. In society and by those who have served with him and under him he is in the highest degree popular. The rumors which are already afloat that his ill health is political as well as natural, and that he differs from the policy on which the Government has decided, would best be answered by his remaining in the Cabinet in some unlaborious department, changing, perhaps, his seat in the Commons for a peerage. But before the present Ministry was formed Sir Michael used to talk not only of declining office, but of giving up public life altogether, and he may before a long time has elapsed act on that intention.

His successor, Mr. Arthur Balfour, who gives up the Secretaryship (not the Secretaryship of State) for Scotland for the Irish Secretaryship, is one of the ablest men in the Government and in the House of Commons. But it may be doubted whether he is by temperament fitted to deal with the Irish members. He is critical, fastidious, and, though personally amiable, not free from a certain intellectual sensitiveness which verges occasionally on irritability. The nephew of Lord Salisbury, there is a good deal of the Cecil disdainfulness about him. A less razor-edged instrument than his intelligence would probably do better the rough work of hewing Parliamentary blocks.

It would seem, after all, that something might possibly come of the Round Table Conference. Hitherto it has been regarded with a mixture of curiosity and scepticism, in which the scepticism has decidedly predominated, as if the five gentlemen seated at it were engaged in a sort of political table-turning, waiting until that piece of furniture tilts up, not without suspicion of a confederate leg, and proceeds to rap out a response. Perhaps, after all, in a sense different from Wordsworth's, there may be "a spirit in the wood." A letter of Sir George Trevelyan's to the Unionists of Aberdeen, and a speech delivered by him at a House dinner in the Devonshire Club, unreported and obviously distorted and discolored in detail by second-hand versions, but no doubt accurately represented in its general bearings, shows a hopeful and even confident temper. Though Mr. John Morley has declared that the principles, the policy, and the plan of Mr. Gladstone must be respected, there can be little doubt that the plan must go if the principle and the policy are to have legislative effect given to them. The scheme for governing Ireland, in imperial matters, by a Parliament elected exclusively by the constituencies of Great Britain, is absolutely incompatible with elementary constitutional doctrines. It would reproduce in substance the state of things from which Grattan's Parliament was a successful revolt, and would not differ much from the Grenville, Townshend, and North policy which led to the American Revolutionary war. The fact that, for the exigencies of the moment, the Irish members were consenting parties to the arrangement, could not make it lasting. No nation could consent to be permanently excluded from deliberation on those great matters of foreign and domestic policy the power

of dealing with which distinguishes a nation from a province or a dependency. The problem of union or separation would present itself in the question, Shall Ireland have this sovereign power in association with England and Scotland, through its representatives in an Imperial Parliament or as a separate nation, accidentally ruled by the same monarch as England, just as England and Hanover were until, on the death of William IV., their differing laws of succession separated the two countries? The problem which is before the Round Table in the first instance, and which, if they solve it to their satisfaction, will come before Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Parnell in the second instance, is to make home rule compatible with and subject to the Parliamentary Union. The condition of business in the House of Commons, not now only but during many Parliaments, shows the need of an arrangement by which purely insular concerns, British and Irish, shall be referred to purely British and Irish assemblies, whether called legislative bodies, or national councils, or parliaments, while the common affairs of the United Kingdom, and these alone, shall be dealt with in a united Parliament, in which Great Britain and Ireland shall be equally represented. In the imperfectness of political nomenclature, the word Federal is that by which an arrangement of this kind can be least misleadingly described, though text writers, guiding themselves by precedents and definitions, may prove that federation, as in the United States, in Switzerland, in Germany, and in Austria-Hungary, is impossible in the United Kingdom. Very likely, but in the art of politics, as in the art of poetry, definitions must follow practice, instead of tying down practice to themselves. In the meantime, it must be observed that the Round Table Conference is conducted entirely by members of Mr. Gladstone's late Cabinet. Lord Herschell, Sir William Harcourt, and Mr. John Morley remained in it to the last. Mr. Chamberlain and Sir George Trevelyan seceded from it, objecting to the plan and not to the principle and the policy. Lord Hartington and the larger and more important section of Liberal Unionists who declined to admit the principle or entertain the policy, and who therefore refused to join Mr. Gladstone's Ministry, hold aloof from the conference. Lord Hartington and his followers still give their support to the Government, in which they are represented by Mr. Goschen; and the concessions which would satisfy Mr. Chamberlain and Sir George Trevelyan might leave the Hartingtonian Unionists unreconciled.

The social gatherings which accompany the Parliamentary session have commenced. Mrs. Peel's receptions follow the Speaker's Parliamentary dinners, which are ruled by an order as rigid as that which governs the debate, and one which is much better observed. These dinners are given on Wednesday, the only Parliamentary day on which an afternoon sitting is held. At the first dinner the Speaker entertains such of her Majesty's Ministers as have seats in the House of Commons; on the second, the members of the preceding Government. On the third, Privy Councillors and other members of former administrations who have not been included in the recent political arrangements of either party, are the Speaker's guests, and no doubt much candid conversation is heard with respect to men and measures. Then the rank and file of Parliament follow by batches until the whole is exhausted. Many members have been in the habit of refusing the Speaker's invitations. Old Cobbett did so more than half a century ago on the ground, stated by him in his letter of apology to the Speaker who then was, that he was not accustomed to the society of gentlemen. Mr. Cobden and Mr. Bright used to do so—the former until the day of his death, the latter until he took office—from an insurmountable reluctance to put on court dress. For Mr. Bright, when he became a Minister, a new uniform was invented of black velvet, to spare him the necessity of investing himself in the blue Windsor uniform with its epaulettes and sword. Very well he looks in his court suit. When M. Blowitz intruded himself into the prison of a celebrated French political offender, uninvited and for interviewing purposes, the victim described himself as struck by the approach of something which resembled *une boule surmontée par une orifice*. Mr. Bright, in his velvet attire, looks like a stately pin-cushion, surmounted by a singularly handsome and venerable countenance, and endowed with locomotive properties. The number of persons who entertain Mr. Cobden's objection to court dress is considerable in the present House of Commons, and for them the Speaker has arranged a supplementary banquet, not exclusively Parliamentary, for which evening dress suffices. There are still grumblers, for among working-class members the modern dress-coat and white tie are viewed as *bourgeois* symbols. The deference shown to the Speaker is probably unique in the attitude of popular representatives to their President. He is addressed in conversation as "Sir," a title otherwise given only to the King, when there is one, and to royal princes. There have, indeed, been two exceptions to this monopoly. The late Sir Robert Peel told Lord Stanhope, the historian, that when Mr. Grattan became a member of the British House of Commons, those Irish members of the United Parliament who had sat at Dublin with him, always addressed him as "Sir." Lord Castlereagh was among those who did so. A similar sign of deference is studiously observed by many of his younger colleagues and other members of his party to Mr. Gladstone. The unceremonious habits of English society, in which the use of the words "Sir," or "My Lord," or "Your Grace" are becoming obsolete, and are scarcely heard except from tradesmen, servants, and dependents, is rather an insular peculiarity, involving departure from the stately formality of a previous generation, as well as from existing European and, I presume, American usage.

Mrs. Peel's receptions are naturally of wider scope than the Speaker's dinners, not only as regards numbers, but as regards quality, and include all that is most notable in political society. In the suite of stately rooms of "the Speaker's house," from the walls of which the present Speaker's predecessors gaze down upon the assembled groups, no more dignified and urbane host, and no more graceful hostess, could discharge the duties which fall to Mr. and Mrs. Peel. The other principal places of political receptions are, for the Conservatives, Lady Salisbury's in Arlington Street, and Mrs W. H. Smith's in Grosvenor Place; for the Liberals, Lady Granville's in Carlton House Terrace, Lady Spencer's at Spencer House, near St. James's Palace, and Lady Rosebery's in Lansdowne House, which has been let to the late Foreign Secretary during the absence of the present Governor-General of Canada. More places of reception are, for the Conservatives, Lady Stanhope's in Grosvenor Place and Lady Hayter's, the wife of Sir Arthur Hayter, a subordinate member of Mr. Gladstone's last Government, once an assistant whip of the party, and the son of a more celebrated whip. The palmy days of great houses and great hostesses are, however, over—the days when youthful Macaulays were introduced by brilliant Lady Hollands in historic palaces to ambassadors and earls. In their place is to be seen a staring crowd, looking about them, like a party of personally conducted tourists deserted by their conductor, obviously ill at ease as to their behavior, and uncertain as to what is expected from them.

The periodically renewed rumors of the conversion of the *Times* into a penny paper are again afloat. No doubt the intention will be denied until it is executed, and probably with truth, for when the purpose is definitely framed it will be promptly put into effect. The public will be innocent of the knowledge until it applauds or condemns the deed. Meantime the newspaper offices are perplexed with fears of a change which, if it takes place, must have momentous consequences. It will be fatal either to some of them or to the *Times* itself. Whether the *Times* at a penny would remain the *Times* is the question, and it must be either the *Times* or nothing. Under Mr. Buckle's editorship it has certainly recovered something of its old authority, and the decline in its circulation has been stopped and has even been turned the other way. Notwithstanding, there have been signs of weakness in Printing-house Square. It has condescended to recognize the man in the streets, and at the railway stations, and on the knife-board of the omnibus, by the issue of bills of contents after the manner of its penny rivals. These bills are scantily supplied, it is true, and they are hidden shamefacedly in obscure corners. Still they are there, if you look for them. The *Times* is apparently dabbling its foot timidly in the water until it can make up its mind for a plunge. The hesitation is excusable. The step it is supposed to be meditating means either suicide or a magic renewal of youth and strength. The quality and not the quantity of its circulation has of late years been its stronghold; and that has made it the medium through which public men of all parties express themselves when they have had anything to say by the press. Its law and Parliamentary reports make it essential to lawyers and politicians. To "write to the *Times*," and to "see a thing in the *Times*" are not mere survivals of speech: they express a belief in its unique character. Can it retain the features which have given it this pre-eminence for a penny? L. L.

THE REPORT OF LORD COWPER'S COMMISSION.

DUBLIN, February 28, 1887.

THE Royal Commission on the Irish Land Laws, presided over by Lord Cowper, has presented its report to Parliament. The only representative of the tenants on the Commission (a Conservative farmer from the County Armagh) dissents from the general report, and promises to present his own within a short time. The published report may therefore be looked upon as representing the landlords' view of the question; and, as such, it completely justifies the Plan of Campaign and the proposals made to Parliament last autumn by the National party.

The fall in prices during the last two, as compared with the preceding four, years is stated to be 18½ per cent. This, in conjunction with unfavorable seasons, has so impaired the farmers' ability to pay rent that an immediate revision of judicial rents is recommended. The Commission proposes the following changes in the law as regards rents: (1) The revision of rents every five years, instead of fifteen; the revision to be effected according to the general average of prices which have ruled during the five years preceding the revision, as compared with the average of prices for the five years before them. (2) The admission of leaseholders to the land courts to have fair rents fixed. (3) The admission of town-park occupiers, exclusive of those who hold less than five acres, of pasture farms up to £100 value.

As to the first suggestion, nothing is said on the most important point of how the percentage of fall or rise in prices is to be applied to the increase or diminution of rent. The admission of the classes of tenants referred to in the second and third suggestions has been claimed by the Irish members as a matter of justice on every opportunity since the introduction of the Land Bill in 1881, and was refused peremptorily by both Liberal and Tory Governments. The proposal to regulate rents according to the average of prices for periods of five years would be impracticable. The principle is undesirable, and no clear suggestion is made as to how it is to be applied. The amount of produce of any farm depends on the capital employed as well as on the skill of the farmer and the seasons. The cost of labor is quite as important an element in determining the net profit as the prices realized. So is the amount of capital employed and the rate of interest to be allowed upon it. Cereal produce, meat of all kinds, and butter are imported from all parts of the world into Ireland, as well as exported from it. Prices are not, therefore, dependent on local conditions alone; the good prices in any quinquennial period would not be a guide to the rent that could be paid in a succeeding period of lean years. Where a payment is small in proportion to the value of the annual produce, as in the case of tithes, the money value may be made dependent on prices without much inconvenience; but where rent presses on the means of subsistence, as in many districts in Ireland, it cannot be so regulated. Instead of facilitating the collection of rent, such a method would encourage its being withheld, and would give rise to perpetual disputes and claims for the introduction of other elements into the calculation.

Rents in Ireland are now in theory perpetual in duration, though uncertain as to their amount. In France and Switzerland the creation and imposition of perpetual rents are forbidden by the Constitution or by fundamental laws; they are looked on as inconsistent with the true conditions of liberty and democracy. Rents in Ireland should be made redeemable, instead of trying to perpetuate them. The existence of a small rent-receiving class, retaining, attached to their rents, undefined powers of interference with the conditions of tenure, is not consistent with the economical and social health of an agricultural community.

As remedies for the evils of congested districts, which are defined as being those where the soil is poor and the population too dense to live upon its produce, the Commissioners recommend (1) technical education for children, (2) emigration, (3) migration of families to other parts of Ireland, (4) colonization. As to the details, how and at whose expense these things are to be done, nothing is said. It may be remarked incidentally that it is a mistake to suppose that the Irish Nationalists are opposed to emigration. What they have protested against is the schemes offered and enforced by the Imperial Parliament, which provided little more than the bare passage of the emigrants and often of very unfit classes, who, flung in shiploads on the shores of strange countries, with no further provision, were likely to be as badly off as if they had stayed at home. Irishmen have also claimed that a Government's first duty is to make the conditions of life at home—so far as laws can do so—such as to enable the population to live and thrive, instead of seeking to get rid of them by any and every means, which has been the English policy in Ireland from time immemorial. When the population of Ireland was under three millions, it was said to be overpopulated; the same is said now when the population has decreased by more than three millions in thirty years, and when four or five million pounds are paid away annually to absentee land-owners.

The other recommendations of the Royal Commission deal with the policy of enabling the tenants to purchase up the landlords' interests by State loans. They do not advise compulsory expropriation, or any change in the terms on which loans are made, but make a multitude of small proposals, with the object of enabling landlords to get rid of legal and technical difficulties and obstacles in the way of selling their estates. They omit, however, to make suggestions as to establishing any system of cheap and speedy transfer for the proprietary interests to be conferred on the tenant. This is an all-important matter; the law and practice of land transfer and with respect to the devolution of real estate in the United Kingdom are such that no system of small proprietorships of land could endure or be successful under it. Within the last thirteen years I have known it to take nine years from the institution of the proceedings to get the sale of an estate completed. The average time taken to sell an estate in the Land Judges' Court is officially stated to be two years. The costs of selling or buying real estate are enormous, and increase in inverse proportion to the size of the estate. The preparation of the deeds of transfer is only a small portion of the cost incurred in a sale; but I have known the purchaser of a small parcel of land to pay for his transfer deed five times as much as he paid for the land. It is a crime for any Government to confer the ownership of land upon peasants without at the same time making provision for its certain, cheap, and speedy transfer and devolution in future. In most of the British colonies land is transferred on the record-of-title system with certainty and cheapness. In many colonies professional assistance is unnecessary. In Switzerland land can be bought and sold by the yard at a trifling and known cost. It is the same in nearly all other civilized European countries; the only heavy expense being the duty charged by the State on transfers.

The omission of any mention of this matter from the report of Lord Cowper's Commission evidences its incompetence and the incompleteness of its inquiry. The Nationalist party gave no evidence; the witnesses were almost altogether landlords, agents, and officials. Nothing was, however, expected to come of the Commission's inquiry; the enlargement of the rent provisions of the Land Law to include the classes excepted at present will probably be the only useful result, for such a change introduced by the Conservatives would meet opposition from no other party. The neglect, however, of establishing a system of cheap and easy transfer may possibly prove fatal to the plan of lending public money on the security of the tenants' holdings. When it takes years to sell a parcel of land, and when the cost of doing so is uncertain, but always great, it is evident that small parcels of land are a bad security from the fact of their not being marketable. Land reformers have often pointed out that the reluctance of banks (the natural traders in loans) to lend upon land is one of the greatest condemnations of the English land-transfer system. When the owner of a small lot of land subject to a mortgage to the State gets into difficulties, he cannot dispose of his interest until he may have become hopelessly involved, and incurred a bill of law costs which may leave him without anything from the realization of his estate. He cannot, moreover, sell to the best advantage when he meets a buyer with an appetite, for nothing can be done without lawyers' aid, and nothing can be done off-hand. Many small freeholds have from such causes been eaten up by costs attendant upon family arrangements and partitions.

The opportunity offered by a sale through a Government Commission is the most favorable for arranging for the future free transfer of land so sold. The title is cleared; the land is identified and defined by a map. If the record-of-title system were adopted for all such land, it would be a marketable and good security. The possession of a small parcel of land would not then be, as Lord Brougham thirty years ago said it was, and as it still remains, "a ruinous extravagance for a man of small means."

The general meaning of the report of the Cowper Commission, then, is in the sense of making amendments in the existing laws, of grafting new statutes on to the already complex laws relating to the relations of landlord and tenant and the purchase of land. It recommends no new departure, not even simplification and consolidation of the existing laws. If its proposals are embodied in legislation, they cannot be expected to contribute much towards a settlement on a permanent basis of this troublesome and vital question. A LAND VALUER.

Correspondence.

THE ELECTIVE SYSTEM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: On page 163 of the current volume of the *Nation*, "A. H.," in commenting on the statement that Harvard has been the leader in the "elective system," claims the leadership for the University of Virginia, and quotes a paragraph by Prof. Noah K. Davis in support of the claim. During the last few years this claim has again and again been made, but, in the opinion of some, upon a misunderstanding of the term "elective," which is applied to the system of the University of Virginia, but is there used in an entirely different sense from the more commonly accepted meaning. That it may be understood in what way the system of the University of Virginia is elective, the following is a brief sketch of the "elective system" and the University of Virginia "elective system."

The main facts are these. At Harvard, in 1823 and 1824, sixty-four years ago, the Faculty (Reports of the President of Harvard College for 1883–84 and 1884–85) "began to elaborate a system of instruction and discipline for students in the liberal arts which has come to be known as the elective system, because it permits each student, under limitations and guidance which are partly artificial but chiefly natural, to choose his subjects of study." Previous to the time mentioned, a uniform "curriculum" prevailed in most, if not in all, colleges in the United States, to which the student was required to conform. It extended over four years, and prescribed not only the kind of studies, but the order in which they were to be taken. Further, all persons admitted were presumably candidates for a degree (no provision being made for persons not candidates for a degree), and only in connection with such persons is the term "elective system" applied generally at present.

In 1825 laws were adopted at Harvard which provided for the admission "of persons who are not candidates for a degree" and "for the consideration, to a limited extent, of the desires of students in the arrangement of their studies." Beginning with some "electives" at this time (1825), it was not until 1841 that the electives became numerous, when they were allowed in all years except the Freshman year. In 1846 the electives were restricted to Junior and Senior years, where they remained for twenty years. In 1867, electives were allowed in Sophomore year again, and were gradually extended to Freshman year, so that at present there are only a few required studies in Freshman year.

In order that a person may be admitted into Harvard College and become a student under the elective system, he must pass an entrance examination, and that the student thus admitted may be recommended for a degree, it is required (Harvard Cat. 1885–86. The requirements given below have been changed, Cat. 1886–87, but are quoted because they are in part yet in force, and show the numerical standard required), that the applicant has obtained as a minimum "two-fifths of the maximum mark in each of the prescribed studies of the college course and of the prescribed number of elective studies, and has, moreover, attained *one-half* of the total maximum mark for each year of the whole course from the time of his admission."

Besides the provision for regular students, at Harvard in 1825, it was announced that "The University is open to persons who are not candidates for a degree, and who desire to study in particular departments only." This was the result of a committee report, which said "that provision should be made for the admission and instruction of students in the University who may not wish a degree, but to pursue some particular studies to qualify them for scientific and mechanical employments and the active business of life; such students to have a right to choose their own studies, and, upon passing the regular prescribed course with the approbation of the Government, to be entitled to a certificate stating their character and qualifications." The provision for these students was repealed in 1847, and none were admitted again until 1876. At present these persons are called "special" students, who are admitted to the courses of study in Harvard College (Cat. 1885–86) on satisfying "the Faculty of their fitness to pursue the particular courses they elect, although they have not passed the usual examination for admission to College," and "a certificate of proficiency" is given, if desired, to any special student who has "attained not less than seventy-five per cent. of the maximum marks" in his chosen subjects. The special student may receive a certificate on Commencement Day and honors.

At the University of Virginia, which commenced its first term on the 5th of March, 1825 ('A Sketch of the University of Virginia,' 1885), the scheme of instruction is based upon a system of "schools," each under the exclusive control of its instructors, in each of which "a separate degree is conferred denominating the recipient a '*graduate*' in that school." "The University may . . . be fairly regarded as a *collection of schools*, each devoted to a special subject." In 1826 the Faculty proposed "To drop all the old unmeaning titles, and adopt in their stead the single term of 'GRADUATE,' except in the Medical School, where it will be necessary to retain the title of M.D. The degree of *Graduate* shall be conferred on those only who have acquired an accurate and extensive knowledge of the subject of one or more of the classes (in a school), or in any single language. . . . The exact title shall be GRADUATE U. V." This would not do, for in 1828 the Board of Visitors invited the Faculty to consider "whether it may not be proper to adopt the ancient denominations of Bachelor, Master, and Doctor, or some of them." In 1832 a degree with the title "MASTER OF ARTS OF THE UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA" was conferred upon "those persons who had graduated in the Schools of Ancient Languages, Mathematics, Natural Philosophy, Chemistry, Moral Philosophy, and in at least two of the languages taught in the School of Modern Languages"—at present French and German are prescribed (Cat. 1885–86). In 1848 the degree of "Bachelor of Arts of the University of Virginia" was established.

The system at the University of Virginia (Cat. 1885–86) "allows students to elect for themselves the departments to which they are led by their individual tastes and proposed pursuits in life. This freedom of election commends itself particularly to those who desire to make special attainments in some one department of knowledge."

"No student is subjected to entrance examinations, except Virginians seeking free tuition."

"A certificate of DISTINCTION is conferred on one who has attained three-fourths of the value of the questions at any General Examination."

"A certificate of PROFICIENCY is conferred on one who has passed examination on —— special subjects"—of which there are nineteen.

"A Diploma of GRADUATION is conferred on one who has passed examination on —— general courses"—of which there are twenty-two.

A comparison of the requirements and awards for special study at Harvard and elective study at the University of Virginia shows very close agreement. At Harvard, "elective studies" are not mentioned in connection with special students. At the University of Virginia election is not mentioned in connection with degrees. The election at Harvard is for a degree. The election at the University of Virginia is for special study without reference, necessarily, to a degree.

At the University of Virginia the requirements for degrees were prescribed, and were rigidly adhered to, except in the School of Modern Languages in the M. A. and two options in the B. A. degree, until 1880-81, when some modifications were made in the requirements, which have resulted at the present time in giving "options" in several degrees; but during these changes the highest degree of the University, "Master of Arts," has had its requirements inexorably fixed. The requirements for degrees are adhered to at the University of Virginia in a way that is without parallel in any college curriculum. In all prescribed courses the minimum of 75 per cent. has to be attained. No substitutions whatever are allowed. No excess in one study can make up for the least deficiency in another; tradition saying, for example, that in one case a student excellent in classics lost his degree of M. A. because he made only 74.5 per cent. instead of 75 per cent. in one of his scientific subjects. Any question as to the meaning of a degree of the University of Virginia has never been asked there, except, perhaps, during the past four or five years. Election at the University of Virginia, as far as degrees are concerned, simply means that the student may take the prescribed studies in what order he pleases and in what time he pleases or can. "The student obtains them (the Honors) whenever he can undergo the rigid examinations to which candidates are subjected."

If at Harvard it were said that passing in a certain number of special courses would entitle to a degree, then there would be something like an approach to the elective system of the University of Virginia. If there be leadership in either direction, it rather seems as if it belonged to Harvard, for, since 1880 81, the University of Virginia has made its degree of Bachelor of Arts much more flexible than ever before, and has conferred upon it some little of the indefiniteness of which so much complaint is made.

With regard to the religious exercises at the University of Virginia, they are voluntary in quite a different way from the courses of instruction. They are in no way connected with the University officially, and are not part of the scheme of education. No provision is made by the government of the University for religious exercises. The Chaplain is supported by the voluntary contributions of faculty and students. He has no official standing in the University. He is the private chaplain of certain persons who happen to be at the University. The success of the elective religious system is just the same kind of success as religion meets with in the world outside of the University.—Yours respectfully,

W. G. BROWN.

LEXINGTON VA., March 9, 1887.

THE TARIFF AND SOCIALISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The article by Mr. E. L. Godkin in the March number of the *New Princeton Review*, on the political and social aspects of the tariff, presents a view of the tariff question that is too much neglected. The controversy over the pecuniary results of the present system in the United States, although important, may fairly be regarded as of much less importance than the question of the effect of the policy of protection on our political and social institutions.

It may be said that the fundamental principle of American, as well as of English constitutional law, is the protection of the rights of the individual—or, more correctly stated, the protection of the individual in the legal enjoyment and assertion of his rights. It is for this purpose, chiefly, that laws have been made and administered. If we turn to the records of the proceedings of the courts, as found in the published reports of cases, both in the United States and in England, we find that the great effort of those who have been charged with the administration of the law in both countries has been to develop and apply, sometimes under the most adverse conditions, those great principles of personal liberty which are regarded as peculiarly the birthright of the Anglo-Saxon race. Even in criminal cases, in which the State intervenes to avenge a public wrong, the tendency has been to increase the safeguards of the accused, even at the expense of certainty and swiftness in the execution of justice.

In view of these legal traditions, and of the opposition which has been manifested, especially during the first half of the present century, by the people of the United States, to the idea of "paternal government" in various forms, it scarcely seems credible that they deliberately and intelligently entered upon their present protective policy, which exhibits one of the extremest forms of socialism. That they did not do so is sufficiently proved by an examination of our tariff laws, which discloses on every page the influence of private interests; and so far has this influence been carried that not infrequently we find it violating the very principle in whose name it is exerted.

But, whatever may have been the forces that brought the protective system up to its present condition, the system is here, and it is important to understand what it means. Its ostensible basis is protection to "American labor," or, to state the case more definitely, to those laborers who are employed in certain industries. No advocate of the system would admit that it is intended principally to benefit the manufacturer, the capitalist. Its justification is derived from its supposed benefit to the laborer.

Now, taking this principle as the proper basis of legislation, we are led logically and unavoidably to the regulation by the State not only of the price of products, but also of the rate of wages. It is believed that no legislature has as yet attempted to fix the rate of wages which shall be paid by private employers to a certain class of laborers, but if A, a consumer of a certain article, may be required to pay to B, the manufacturer, a certain price for the benefit of C, the manual laborer, why may not B reasonably and legally be required to pay a certain proportion of that price to C? In other words, why may not B legally be required to pay to C that portion of the price which the lawmaker intended that C should have?

It is evident that this would place society on a

socialistic basis. But such legislation, instead of introducing a new principle, would simply give a definite and substantial form to the theory of protection to the laborer, which supports the present tariff system. J. B. M.

March 8.

RESULTS OF SANITARY INSPECTION IN CHICAGO.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Some time ago a committee of British experts, on a visit of inspection to this country, pronounced the sanitary work of the Chicago Board of Health superior to that of any other city in this country. Chicago seems to maintain that supremacy, and to vie with any city in Europe in its successful coping with filth, disease, and tenement-house abuses. By the courtesy of the able Health Commissioner, Dr. Oscar C. De Wolf, to whom this work is largely due, I am enabled to give the following results, which have just been tabulated:

Years.	Population.	Total mortality.	Number per thousand of population.
1881	540,000	13,874	25.69
1882	560,693	13,234	23.60
1883	580,000	11,555	19 92
1884	630,000	12,471	19.80
1885	604,634	12,474	18.76
1886	704,000	13,699	19.43

With an increase of 164,000 in the population the actual number of deaths has diminished. If the mortality had increased 30 per cent. in the last five years, as has the population, the deaths in 1886 would have been 4,337 greater than they were. The lives of over 4,000 were thus saved.

The best indication of the health of a city is the fewness of deaths from zymotic diseases, such as fevers, which are held to be in large measure the result of poor sanitary conditions. Judged by this test, the results in our leading Western city are equally striking with those just given:

Years.	Number of deaths from zymotic diseases.	No. of deaths from zymotic diseases per 1,000 of population.	Deaths from all causes under 15 years of age.	No. of these deaths per 1,000 of population.
1881	4,213	7.80	7,371	13.65
1882	4,509	8.05	6,645	11.90
1883	3,053	5.25	5,875	10 13
1884	3,506	5.26	6,666	10.58
1885	3,210	4.83	6,187	9 32
1886	3,437	4.88	6,763	9.61

Years.	Deaths under one year of age, from all causes.	No. of these deaths per 1,000 of population.	Percentage of deaths of all ages from zymotic diseases to total mortality.
1881	4,374	8.10	30.37
1882	4,059	7.25	34.07
1883	3,850	6.64	26.42
1884	4,179	6.63	28.11
1885	4,000	6 02	25.73
1886	4,081	5.80	25.09

As is well known, not a house can be erected in Chicago until the plans have been approved by the Health Commissioner, who can order changes; nor can the house be occupied or the plumbing concealed until a second inspection. Old houses must be remedied of unhealthful conditions, or vacated on order of the Commissioner, who examines every house and tenement in the city every year or two without waiting for complaints. Instead of young medical students who know almost nothing of sanitation or plumbing, practical plumbers, and competent, if not highly educated, assistants, are employed as inspectors under the direction of expert sanitary engineers. The results are shown above; for, although Chicago is too young to have the rookeries and consequent mortality of some older cities, there is no way of accounting for the remarkable decrease in the death rate unless it be ascribed to the work of the Board of Health. Not only have the lives of over four thousand a year been saved, but the homes, and consequently the health, of tens of thousands of others have been improved, doctors' bills saved, and decent modes of living made possible. Similar results will follow similar work elsewhere. Edward W. Bemis.

Springfield, Mass.

THE PHILADELPHIA POSTMASTERSHIP.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your review of the two years' administration of Mr. Cleveland, you charge that the President did not fairly carry out his promises in some cases as to removals from office, and cite the removals in Philadelphia.

I wish to put upon record the facts as to the removal of Mr. Huidekoper, the Postmaster. On the 6th of June, 1885, in company with some ten members of the Philadelphia Independents, I called upon the President to urge the retention of Mr. Huidekoper, Mr. Valentine, the District Attorney, and Mr. Eyster, the Assistant Treasurer, *and these alone*. We were all strangers to the President, and were introduced and had a very satisfactory interview. Within a few weeks one member of the delegation, without informing the others of his proposed action, wrote to the President, reminding him of the interview, and saying that he desired to withdraw all support of Mr. Huid koper, and, in fact, made serious charges affecting him in his official capacity. No intimation of this action reached the other members of the committee until after the removal in November following. In entire ignorance of it, none other of the committee took any further steps on behalf of Mr. Huidekoper, and no refutation was made of the charges, which, in justice to him, I must add, were entirely groundless. The circumstances were very unfortunate for Mr. Huidekoper, for they doubtless caused his removal, the President naturally taking the utterances of one member for those of the whole committee. Mr. Eyster served out his full term. Mr. Valentine is still the District Attorney.

Respectfully, etc.,

Jos. Lapsley Wilson.

Philadelphia, March 12, 1887.

TRANSFORMATION OF SURNAMES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your interesting column of letters some time ago were several anecdotes connected with changes of names. Allow me to present the following as a companion:

Many years ago, on a farm in Vermont, there was a Frenchman at work whose surname was Papillon. His fellow-laborers found the name difficult to pronounce, so the owner of the farm suggested his being called by the English equivalent, Butterfly. That was adopted, but soon grew too long, and degenerated into "Fly." He never knew any other. His descendants would find it difficult to trace their ancestry if they desired, under such circumstances. From the aristocratic Papillon to "Fly" is indeed a great descent.—Very truly yours,

Cecil Hampden Howard.

The Astor Library, New York, March 11, 1887.

Notes.

G. P. Putnam's Sons publish immediately 'The Inter-State Commerce Act,' with an analysis and a legal dissertation on the legality of the act, by John R. Dos Passos, of the New York bar. They have also in press 'The American Electoral System; its Character and its History,' by Chas. A. O'Neil, of the New York bar.

Probably no provisions of the Inter-State Commerce Act will involve more dispute than the phrases "like service" and "substantially similar circumstances and conditions"; but similar terms, and in some instances identically the same terms, have been used in the railway acts of Great Britain for more than thirty years, and the English courts have been called upon frequently, and in diverse circumstances, to construe them. Robert Clarke & Co., Cincinnati, have in preparation, to be issued in a few weeks, an annotated edition of the Inter-State Commerce Law, collecting all these authorities.

Harper & Bros. are about to publish 'Wasteland Wanderings,' by Dr. Chas. C. Abbott, the well-known New Jersey naturalist; a 'Manual of International Law,' by Lieut. Geo. B. Davis, U. S. A.; translations of three stories, 'Baldine,' etc., from the German of Karl Erdmann Edler; a translation of Paul Célière's 'Startling Exploits of Dr. Quiès'; and Blackmore's 'Springhaven.'

T. Y. Crowell & Co. have nearly ready 'The Death of Ivan Ilyitch, and Other Stories,' by Count L. N. Tolstoi; 'Cuoré,' by Edmondo De Amicis; 'Sigrid,' from the Danish of J. T. Thoroddsson; and 'The Picture of Paul,' by the Rev. H. R. Haweis.

Funk & Wagnalls announce a new edition of Dr. Lyman Abbott's 'Henry Ward Beecher, his Life and Characteristics,' with many portraits.

'Juanita: a Romance of Real Life in Cuba,' yet not all fiction, written (as we infer, about 1830) by the late Mrs. Horace Mann, is to be published by D. Lothrop & Co., Boston.

Under the title, 'Celebrities of the Century,' Cassell & Co. will soon publish a biographical dictionary of the century, "containing condensed accounts of the lives of every man and woman who have won distinction during the years from 1800 to 1887, no matter what quarter of the globe they may be natives of." This work, in one large volume, is edited by Lloyd C. Sanders, of Christ Church, Oxford. They will also shortly begin publication of Prof. Henry Morley's 'History of English Literature,' in twenty volumes. The whole narrative will be continuous, but the volumes will be grouped in sections, which may be read as distinct histories of periods, and each volume will be separately indexed.

'English as She is Taught,' announced by Cassell & Co., is a public-school teacher's scrap-book of actual mistakes recorded in her experience with her pupils.

The first two volumes of the six-volume edition of Browning, undertaken by Houghton, Mifflin & Co., will appear in April. They will shortly add Marston to their series of "English Dramatists."

An *édition de luxe*, limited to 100 copies, of 'Half-Hours with American Authors,' is promised by J. B. Lippincott Co.

Mr. C. H. Howard, of the Astor Library, is about to issue, through F. Housh & Co., his lecture on the 'Life and Public Services of the late Gen. J. W. Phelps,' read in December before the New England Historic-Genealogical Society in Bos-

ton. He is also preparing 'Amherst in Prose and Verse,' a companion to his 'Brattleboro.'

Craig & Barlow, Chicago, have in press 'Romanism: The Danger Ahead,' by A. J. Grover, a lawyer of that city.

D. C. Heath and Co., Boston, will issue at once, in their series of "Monographs on Education," a paper by Prof. J. F. Genung of Amherst College, on "The Study of Rhetoric in the College Course."

'Letters from the Far East' is the title of a forthcoming book, by Col. De Lancey Floyd-Jones, U. S. A., now on the press of the Public Service Publishing Co., of New York. It will contain a number of full-page illustrations from photographs collected en route.

Mr. James Payn is gathering into a volume, to be called 'Holiday Tasks' (London: Chatto & Windus; New York: Scribner & Welford), certain of his pleasant little papers in a lighter vein, akin in style to his 'Some Private Views' and 'Some Literary Recollections.'

Mr. R. H. Tilley, Newport, R. I., is preparing for publication his 'Genealogical Queries' for 1887, and desires all who intend to insert queries therein to send them as soon as possible. His purpose is to have it ready and distributed by June 1, sending a copy to each public library, State library, historical society, and every person known to be interested in genealogy in the United States and Canada. One hundred and three copies will also be sent to England.

The Rev. Dr. John Croumbie Brown, Haddington, Scotland, author or compiler of several works on modern forestry, offers to present copies to the extent of his ability to public libraries in this country, on receiving a certificate from the State government along with the application.

We are informed by a circular from the Faculty of Letters of Lyons (France) that they propose to issue a photolithographic reproduction of the celebrated manuscript known under the name of *Bible vaudoise*. This manuscript is one of the treasures of the library of the Palais des Arts at Lyons. It contains the greater part of the New Testament, and has, at the end, a Vaudois or Cathar ritual of the highest interest for the history of the attempts at religious reform in the Middle Ages. The manuscript contains five hundred pages, of which fifty were published in 1878 by Foerster. It is said to be very difficult reading on account of the great number of abbreviations, and the reproduction will consequently be as interesting to palæographers as it will be useful to students of Romance philology.

'The French Principia,' Part iii (Harper & Bros.), presents itself in a very attractive form for a school-book, and a careful examination of the contents only confirms the good impression made by the material execution of the volume. This Third Part is an 'Introduction to French Prose Composition,' by the Head Master of the French School, Christ's Hospital, the Rev. P. H. E. Brette, author and annotator of other valuable text-books. It is upon the plan of Smith's well-known 'Principia Latina.' The grammatical information is so full and so clearly given that a pupil who had only an elementary knowledge of the accidence of the language might use the book satisfactorily, to acquire all that is absolutely necessary in order to write French correctly. The plan pursued in the exercises is not new. There are numerous passages of English prose to be translated into French, with many carefully made notes and references to the grammatical portion of the book. The only objection that suggests itself is that the extracts seem very serious, very little space being given to the colloquial part of the language; but doing that perhaps would have made the 'French Principia' differ too widely from the books upon which it has been modelled. Besides its other advantages, the work is provided with an excellent index, a very full set of questions on French Composition, and a sufficient English-French vocabulary.

The praise we have heretofore given to M. de Rougemont's 'La France,' as a truly useful text-book in schools, can only be repeated with emphasis in view of the new edition, to which the Writers' Publishing Co. have added a map of France, while improving the quality of the binding, etc.

In the series of monographs published in Paris by J. Rouam, under the title "Les Artistes Célèbres" M. Champfleury's 'La Tour' takes a high place by its literary quality. It is a very graceful, informal presentation of episodes in the life of this famous painter in pastel, rather than a consecutive biography, and is really a study of men, women, and manners in the eighteenth century. Thus we are shown La Tour's relations, as a portraitist and otherwise, with Rousseau, Diderot, Voltaire, Mme. de Pompadour, Mlle. Camargo, Mlle. Fel, etc. Many portraits of this group are reproduced here, and sufficiently well where a crayon effect is concerned. The copies of engravings after La Tour are inadequate except as memoranda. Incidentally, M. Champfleury, citing a letter from Rousseau to La Tour, remarks the careless employment of *avait* (*avais*) eight times in four lines.

M. Camille Saint-Saëns, the distinguished composer, has just published a most interesting little pamphlet on a subject which would seem quite out of his line to any one not aware of his active interest in all the arts. This is a 'Note sur les décors de théâtre dans l'antiquité romaine' (Paris: L Baschet; New York: F. W. Christern). Considering the elaborate architecture of the Roman Theatre, of which that at Orange may be taken as the best known example, he shows the incongruity of the ornate and abundantly sculptured decoration of the proscenium for the effect of the acted drama; and he suggests that the light and attenuate columns which appear so frequently in the Pompeian frescoes, are a decorative reminiscence of the slight wooden scaffoldings which he supposes to have been erected inside the stone proscenium whenever a performance was given on the stage. He supports this suggestion by a reproduction of certain frescoes, and by an apt quotation from Vitruvius.

Within the past year M. Octave Uzanne, editor of *Le Livre*, has published two books of interest to all book-lovers—'Nos Amis les livres' and 'La Reliure moderne'; and now a third is announced, 'Bouquineurs et Bouquinistes: Du Pont-Royal au Pont-Marie—Physiologie des Quais Parisiens.' This is a monograph on the open-air book trade along the parapets of the Seine, the favorite fishing-ground of the book-hunter, as Mr. Lang has shown him to us in his graceful *ballade*. The book will have an etched frontispiece, and about a hundred sketches by M. Émile Mas scattered through the text. The edition will be limited (Paris: Quantin; New York: F. W. Christern).

A new series of "Shakspere Reprints" (London: Whittaker & Co.), consisting of parallel texts of the First Quarto and First Folio, with variations of the later Quartos and Folios at the foot of the page, edited by Wilhelm Vietor, Ph.D., Professor in the University of Marburg, is begun with "King Lear." The editor reproduces the Pied Bull Quarto from the copy known as the British Museum Perfect, but he was obliged to depend upon a friend's transcript and subsequent verification of the proof until the facsimile of it by Prætorius was published. For the Folio likewise he relied on the facsimile, and for the readings of other texts on Furness or the Cambridge editors. The difficulty of work under such a system is the greater in this case, because only two of the six copies of this quarto collated by the Cambridge editors are alike, being made up of corrected and uncorrected sheets in various combinations. A brief comparison of the present reprint with the quarto facsimiles and the collation in Mr. Daniel's preface shows that the editor's work is not scrupulously exact, slight errors in spelling (III, iv, 124, note Q 1) and in punctuation (V, iii, 41, note Q 2) and variations from the typography (V, i, 19) being noticeable; but these are immaterial, so far as we have observed, to the study of the text. The volume is small and handy, and the series will be very serviceable in bringing together the facts of the texts for convenient study.

We have already characterized the handsome edition of the "Waverley Novels," manufactured by the Messrs. Black in Edinburgh, with the American imprint of J. B. Lippincott Co. Two more volumes, 'The Bride of Lammermoor' and 'The Heart of Midlothian,' have come to hand with their refreshing typography. From the same American house we have another volume in the pocket Thackeray edition of Smith, Elder & Co., the 'Irish Sketch Book.'

A magnifying glass should be thrown in with the new edition (12mo) of 'Nuttall's Standard Dictionary' (Frederick Warne & Co.). Everything has been sacrificed to condensation. It is illustrated.

'The Romance of Invention,' by James Burnley (Cassell & Co.), is a treasury of curious facts and anecdotes relating to nearly every department of mechanical industry. These are told in an entertaining way, the monotony inseparable from such a subject being often avoided by the skilful grouping of topics by some remote connection instead of the natural one of similarity of aim. The range is very wide, embracing all ages, and treating of inventive cooks, hair dressers, and toy-makers as well as the Arkwrights and Stephensons. Accounts are also given of the alchemists and the pursuers after the phantoms of perpetual motion and the eternal lamp, and there are chapters showing ingenuity in concocting poisons and devising tortures and punishments. In the chapter on "Castles in the Air" we do not find a reference to the great instance in which a balloon was of practical importance, in enabling Gambetta to escape from Paris. The space given to Nasmyth's love story would have been used to better purpose with an account of his steam hammer, remarkable among inventions from the fact that, instead of being the result of long and costly experiments, it sprang, Minerva-like, full-grown and perfect from the inventor's brain. It may be well to note, in case a second edition is reached, that the first successful newspaper in this country was the Boston *News Letter*, published in 1704. The book is made useful for reference by an excellent index.

Not devoid of brightness, and not without some merit in respect of efforts to inculcate domestic virtue, is a story called 'Forced Acquaintances,' written for young girls by Edith Robinson (Ticknor & Co.). It is, nevertheless, a poor production, ill-balanced and tedious; too much is said of disagreeable details, too little of grave wrong-doing, while the dialogue and character-drawing are unsatisfactory.

Mr. Elliot Stock's promised "*Book Prices Current*: a Monthly Record of the Prices at which Books have been Sold at Auction," is before us in the January number. It is a comely duodecimo pamphlet of sixty-four pages, and is sold only to subscribers, at £1 5s. 6d. per annum. Each title is numbered, the last here recorded being No. 1,040, while in every case the auctioneer's catalogue number is given in brackets. Under each sale the arrangement is alphabetical, by authors if possible, and hence it is easy for col-

lector or dealer to find the entry that interests him. If Bewick, here is the first edition of the 'Quadrupeds' selling at £3 13s., and the second for £2 5s.; if Cruikshank, here is his 'Comic Almanac,' fetching £2 8s., or his 'Phrenological Illustrations,' in the original wrappers, £2 12s.; if Dickens, here is the first edition of 'Oliver Twist,' original cloth, £6 17s. 6d.; if Ruskin, here is the first edition of the 'Stones of Venice,' £16 5s.; if Shelley, here is the first English edition of 'The Cenci,' £1 4s., etc., etc. Still, an index embracing all these titles under one alphabet would greatly enhance the convenience of using this catalogue; nor would it cost much.

The second number of the *Audubon Magazine* (New York: *Forest and Stream* Publishing Co.) has for a frontispiece a process reproduction of Audubon's plate, "The Great Auk."

The January issue of the *American Naturalist* shows a marked improvement in its typographical appearance, beginning with its cover. The cause is to be found in the new imprint, the magazine being now published by J. B. Lippincott Co.

In *Science* for March 11, Prof. Mendenhall, improving a hint of De Morgan's, constructs curves showing the relative use of long and short words by Dickens ('Oliver Twist' and 'Christmas Carol'), Thackeray ('Vanity Fair'), Mill ('Political Economy' and 'Essay on Liberty'), Edward Atkinson in sundry writings, and Cæsar ('Commentaries'). These curves are shown to be individual enough to warrant the prosecution of the inquiry; and we commend this not unfascinating labor to any intelligent person with sufficient leisure for it. It has its practical uses, as Prof. Mendenhall shows, and may in time be applied to the determination of Shaksperian authorship. One hundred thousand words are deemed a proper basis for the characteristic curve of any given writer. Incidentally it is shown that the mean word length of Atkinson is 4.298 letters, of Dickens, 4.342, Thackeray, 4.481, of Mill, 4.775.

Conformably to an order of the Prussian Ministry, the inaugural lectures of instructors, the discourses delivered and the books written in celebration of festal occasions, the dissertations of the graduating doctors, and various other publications made by the German universities or under their auspices, are henceforth to be recorded in an annual list. The first *Jahres-Verzeichniss* of this kind has just appeared (Berlin: A. Asher & Co.). It covers the year from August 15, 1885, to August 14, 1886, makes an octavo of nigh 250 pages, and costs five marks. An edition on thin paper, printed on only one side, and intended for the use of all who make card-catalogues, may be had for the same price. But the knights of the scissors and paste-pot are not the only ones who will rejoice to see the importance of this new departure recognized by so high authority.

Princeton is to have its Annex as well as Harvard, and we rejoice to record the fact. The institution will be called "Evelyn College"; will give "substantially the same course of study that is pursued at Princeton College, including the lectures of the professors, with examinations upon them"; "will have no sectarian character," nor "will anything of the nature of co-education be represented in it." The building is all ready, comfortably and even luxuriously fitted up, and the first term will open on September 28, 1887. A preparatory department is provided. Elective studies, except in the case of Greek, are confined to the Junior and Senior years. Application for information should be made to the Rev. J. H. McIlvaine, D.D., President.

The Harvard Summer School of Geology will open its sixth session at Cambridge on July 6, at the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy, under the direction of Profs. Shaler and Davis. A fortnight spent there in introductory work and short daily excursions will be followed during the next four weeks by excursions to the Connecticut Valley, the Hoosac Valley and vicinity, and the foot-hills of the Catskills. "Advanced knowledge of geology will not be required, but only teachers, graduates of colleges, or persons of maturity and some training, can be admitted"—and men only. Applications should be made to Mr. T. W. Harris, Divinity Hall, Cambridge, Mass., not later than June 1. The expenses, including tuition, are calculated not to exceed $120.

Pach Brothers, 841 Broadway, send us a large photographic group showing the staff officers of the Thirteenth New York Regiment, with Mr. Beecher in chaplain's costume—cross on hat, and sword in hand—for the chief figure. Tastes will differ as to the costume and the character in which his admirers will prefer to remember the great preacher who has just left us. If the choice were left to Count Leo Tolstoi, we may be sure he would care little for the unique "portrait in uniform" now before us, good (and appropriately grim) as it is.

—Prof. C. C. Everett's article upon "The Poems of Emerson," in the current *Andover Review*, is not written from the literary point of view, and is the more interesting on that account. Whether he agrees with Arnold's dictum that the 'Essays' are "the most important work done in prose" in this present century, is not plain, but, after quoting it, he adds that, in his opinion, the "Poems" are "the most complete and worthy expression" of Emerson's genius. He is himself most at home in philosophy and ethics, and he certainly does not overrate Emerson's work in these departments; his analysis of it leaves a meagre residuum, and he concludes that "obviously this, so far as it can be called a philosophy, is the philosophy of a poet," and, secondly, that "as his philosophy is the philosophy of a poet, so his ethics is the ethics of a poet." It would appear that Prof. Everett thinks that "a poet's" philosophy and ethics have some privileges not shared by the ordinary scholar; but one can only admire the polemical art which utilizes so serious a reservation for a greater praise. Coming to the poems, the writer finds the usual qualities in them, but he states some of them in a way to provoke challenge. "The notion that the poems of Emerson lack passion is as wide of the mark as the complaint that they are abstract," is a remark that at first seems subversive of our old ideas, in both its assertions. Here the temper and the training of the critic count very strongly. He frankly acknowledges that he speaks of Emerson's obscurity rather "from hearsay than from very much personal experience"; but to pass the point of "abstractness," and come to that of "passion," it is clear that Prof Everett has a very different meaning in mind from the usual sense of the word, when we read that in many of Emerson's poems "there is another, if not a higher, passion than the personal." Emerson, he immediately adds, had a passion for Beauty and for the Ideal; but is this anything more than saying that he was susceptible of *intellectual* exaltation? It is not this quality that is denied to him when he is said to lack passion. Here, as in the question of obscurity, Prof. Everett seems to us to be executing a not very successful flank movement. Another startling remark is that in which he speaks of Emerson's poetry as "the voice of a spirit all the more confident in its optimism *because it had been bold enough to gaze down into the darkest chasms of life.*" Was Emerson's knowledge of evil so profound? Thus one finds matter for controversy; but the paper is one which will be read with great interest, and is of higher critical value than any late contribution to the reviews.

—M. Francisque Sarcey, in a short series of articles in the *République Française*, has again brought up the much debated question of the importance of the French *patois*. He very justly remarks that a number of French words now fallen into desuetude, but still preserved in the local dialects, should be restored to the literary language. Such are *aveindre*, *quérir*, and the short and expressive form *c'étant*, which has been replaced by *puisqu'il en est ainsi*. But M. Sarcey does not stop there. He could wish the *patois* to be less rigorously excluded from the primary schools—that teachers in the south of France, for instance, should be allowed to use Provençal in the class-room. Thereupon his friend, M. J.-J. Weiss, writes to him from his retirement at Fontainebleau, that he has raised rather "a political than a pedagogical question." Later, a writer in the *Temps* raises the cry against the "Félibres" and all those who are aiming to establish a second national language in France. He sees, in the writing of Provençal poetry like that of Mistral or Aubanel, only "un divertissement de mandarin," which will always remain inaccessible to the people at large. But in the claims made by those who wish to rehabilitate the dialects of their native province he sees a serious, a dangerous tendency, which, if it could ever reach the point aimed at, would endanger the political unity of France. It may be noted that a first step has already been taken. Telegrams can now be sent officially in Provençal and Breton as well as in French.

— Professor Gneist contributes to the February and March numbers of the *Deutsche Revue* a sort of epilogue to his Constitutional History, in the shape of an article on the change wrought in the English Constitution by the legislation of the last fifty years, and by the attempts to wreck it in behalf of Irish autonomy. Prof. Gneist's opinions deserve respect, not only because he is probably the most thorough student of this subject of the century, but because, for a German and a professor, he is a remarkably "practical" politician, having served without interruption in the Prussian Parliament since 1859, and in the German since 1871. English institutions, he says, are in a state of solution, and cannot regain the cohesiveness in which lay their strength until the Irish element is gotten rid of. But even if the conservative classes (using the word in a social rather than a political sense) understand this, they may well hesitate to apply the remedy, for its adoption involves, by force of example, a complete reconstruction of the society of Great Britain. The Irish land bills, past and future, cannot, he says, be fitly compared with the Stein and Hardenberg legislation in behalf of the Prussian peasants, because these had for several generations been paying the taxes and performing the military service in exchange for which the land was held by the dispossessed holders. The estates in question, that is to say, were held of the Government by a feudal tenure; and as the feudal obligations, translated into modern civic duties, fell on the shoulders of the peasants, they had almost a legal claim to a share in the land. But in Ireland, according to Prof. Gneist, the peasants have no such claim; so that the property of the landlords is in part to be confiscated solely from expediency, on political and economical grounds. As there can be no limits to legislation dictated solely by expediency, the socialistic greed thus awakened will surely, he thinks, extend to the countries across the Channel. The difference between English institutions and the Continental arrangements more or less modelled on them lay in the fact that the former—Church and Parliament, local and national administrations—were inextricably intertwined, while the latter were created each to

stand on its own bottom. But while, in a society so constituted, each member is a support to the others so long as itself is in a healthy state, it is a corresponding source of weakness when this condition is changed. The machinery of the Constitution, which formerly worked so smoothly, has gradually been getting out of gear ever since the first Reform Bill, owing to the enormous increase in wealth and numbers of the industrial middle class, for whose assimilation the old system did not provide. But it is possible, Prof. Gneist thinks, when a perpetually foreign element like the Irish is removed, to maintain the parliamentary form along with complete social reconstruction, although the aristocratic class is likely to become irreconcilable, as in France. As to Ireland, there is not much home rule in the scheme of autonomy which the Professor thinks the only practicable one "in view of the want of self-control of the Irish, as shown in the United States." He proposes a legislature in which the majority shall be nominated by the Crown; the local administration, modelled on the French, to consist of prefects assisted by elective councils, service in which may, in time, give the people the political understanding and experience essential to the successful working of the principle of self-government.

—'Aus dem deutschen Universitätsleben des sechzehnten Jahrhunderts' is the title of one of the most recent numbers of the "Frankfurter zeitgemässe Brochüren" (Neue Folge, Band vii, Heft 12. Frankfurt am Main: Foesser, pp. 31). The author is the celebrated Ultramontane historian, Johannes Janssen, whose 'Geschichte des deutschen Volkes seit dem Ausgang des Mittelalters' has elicited so much discussion in Germany. The monograph consists of interesting extracts from a wide range of authorities, showing that immediately after the Reformation the German universities degenerated, and that in the second half of the sixteenth century they were the seats of sloth, drunkenness, murder, and many other abominations. "The ecclesiastical revolution of the sixteenth century," says the author in his preamble, "which loosened all the old bonds of discipline and order, also exerted a very paralyzing and pernicious influence upon the intellectual life and the institutions of learning." Luther himself asserted that "the universities deserve to be crushed to powder; nothing more hellish and devilish has appeared on earth since the beginning of the world" (p. 2). Melanchthon wrote in 1521 that "nothing had ever been invented more baneful and godless than the universities; not the Popes, but the devil himself was their founder" (p. 2). In 1614 the students of Wittenberg were ordered to discontinue the practice of drinking beer in the "Auditorum" during the lectures (p. 10). A student of Basel stated in 1587 that either the professors were remiss enough to lecture very seldom, or they taught without method, mixing up heaven and earth (p. 12). "The name learned," says Prof. Hofmann in 1578, "is almost detested by high and low" (p. 13). "The conduct of the students was so unseemly," writes another authority in 1557, "that the glistening tears often fell from Melanchthon's eyes during his lectures, and he frequently said that the unbounded license of the young men was a sign that the end of the world was near at hand" (p. 19). Some of the statements which Janssen cites in support of his position are, in all probability, exaggerated; for example, the assertion on page 26 that in the year 1540, within six months, four hundred persons drank themselves to death at Wittenberg. Doubtless, too, other elements besides the Reformation helped to bring about the decadence of the German universities. But the author's general account of the shocking condition of the latter during the sixteenth century may be accepted as correct.

—Mr. Welldon's translation of Aristotle's 'Rhetoric' (Macmillan) is careful and reasonably smooth and idiomatic, but the translator's admiration of the original has led him into strange statements. We will not question what he says about the neglect of rhetoric as an educational instrument in England; only we would guard against the inference that Aristotle's work has been unduly neglected, except so far as every editor, every translator, thinks that his bright particular author is a slighted wall-flower. But it is going too far to say, as Mr. Welldon does, that the art of rhetoric was the creation of Aristotle, and that "whatever has been best in it from this time to the present is due to him." Aristotle cannot be called the creator of rhetoric, and, instead of being a brilliant success as a teacher of the art, he was a conspicuous failure in comparison with Isocrates, who, in other respects, is not to be named in the same breath with him; and, profound and valuable as is the basis on which he has reared the structure of his 'Rhetoric,' his treatise had little practical worth in the eyes of his successors, who were far from being his equals in intellectual grasp, but who had the great merit of not being above their business. Mr. Welldon thinks that the field of rhetoric was amplified in a direction which Aristotle had deliberately left alone. This, again, is claiming far too much. The later rhetoricians cannot be ignored by the student of literature except at his peril, as has been amply shown by Volkmann and by Blass. In fact, modern æsthetic criticism has much to learn from these despised rhetoricians, who give us system where the modern critic gives only hints. The third book of the 'Rhetoric' seems to be accepted by Mr. Welldon unreservedly as Aristotelian, but he does not note that, if it is by Aristotle, it is a singular tribute to Aristotle's rival, Isocrates, to whom the philosopher is obliged to resort for illustrations of some of his points. In his rendering of this book, by the way, Mr. Welldon has not been invariably felicitous. So the famous εἰρομένη he translates, after Mure, 'jointed,' an absurdity from which he might have been warned off by Mr. Cope, who suggests 'disjointed,' which is certainly much nearer the mark. The *vetusta versio* has the droll word *consuspensa*, and the other Latin versions try *tracta*, *fusa*, and what not. Most scholars prefer to keep the non-committal Greek, but surely the meaning is plain enough. The λέξις εἰρομένη is the 'strung style,' the 'all-in-a row style,' the 'chaplet,' the 'rosary' style; the words being held together by the conjunction as the beads are held together by the knot of the string. In this rosary style the conjunctions are represented by the larger beads, and such a discourse could go on for ever, whereas the periodic style carries the end in itself.

— The thirty-six-inch lenses for the great telescope of the Lick Observatory, whose construction has been some five years delayed through the impossibility of obtaining the necessary glass, were completed at the workshops of the Clarks in Cambridgeport last autumn, and have been successfully transported across the Continent and finally deposited in the vaults of the Lick Observatory on Mount Hamilton. The matter of transportation was one of the greatest moment to the trustees, as any mishap to the lenses would defeat their expectation of completing the observatory and its equipment during the present year in such shape that it could be finally handed over to the Regents of the State University of California. Mr. Fraser, the superintendent of construction of the observatory, made a special journey to the East for the express purpose of carrying out the lenses, and the manner in which they were prepared for this journey is well described in a late number of the *Sidereal Messenger*. They were wrapped separately in fifteen or twenty thicknesses of soft cotton cloth. Next came a thick layer of cotton and then a layer of paper. The glasses were then put into boxes of wood, lined with felt. No nails were used near the lenses, and the boxes were made the shape of the glasses. These boxes were enclosed in two others of steel, each nearly cubical in form, and packed tightly with curled hair. Each steel box was enclosed in another steel box, the inner sides of which were covered with spiral springs. Both steel boxes were made air-tight and waterproof, and the outer chests packed with asbestos to render them fire-proof. Each was then suspended by pivots in strong wooden frames, with contrivances for turning each chest one-quarter way round every day during the journey to California. This was to prevent any molecular disarrangement in the glasses and to avoid the danger of polarization, it being feared that the jarring of the train would disturb the present arrangement of the molecules, unless the position of the glass should be changed and all lines of disturbance thus broken up. The trustees have placed the separate contracts for the other portions of this great telescope with manufacturers who have so far met with special success in the particular class of work involved, all the mechanical parts of the telescope (or mounting, as it is technically called) being made at Cleveland, by Messrs. Warner & Swasey, the micrometer or measuring apparatus by Fauth & Company of Washington, and the spectroscope—which, like the telescope, is to be the most powerful in existence—by Mr. Brashear, who has served a long and able apprenticeship under Prof. Langley at Allegheny. For obvious reasons, the trustees finally decided not to adopt the new pattern of spherical dome which has very generally been described as that which would cover the great telescope on Mount Hamilton, but placed the contract for a dome of the ordinary pattern and nearly eighty feet in diameter with the Union Iron Works at San Francisco. Of the $700,000 of the original bequest made by Mr. Lick eleven years ago, his trustees have already expended all but $190,000, and they now contemplate assembling together all the separate parts of the great telescope (which itself with accessories has cost nearly $200,000) at some time during the coming summer or autumn, when their control of the institution will cease.

GARDINER'S GREAT CIVIL WAR.

History of the Great Civil War, 1642-1649. By Samuel R. Gardiner, M.A., LL.D. Fellow of All Souls, etc., etc. Vol. i, 1642-1644. London: Longmans, Green & Co. 1886.

"THE Civil War, the outbreak of which was announced by the floating of Charles's standard on the hill at Nottingham, was rendered inevitable by the inadequacy of the intellectual methods of the day to effect a reconciliation between opposing moral and social forces, which derived their strength from the past development of the nation. The personal characters of the leaders might do much to shorten or prolong the time of open warfare, but no permanent restoration of harmony would be possible till some compromise which would give security alike to the disciples of Hooker and to the disciples of Calvin, had been not only thought out by the few, but generally accepted by the many."

This is the opening paragraph of Mr. Gardiner's new volume. The words of it deserve careful attention. They strike the keynote to all that follows; they sum up the great merits and indicate the possible deficiencies of the mode in which Mr. Gardiner looks at history.

He is essentially a student of ideas. The true subject of all his writings is not events, and the visible transactions which make up the matter of

historical composition, but rather the spirit, the notions, the beliefs, the opinions, or (to speak generally) the ideas, which, as they ultimately govern human action, give its form to the progress of mankind. The special belief which, throughout every volume of his invaluable work, Mr. Gardiner keeps before his eyes, is the belief, developed so slowly and opposed by so many obstacles, in religious toleration—or, rather, in that respect for the human conscience, and for the truths discovered by the light of conscience and of intellect, which forms the real basis of enlightened toleration. So truly is Mr. Gardiner concerned with the progress of opinion that it were, from one point of view, no untrue description of his history to say that it was an account of the steps by which the doctrine of toleration was first worked out by thinkers, and then acquiesced in by the judgment of the nation.

But though Mr. Gardiner's interest may be truly said to lie in what, borrowing a term from theology, we may call the growth of political dogma, he is distinguished from writers who trace the evolution of particular beliefs, by his intense interest in actual men and women, and by the tenacity with which he clings to the conviction that (if the actions of mankind are in a sense governed by their ideas) dogmas and opinions, in so far as they are influential at all, can only exist in the minds and hearts of living human beings, who themselves are swayed by all the feelings, base or noble, which we see governing the society in which we live. It is this balance between the abstract and the concrete view of history which gives to Mr. Gardiner's writings their peculiar power, and also their very peculiar charm. He knows that "the inadequacy of the intellectual methods of the day" was in a very true sense the cause of the civil war. But he also knows, and never lets his readers forget, that the ideas, good and bad, of the seventeenth century produced very different results on different characters. Charles and Cromwell, Falkland and Pym, Bunyan and Chillingworth, were no doubt each and all influenced by the conceptions of their time. But the results of this influence were in each case very different; and for any profound understanding of the age in which these men moved you must, as Mr. Gardiner never forgets, pay at least as much attention to the personal peculiarities of the actors who played their parts in it, as to the general ideas which gave the direction to each man's individual action.

Thus, to take one example among a score, when Mr. Gardiner wishes to make us understand the various forces which led men of very different types to rally round the Crown, he does not present us with a number of abstract reflections as to the different reasons which might be adduced in favor of the Royal cause, but takes two or three men, such as Rupert, Lindsey, Falkland, and Waller, and tells us, as far as our knowledge, or rather our ignorance, allows, what were the motives which in fact determined the course adopted by each of these eminent persons. To know the reasons of their action is to understand why thousands of other less well-known Englishmen found themselves—sometimes to their great surprise—arrayed in arms for the King and against the Parliament. This mode of treating a great historical crisis has two great advantages: it gives the historian himself a kind of intellectual impartiality and calmness which is the rarest, if not the very greatest, of the gifts required by any one who is to unentangle the confused threads of great historical transactions; it impresses, again, on the reader, with a force which cannot be attained by any mere general statements, that the contest between the King and the Parliament—and the same thing is in a measure true, it may be supposed, of every great struggle—was a battle in which good men and wise men, as well as wicked men and fools, were pretty equally divided on each side. The simple truth is, that the crisis was one of great difficulty. Looking back on the great civil war from the distance of more than two centuries, it is, we conceive, possible to say that on the whole the supporters of the Parliament were in the right. They acted with more wisdom than their opponents, mainly because they had perceived one fact which was hidden from the eyes of the wisest Royalists. This was the untrustworthiness of Charles. Time has produced many worse men than Charles I.: he was morally a far better man than his father or his sons; but history has produced no man less trustworthy. The sagacity of James I., the selfish common sense of Charles II., the dull obstinacy of James II., gave adherents some characteristic on which they could rely. On Charles I. no man ever placed reliance without suffering for his folly. But though this vital fact was, when once perceived, decisive in favor of supporting the cause of the Parliament, no one can wonder that many good and sagacious men did not see the fatal flaws in Charles's character. Still less can one wonder that men who associated in their minds the supremacy of the law, the reign of order, and the very existence of national freedom, with the authority of the Crown, should have trembled at plunging into a civil war which, if the King triumphed, was likely to produce royal despotism, and if the Parliament triumphed, either anarchy or the supremacy of a military tyrant. Never was there a case where men of sense might more reasonably differ, and never was there a case where men of goodness might each think, with more show of reason, that their side was the side of virtue.

If Mr. Gardiner had rendered no further service to our knowledge of the past than to make us not only know but see why it was that the best men of England were at the time of the great civil war ranged on different sides against each other, he would deserve the thanks of all students. But our author has, from the way in which he looks at history, and the infinite industry with which he has worked out his own conception of impartial narration, done far more than merely make us understand in a general way the state of feeling in England from 1642 to 1644. He has, as we are informed by persons competent to judge, provided for the first time a detailed and intelligible account of the military events which make those years famous in the annals of warfare. He has described with the utmost accuracy the fluctuations of feeling which marked the early years of the civil contest—the intense yearning for peace, which unfortunately itself tended to prolong the war, the anticipation that the war would be of short duration, and that the Parliament might count on a speedy triumph; the disappointment which ensued when this anticipation was found to be groundless. The greatest, however, of the benefits which Mr. Gardiner has conferred upon every lover of truth is the new light which he has thrown upon the growth of the complicated body of beliefs designated by the name "liberty of conscience." He shows that the doctrine now so universally recognized, that a man for his beliefs, as contrasted with his acts, is responsible to his conscience and to God alone, was a truth which, at the beginning of the seventeenth century, not one man in 10,000 could even dimly perceive; that it gained acceptance rather from the force of practical considerations than through the strength of argument, though the theory of the relation of the citizen towards the state and towards God, which ultimately solved the most pressing problems of the age, was occasionally worked out, with more or less completeness, by solitary thinkers long before it commanded the allegiance of practical statesmen. Fuller, Chillingworth, Roger Williams each partially seized the clue which was to guide men out of the mazes in which they were involved by the traditional notion that the magistrate was bound to inculcate theological truth by use of physical power. That this was so is probably in a vague manner known to most of those likely to read Mr. Gardiner's pages. What he will make clear to many for the first time, is, first, the singular fact that the author of an anonymous tract—an author whose name cannot even now be plausibly conjectured—anticipated in 1644 the doctrines of Locke and carried them out with more consistency than the author of the celebrated "Letters on Toleration"; and, further, that statesmen who would in words have condemned the doctrine of toleration as a heresy, came (in England, at least), as the seventeenth century advanced, to perceive that civil liberty, social order, and the progressive development of society demanded that kings and magistrates should tolerate many beliefs which they did not share.

The historical importance of tracing out the spread, during the seventeenth century, of opinions and practices favoring liberty of conscience can hardly be overrated. It bridges over, or in reality abolishes, the chasm which teachers of a certain school wish to open between the men of the seventeenth and the men of the eighteenth century. The great civil war was, according to a view openly proclaimed by Carlyle and tacitly adopted by many other writers, a contest of heroes. The Revolution of 1689 was, according to the same authorities, little better than a transaction carried out by politicians whose statesmanship lacked every noble and heroic quality. Any one, however, who realizes that toleration was the need of the age, sees at once that the Revolution of 1689 in reality solved the problem which had baffled the statesmen and soldiers of the great civil war; and that the essential work of the eighteenth century was to give practical effect to ideas which had only been dimly grasped by the best and greatest men of the seventeenth century. The inadequacy of the intellectual methods of the day gave occasion to the civil war. The improved intellectual methods of the next age produced in England a period of reconciliation, peace, and progress. That this is one of the lessons that Mr. Gardiner's 'History of the Civil War' will impress upon the world is, in our judgment, past a doubt. It is taught all the more impressively because Mr. Gardiner comes forward bona-fide as an investigator and not as a preacher. Never, it may be added, was teaching more needed. The civilized world of Europe is again becoming involved in practical difficulties which have their ultimate source in the confusion and uncertainty of prevailing opinions. Wise men who study the annals of the past, will feel inclined to watch and see whether improved intellectual methods, or the recognition of some new or forgotten truth, may not close the contests of the nineteenth century, just as the doctrine of religious toleration terminated in England the feuds which culminated in the great civil war.

Mr. Gardiner is so eminent among historical inquirers that his most fervent admirers, among whom we are glad to number ourselves, need not hesitate to acknowledge that he has, like all men of superior powers, some of the defects almost involved in his great qualities. The sentences with which this article begins suggest what these defects are. He is, like all persons who delight in dwelling on the influence of ideas, a little too prone to underrate—at least, so it may seem to a careful student—the immense influence of personal character. We believe it to be absolutely and entirely true that no complete reconciliation between opposing moral and social

forces could, during the first half of the seventeenth century, have been effected by the power or sagacity of kings or of statesmen. Nothing but the increase of knowledge, and the consequent growth of new beliefs, could by any possibility have put an end to the political and theological animosities which found their ultimate expression in the contest of rival armies. But it seems by no means clear that the presence on the throne of a monarch different in character from Charles might not have prevented the outbreak of a civil war. Speculations, indeed, on what 'might have been" are necessarily in one sense futile, but they are sometimes useful as enabling us to measure, hypothetically at least, how far a slight change of circumstances might have affected a given course of events. The assertion that Charles's character, and especially his untrustworthiness and his stupidity, had a great deal to do with turning latent discord into open civil war, admits of something very like proof. James I. was not a man of heroic mould. He was morally—and, it is probable, physically—a coward; but he was a man of natural sagacity, and his prudence, contemptible as were often the forms in which it exhibited itself, did enable him to keep on the throne, and in some degree to increase the royal power, without bringing the nation even to the verge of civil war. If Charles had been gifted with his father's shrewdness, there is no reason to suppose that he might not have ended his life as peaceably as did James. It is, again, perfectly clear that the sentiment of loyalty to the Crown was, during the whole of Charles's reign, a source of power which would have enabled any king of average ability not only to resist assailants, but probably to strengthen his own position. We do not for a moment suppose that Mr. Gardiner would dispute this; but if we concede that a monarch of no very extraordinary talent could have averted or postponed civil war, we in effect grant that the peculiarities of Charles's nature had at least as much to do with changing a Parliamentary conflict into an armed rebellion as had the inadequacy of the intellectual methods of the day.

ANCIENT ISRAEL.—II.

Geschichte des Volkes Israel. Von Dr. Bernhard Stade, Professor an der Universität Giessen. Mit Illustrationen und Karten. Vol. I. Berlin 1887. New York: Westermann. [Oncken's Weltgeschichte in Einzeldarstellungen.]

THE legends of Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob, our author emphatically asserts, embody no historical facts. They were local legends, separately clustering around sanctuaries of the ancient Canaanitish inhabitants of Palestine: the sanctuary of Hebron, the sacred well of Beer-sheba, and the sacred stone of Bethel. These spots were sacred before the arrival of the Israelites in the land. With the changes of the religious notions of the dwellers around, the character of the legends varied; they were modified and remodified. The Israelites—this appears almost certain—did not dwell under patriarchs in Palestine west of the Jordan, before their settlement in the lands east of that river. That they migrated in to Egypt is equally improbable. Joseph is a Palestinian *heros eponymus*, the legendary representative of a tribe; his transformation into a ruler of Egypt is a work of late fiction. Even the poetical fancy which made the Israelites enter the Nile land as a family and leave it as a nation, left all the intervening time an absolute blank; the monuments know nothing whatever of the whole affair. Searching, as some Egyptologists still do, for the Pharoah of the oppression or the traces of the exodus, is a childish amusement: nothing is to be discovered in Egypt in reference to Israelitish history. The Israelites possessed no distinct and positive historical recollections reaching back beyond the time of the settlement in western Palestine. All that was earlier recollection centred dimly in the two names Moses and Sinai. Moses had taught them at Sinai to worship Jehovah. This worship had made them a people distinguishable from other members of the Hebrew race, such as the Moabites, Ammonites, and Edomites.

The Hebrew race was kindred to the Arabs on the one side and to the Aramæans on the other. Closely akin to Israel were the Canaanites west of the Jordan and the Lebanon, including the Phœnicians. The Israelites were descended neither from a Shem nor from an Eber. They were called Hebrews (*'ibrîm*) by their western Canaanitish neighbors, as dwellers beyond (*'ĕber*) the Jordan—not the Euphrates, as former explanations had it. They called themselves sons of Shem when they had become masters of the land west of the Jordan, as the nobles of the land (*shēm* meaning name, glory, or distinction). They appear to have been originally a clan established east of the Jordan, on both sides of the Jabbok. Their *heros eponymus* was Israel, the legend of whom was subsequently blended, west of the Jordan, with the legend of Jacob, the seat of which was Bethel. The name of the clan was extended to others confederated with it, in the same way in which the appellations Latins, Alemanni, and Teutons have gained their widely comprehensive significations. The Hebrew clans which in later times constituted the nation of Israel, came into the Transjordanic region mainly from the Sinaitic peninsula; some immigration may possibly have taken place from regions bordering on the Euphrates, whence the legend of Abraham derives the whole race. As nomads of the peninsula they lived in peaceful relations with the probably Arabic tribe of the Kenites, and from them—who were perhaps allies of the Midianites—they seem to have received through Moses the religion of Jehovah. It was not the religion of their ancestors, but entirely new to them. A slow migration carried them into Gilead and the adjoining districts, the Judaic clan alone probably wandering northward, with the Kenites and the Arabic Calebites, into the region west of the Dead Sea. When these migrations took place, and how long they lasted, it is impossible to tell. In Gilead the nomads, hemmed in between the Jordan and the desert, by the kindred Moabites and Ammonites on the south, and by Aramaic tribes on the north, gradually turned tillers of the soil, built cities—Mahanaim, Succoth, Jabesh, Penuel, etc.—and grew too populous for their territory. The stories of the conquest and distribution of the country by Moses, of the Amorite Sihon, of Balak, and Balaam are fictions.

As the Midianites and Amalekites did in later times, the Israelites, in their nomadic state, must have made frequent plundering incursions into Western Palestine, the many fords of the upper Jordan offering easy opportunities for crossing. Peaceable transmigrations came afterward, the Israelites wedging themselves in between Canaanitish settlements, steadily gaining ground, and gradually absorbing the neighboring population. The whole history, in its more authentic features, clearly shows that there was no sudden conquest or invasion, no extermination of the natives, no deadly feud between them and the Israelites. The Hebrews, or Transjordanians, lived mostly in peace with the kindred Canaanites during the time which is generally, though erroneously, designated as the period of the judges—that is, before the union of all the tribes was effected under the monarchy. The figure of the great conqueror, Joshua, as we have seen, is the production of a late age. That no general conquest took place, and consequently no division of the conquered country, is shown by the earlier relation in the first chapter of Judges, according to which the separate tribes attempted separate conquests. That chapter, now falsely attached, as a continuation, to the book of Joshua by the words "After the death of Joshua," is evidently an extract from an extensive narrative, running parallel with that book and refuting it, which may have begun with "After the death of Moses" or "After the crossing of the Jordan." The warlike exploits spoken of in the earlier relation are, however, also far from being contemporaneous or authentic history. No such exploits, no such simultaneous movements, ever took place. The Canaanites generally held their cities, plains, and valleys, and here and there also a plateau or mountain; the Israelites mostly occupied first the intervening forest lands, which they cleared. Their peaceful advance did not exclude exceptional conquests with the sword, sudden inroads from beyond the Jordan, surprises and sacks. But these rarely effected permanent results. A part of the tribe of Dan succeeded in capturing an isolated town, Laish, in the extreme north, and establishing themselves there; Levi and Simeon treacherously surprised the Bene-Hamor of Shechem, but were driven away and scattered by the Canaanites, and Israel, instead of helping, execrated their treachery.

Israel was the first Transjordanic Hebrew clan which gained possessions west of the river. Clan after clan followed. Living among the Canaanites, they partly blended with them. Intermarriages prevailed. The sacred places of Canaan became sanctuaries of Israel. In all other matters of culture the Israelites learned from the cities of Canaan; in the worship of Jehovah they remained faithful to their own traditions and customs. Inferior in the arts of industry, they were superior to their neighbors in religious conceptions and ethical spirit. This superiority decided the product of international blending in favor of Israel. The Israelitish element began to predominate. Moral leadership led to material rule. The rural districts were won first; the towns much later, partly by Israelitish intrusion and peaceful commingling, and partly by treaty and conquest. Severe contests for possession and sharpened religious antagonism finally created permanent animosities, and the Israelite looked down upon the Canaanite as vile and fit only to be a serf to the Sons of Shem. And yet many an Israelitish *gens* had more Canaanitish blood in it than Shemitic. The absorption of much of the native element so strengthened some of the clans, especially those which obtained much clearable land, that they grew into separate tribes. A regular division of the people into twelve tribes, however, never existed. The country was never distributed, nor did the Israelites ever possess the whole of it.

The warlike tribe of Gad was powerful in the land east of the Jordan, and, west of the river, in the earliest times, the central tribe of Joseph. The latter, after extending its possessions in a southerly direction, was divided into Benjamin, Manasseh, and Ephraim. The tribe of Judah, in the south, arose much later, forming itself out of Israelitish, Edomitish, Canaanitish, and Arabic elements. Enveloped by it were the remnants of Simeon, which, after the discomfiture at Shechem, never rose to the dignity of a tribe. The dispersion of Levi was more complete still, but its boasting of Moses as its member united its families into a kind of a priestly caste, to whom the managing of the sanctuaries was generally intrusted. The priesthood was not derived originally from Aaron, who is unknown to the earlier traditions, but from Moses, whose descendants we find figuring as priests at the northern sanctuary of the Danites. Reuben never had any po-

litical significance, almost disappearing between Gad and the powerful state of Moab, its constant enemy. Issachar, Zebulun, Naphtali, and Asher, in the north, formed a group of tribes living in small clans, closely surrounded by the Canaanitish natives, whom they were unable to assimilate or to conquer. At one time only (during the struggle with Sisera) Zebulun and Naphtali appear conspicuous in Israelitish history; Issachar and Asher never acted a noticeable part in it. That portion of Dan which remained between Judah and the Philistines was almost as powerless as Reuben between Gad and Moab. The extermination of the tribe of Benjamin is unhistorical. The chronology of the pre-monarchical times is a systematic creation of late redactors, and entirely valueless. The first attempt at founding a royalty more comprehensive than clan chiefship was made by the house of Jerubbaal in Manasseh. It proved a failure, though based on Gideon's deserts as deliverer from Midian. The greater merits of Saul as deliverer from a more general and more lasting oppression led to the establishment of the Benjamite throne, and to the union of the tribes. Samuel—who, like Eli, was a priest, and not a judge—promoted, instead of opposing, this transition from tribal anarchy to monarchical unity. With it real Israelitish history begins.

We have made no attempt to acquaint our readers with any of the critical processes which have led to the construction of the foregoing scheme of the earliest history of Israel. Those familiar to a degree with Biblical inquiry in its recent stages, even if as yet ignorant of the advances made on the basis of the Graf and Kuenen theory, which has completely changed the relative value of the main Old-Testament narratives, will neither be surprised by the results stated nor ask for explanations, which must needs transcend the bounds of a review in a journal like this. Readers who know only their Bible and apologetic commentaries, and perhaps an apologetic Bible dictionary, will, we have no doubt, be amazed at statements so often flagrantly at variance with the best-remembered texts of the Scriptures, and not a little inclined to attribute some of the assertions to defective knowledge, wrong judgment, or evil propensity on the part of the critical innovators. Such suspicions we are unable to disarm here by evidences to the contrary, but we owe our general public the assurance that the work itself completely refutes them. Never has the minute examination and dissection of historical tradition been carried out with more painstaking earnestness, sounder knowledge, and greater freedom from religious or anti-religious prepossessions, than in the histories of Wellhausen and Stade. In the work of the latter author, which in its analysis of the traditional accounts is firmly grounded on the writings of the former, the destructive analytical labor is so convincingly justified by intrinsic evidence from the respective texts—the Hebrew as well as the Greek of the Septuagint—that only he who shuts his eyes to all evidence conflicting with cherished notions can gainsay it. Of course, we are far from saying that no point of detail can be contested. The constructive labor of the author, in which more originality is evinced, is naturally based in part on conjecture, and his conjectural facts are, we confess, often propounded with too much positiveness. It is, perhaps, owing to the frequency of instances in which hypothesis must do duty for knowledge—a frequency demanding a reiteration of acknowledged doubt too tedious to carry out—that much appears presented with an assurance not warranted by the saved remnant of dissected tradition. The plausibility of the facts or conditions constructively elicited here from a mass of conflicting testimony is generally very strong, though a most plausible guess but too often proves a mistaken guess when verification is possible.

Recollections of a Private Soldier in the Army of the Potomac. By Frank Wilkeson. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1887.

THE author of this book thinks that the generals have had too much to say in regard to the history of the war, and that it is high time the privates had their turn. His contribution will certainly be welcomed, for it is a vivid picture—perhaps a little too bloody and harrowing, but none the less realistic—of the life of the private soldier, upon whom fell, as in all wars they must fall, the greater portion of the hardships, suffering, fatigue, hunger, cold, and death, which are inseparable from war, and which, in the accounts of strategic movements and brilliant charges, are apt to be overlooked. As a contribution to history, books like this are only valuable in so far as they recall the intense savagery, the relapse into cold-blooded barbarism, which is the accompaniment of war, and again as they describe the morale of the rank and file of a particular army at a stated time. Further than this, of course, the recollections and opinions of a private soldier, with his necessarily circumscribed vision, have no historical value. But in the two respects above stated this book is valuable.

The writer enlisted in the winter of 1863–64, and went to the front in company with six hundred bounty-jumpers—escaped criminals all, or nearly all. His active service lasted just six weeks, from the crossing of the Rapidan to the first assault of Petersburg; but they were the bloodiest six weeks of the whole war, and a blood-curdling tale does he tell of them. Deaths of the most horrible character, sickening wounds described at length, rifling of dead bodies, stealing rations from comrades in the fierce struggle for existence, cowardice of the bounty-jumpers and "coffee boilers," cruelty from officers to men, heartlessness, dissatisfaction, discontent, insubordination—all make a picture which can hardly be characterized as other than revolting. Yet it would be rash to deny its accuracy in any particular. It is only half, or less than half, of the story of the Army of the Potomac during those terrible six weeks, but it is a half which it is well not to forget.

As to the morale of the army, what the author has to say is of great interest. When the first fight in the Wilderness was over, and the troops were withdrawn from their lines, the men said to each other, "When we get to the Chancellorsville House, if we turn to the left, we are whipped; if we turn to the right, . . . it will indicate the purpose of Grant to fight." When they reached that point, they turned to the right. "Instantly all of us heard a sigh of relief. Our spirits rose. We marched free. The men began to sing. The enlisted men understood the flanking movement. That night we were happy." Yet six weeks later—six weeks in which every day had seen an engagement and every week a battle—the same men said, "No, we are not going to charge. We are going to run toward the Confederate earthworks, and then we are going to run back. We have had enough of assaulting earthworks. We are hungry and tired, and I we want to rest and eat." And the author brings a charge which we have never before seen in print, viz., it was not so much the men who shrank at that time, as the officers; for while the losses among the enlisted men during the two periods, May 4–May 31, and June 1–October 28, were approximately equal, yet the losses among general officers during the first period were four times as numerous as during the latter.

Of the criticisms and opinions of the enlisted men on the course of the campaign, and of the system of "news-gatherers" who passed from camp to camp at night carrying the news of the day, much interesting information is given, and the following extract is worth quoting without abridgment:

"The enlisted men spent much time in comparing Grant with McClellan. The latter had many warm friends among the soldiers. He only, of all the men who had commanded the Army of the Potomac, was personally liked and admired by his troops. Soldiers' eyes would brighten when they talked of him. Their hard, lean, browned faces would soften and light up with affection when they spoke of him—and still it was affection only; they did not, as a rule, concede to him military talent. And the general opinion among them was—given Grant in command of the army in 1862, and the rebellion would have been crushed that year. Asked how McClellan would have done with the army of 1864 under his command, they shrugged their shoulders and said dryly, 'Well, he would have ended the war in the Wilderness—by establishing the Confederacy.'"

The Private is not content with telling his personal reminiscences and drawing a striking picture of the savage scenes through which he passed; in addition, he has his theory of the proper conduct of the war. It is only briefly stated, and is confined to the Preface, being neither proved nor disproved by anything in the text. His theory is, that the disasters of the war were due to two causes, (1) the calling for volunteers instead of enforcing the draft at the outset; (2) the placing of West Point graduates in command of troops. As to the first, it need only be said that a draft in 1861 was politically impossible; incidentally it may be noted that it would have put worse men in the ranks than the system of volunteers. As to the second, the Government acted largely on his theory in 1861 when it appointed Butler, Banks, Frémont, and Sigel among its first major-generals and assigned them to important commands. It was only disaster that caused the Government to look among trained soldiers for its generals, and from them produced Grant, Sherman, Sheridan, Thomas, Hancock, and the other great commanders—graduates of West Point with but very few exceptions—who finally put down the rebellion.

The New English. By T. L. Kington Oliphant of Balliol College. Macmillan & Co. 1886.

MR. OLIPHANT'S 'New English' is a record of the rise of new words in English literature. He takes the date of the first well-formed specimen of the new English to be 1303. He begins with Friar Michael of Kildare, his printed pieces dating shortly after 1300, and enumerates the new words and phrases which occur in them, pointing out that such and such are from the French, this and that from the Scandinavian, and many from the Anglo-Saxon. Then he takes up another book and deals with it in the same way, making good speed through scores of little-known authors to Chaucer, to Shakspere, and at last to Morris and the last revised Bible of our own day. A verbal index is added, containing something like 20,000 words and many more than 20,000 references. 'New English' will serve as a compendious historical dictionary till the great work of the Philological Society shall be available.

One who reads Dr. F. Hall's handling of Bishop Coxe's English philology in the *Nation* of March 3 might be interested in the expression "is being built." Dr. Hall gives it a respectable age: he has found it as early as 1769. A look for it in Oliphant shows examples in 1447–48. "You was" comes up in 1699, in Bentley, king of scholars; great, too, in idiomatic English. It was current afterwards for a hundred years. The South English abuse of *h* is an interesting puzzle in its cause and age. Oliphant finds it first in Miss Hawkins's novel, 'The Countess and

Gertrude,' published in 1811; a rustic talks of a "*ot* loaf," and a lady's maid of a "*himpeeral*" (imperial). These examples favor the view that the dropping of *h* is the old natural weakening; the adding, an affectation in high life below stairs. Persons often wonder when and where our queer spellings started into use. A look at *could* in Oliphant refers to the records (1440–1450) of Coldingham Priory, vol. i. "There is a startling change in p. 160," he says; "the old *cude* (potuit) is written *culde*, from a false analogy with *shulde* and *wulde*." In Bishop Hall (1598) the old Teutonic *rime* is first "confused with the Greek *rhythm*, and becomes *rhyme*, p. 10; this absurd spelling ought never to be used in our time." Besides single words and forms, much care has been taken to note phrases, especially proverbs, and other expressions which embody the habits of thought or record the customs of each age, and everything which throws light on the pronunciation either of English or foreign words.

Thus much about the book considered as a sort of dictionary. Its distinctive feature and eminent merit is the exhibition of numbers of words and phrases together as they are found together in books. This presents us with the materials for the study of the language of any book, of any author, or of any age. About 250 writers are examined before Shakspere's time, and 100 more to our day.

These writers have been selected on the ground of their importance in the history of the language; many of them are of small importance or none at all, as literature. Comic and colloquial authors are best for this purpose. Little notice is taken of Spenser and Milton, much notice of Udall and Still. But the most elaborate study is made of Shakspere and Chaucer. Shakspere's plays are taken up one by one, and each has as much space as a whole book usually gets. The whole is stuffed full of curious facts, and suggests still more curious questions. In "Love's Labour Lost," to begin with, the French *caporal* figures as a *corporal;* the law term *escheat* becomes *cheat*, the people's notion of a lawyer's function; *epithet* appears for *epitheton;* a new kind of time-piece, the *watch*, takes the place of the dial; the adjective *spruce* (from *Prussia*) testifies to the smart dress from Prussia which pleased the Londoners; and so on. Some eighty words and phrases are mentioned in this play, a great part being phrases or loose compounds. The order in which the plays are treated does not agree with that in which it is generally supposed that they were written—perhaps Mr. Oliphant has strong opinions in favor of the order he has adopted. But his discussions do not depend upon the order as much as one might suppose, for most of his examples occur but once in all of Shakspere. At least, suspecting this, we turned up the words in "Romeo and Juliet," and found it to be so there. So that, in addition to the other matters, we have material for examining Shakspere's *hapax legomena*.

Mr. Oliphant is an Oxford man, and well up in the latest scientific knowledge of English as it appears in the works of Prof. Skeat and Dr. Murray. This particular kind of work is all his own. In 1873 he published 'Standard English,' a sketch of the sources of English, traced in the same method which he uses here, but through fewer books. That must have cost him several years of labor. He has now spent a dozen more years in enlarging it. In 1878 'Old and Middle English' appeared, and now we have the completion in 'New English.' Such a work must be incomplete, from the nature of the case. One man cannot read everything. Dr. Murray's readers have gone over thousands of volumes to Mr. Oliphant's hundreds. But, such as it is, all students of English will be glad to get it and must have it; for none of them will venture to decide questions of English etymology or historical grammar without consulting him.

Mr. Oliphant has a lively liking for pure English, and plenty of sharp thrusts for modern debasers of it. The Johnsonese of the press hurts him worst. He is most courteous to American scholars, and bountiful in praise of them; but he cannot see how they can write *honor*, etc., instead of the old *honour*. It pares down history, robs us of all our Norman glories. The old word "should abide with us in the shape it has always hitherto worn." This looks as if Mr. Oliphant had not noticed that of all the old words of this sort, *honor* most frequently appears in the old books with *-or*. Picking a place in Shakspere by the concordance where the word occurs frequently, "Coriolanus," ii, and turning to the First Folio, we find *honor* fifteen times, and no *honour*. Another trial, "Measure for Measure," ii, 1, gives *honor* nine times and *honour* eight, most of them being the address *Your Honour*, with one *honorable*. Looking to the analogy of the language, as our verb *honor* and the noun *honor* have the accent on the same syllable, they are naturally spelled alike, and like French *hon'orer'*, rather than *honneur'*.

The Practical Horse Keeper. By George Fleming, LL.D., F.R.C.V.S. Cassell & Co.

Mr. FLEMING says in his preface: "This little work is intended as a guide to those who have to do with horses, either as owners, purchasers, breeders, trainers, managers, or attendants, and whose experience has not been so extensive as those on whose knowledge it is based." As such and for Great Britain it is a desirable manual. Its value for this country is largely diminished by reason of the different uses to which horses are put here, necessitating, for general purposes, especially those outside of hauling heavy loads, animals of quite other types than any in common use in England. For instance, "the hunter" and "the hack," probably the best-known and commonest types of English horses, would not be recognized by these names in this country except in the localities where English manners, customs, and nomenclature are most affected, and really do not exist as a class. The "tradesman's horse," a variety treated of by Mr. Fleming, would also be a hard animal to find here, perhaps because there are either so few or so many "tradesmen." Again, the horse which in this country takes the place of the English hack, and we may almost say, hunter also, is the light driving horse for road or general utility purposes; and he, from his different conditions of use and treatment, is broken, bitted, harnessed, driven, and cared for in a manner radically different from any taught in Mr. Fleming's or any other English book, and infinitely better for the end desired.

Consequently, the parts of Mr. Fleming's work devoted to the hack, the hunter, "purchasing at fairs," breaking, training, and feeding, while undoubtedly excellent for the British Isles, are of but limited utility elsewhere, and much inferior for home application to several American treatises on the same subject. The latter portion of Mr. Fleming's book, however, has no such limitations of usefulness. It treats concisely and admirably of the common infirmities of horseflesh, and gives plain and sensible instructions for their relief. The chapter on "Nursing" is especially to be commended, and Mr. Fleming says, what can be proved by every humane man who has had horses in his charge, that "when a horse is sick, or ill from injury, recovery is much accelerated by careful and sympathetic nursing. However indifferent a horse may be to caressing or kind attention during health, when ill he certainly appreciates them," etc.

The Fall of Maximilian's Empire, as seen from a United States Gunboat. By Seaton Schroeder, Lieutenant, U. S. N. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1887. Pp. 130.

LIEUT. SCHROEDER has written very pleasantly and intelligently, and withal modestly, of the doings of the United States steamer *Tacony* in Vera Cruz harbor during the spring and summer of 1867. His narrative is but lightly and incidentally connected with the important movements going on in the interior, and he makes no pretence of being able to see as far as Queretaro from the sea-board. It should be said, however, that nearly all his allusions to the course and causes of events in those closing struggles show a good acquaintance with the facts. The Orizaba conference, leading to Maximilian's fatal decision to return, is rather unsatisfactorily sketched, and the amount of revenue promised the Emperor considerably exaggerated. We are not pleased with the author's spelling of the name of Mexico's great hero-traitor. It is true, we believe, that Santa Ana was the original form, but it has been entirely superseded by the common orthography in the writings of Mexicans themselves, and to return to it now seems almost affectation. The tombstone in the Gaudalupe "pantheon" has the two *n*'s. If any variation from the ordinary English spelling of Mexican names had to be attempted, we think a juster change might have been made in the case of Uloa, Ulua being decidedly preferable. The "Bird's-eye View of Vera Cruz" (p. 93) is correct for 1867, but not for 1887; the walls of the city having been demolished long since.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, Sarah Flower. Arise, My Soul, Arise. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.
Burty, P. Bernard Palissy. Paris: J. Rouam.
Carroll, L. The Game of Logic. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Champfleury. La Tour. Paris: J. Rouam.
Cournault, C. Jean Lamour. Paris: J. Rouam.
Creighton, Prof. M. A History of the Papacy during the Period of the Reformation. Vols. iii. and iv. The Italian Princes. 1464–1518. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $7.50.
De Rougement, A. La France. Notes d'un Américain. New ed. The Writer's Publishing Co.
Du Boisgobey, F. Cecile's Fortune. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. 25 cents.
Du Boisgobey, F. The Detective's Eye. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. 25 cents.
Du Boisgobey, F. The Steel Necklace. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. 25 cents.
Gillespie, Prof. W. M. A Treatise on Surveying. Theory and Practice. Revised and enlarged by Cady Staley, Ph.D. D. Appleton & Co.
Gladness of Easter. From the Poets. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.
Gruyer, G. Fra Bartolommeo della Porta et Mariotto Albertinelli. Paris: J. Rouam.
Hall-Stevens. A Text-Book of Euclid's Elements for the Use of Schools. Part i Books i. and ii. Macmillan & Co. 50 cents.
Head, B. V. Historia Numorum: A Manual of Greek Numismatics. Macmillan & Co. $10.50.
Higginson, T. W. Hints on Writing and Speech-Making. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.
Hill, F. H. George Canning. [English Worthies Series.] London: Longmans, Green & Co.
Jerome, Irene E. The Message the Bluebird Told to Me to Tell to Others. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.
Kingsley, C. See the Land her Easter Keeping. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.
Lemaitre, J. Les Contemporains. 3e série. Paris: H. Lecène et H. Oudin.
Millet, F. Alfred Lebrun's Catalogue of his Etchings, Heliographs, Lithographs, and Woodcuts. Frederick Keppel & Co.
Von Holst, Dr. H. The Constitutional Law of the United States of America. Authorized edition. Translated by Alfred Bishop Mason. Chicago: Callaghan & Co.
Weld, Martha Coles. Illustrated Tableaux for Amateurs. Ill. Harold Roorbach.
Werner, E. A. Civil List and Constitutional History of the Colony and State of New York. Albany: Weed, Parsons & Co.
Whately, Archbishop. English Synonyms Discriminated. New ed. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.
Whedon, Rev. D. D. Essays, Reviews, and Discourses. With a Biographical Sketch. Phillips & Hunt. 2 vols. $2.50.
Wilkins, W. J. Modern Hinduism; being an Account of the Religion and Life of the Hindus in Northern India. Scribner, Welford & Co.
Wilson, E. Quiet Observations on the Ways of the World. Illustrated. Cassell & Co. $2.
Winsor, J. Narrative and Critical History of America. Vol. iv. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Winter, J. S. Mignon's Secret, and Wanted—a Wife. Harper's Handy Series. 25 cents.
Winter, J. S. Regimental Legends. Harper's Handy Series. 25 cents.
Woodhouse, R. I. What is the Church? D. Appleton & Co. 40 cents.
Yonge, Charlotte M. The Victorian Half Century. A Jubilee Book. Macmillan & Co. 35 cents.

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 239

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS 242

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:
Democratic Preparations 244
The Readjuster Incident 244
Emigration from Germany 245

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:
Why has Interest in Politics Declined in England?. 245
Scherer's Grimm 247

CORRESPONDENCE:
Sectional Paralysis of Congress 248
Jefferson Davis and Repudiation 248
Woman Suffrage in Massachusetts 249
Divorce Statistics 249
Conventual Pastimes 249
John Cotton Again 249
The Chicago Death-Rate 249
A Careless Author 250
The Transformation of Surnames 250

NOTES 250

REVIEWS:
Maudsley on the Supernatural 253
The Story of Kaspar Hauser 254
History of the Town of Easton 255
Tenth Census of the United States 256
Dorothy Wordsworth 256
Representative English Prose and Prose Writers 257
Tables for the Determination of Common Minerals .. 257

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 257

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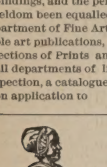

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 24, 1887.

The Week.

THE President's selections for the Inter-State Commerce Commission have been marked by extraordinary diligence. The law excludes from the Commission all persons "in the employ of or holding any official relation to any common carrier subject to the provision of this act, or owning stock or bonds thereof, or who are in any way pecuniarily interested therein." This provision not only excludes every "railroad man," properly so called, in the country, but it necessarily excludes all men who have succeeded in life sufficiently to hold railroad investments, as they would, therefore, have to qualify for the office by more or less derangement of their private affairs, even if they were willing to undertake duties so onerous for a salary of $7,500. The Commission is, in fact, wholly composed of lawyers, but, with the possible exception of Mr. Morrison and Judge Schoonmaker, they are very familiar with railroad management as well as railroad law. Judge Cooley, who goes in for the long term of six years, has been engaged in a great deal of railroad litigation, and is at the present moment receiver of the Wabash system of railroads. Mr. Walker of Vermont has had a very large railroad practice, and enjoys the distinction of having done his best to free Vermont from the domination of a very corrupt railroad ring. Mr. Bragg has been President of the Alabama State Railroad Commission. It is characteristic of President Cleveland's painstaking ways, in the discharge of duties of this sort, that he did not appoint him until he had previously examined the records of this commission so as to satisfy himself as to the justice or injustice of charges which had been made against its manner of doing duty Of Judge Schoonmaker, the member from this State, it may be said that he has every qualification except actual experience of railroad management. As to character and ability, no member of the New York bar stands higher, and he has shown his warm adhesion to all progressive tendencies in public administration by faithful and self-sacrificing service during the past four years as a member of the State Civil Service Commission. Mr. Morrison is best known through his career in Congress and his ineffectual but persistent efforts to effect a revision of the tariff.

What is most remarkable about the Commission is, however, not so much the quality of the members, high as this is, as the evident indifference to political considerations with which they have been chosen. The President was bound by the law to divide them between the two political parties. The act provides that not more than three shall belong to the same political party. But it is hardly necessary to say that had the President consulted party managers in making the appointments, or sought to make what they would consider party "capital" out of the composition of the Board, not one of the gentlemen he has chosen would have found a place on it We doubt whether any one who knows anything of politics will question this statement, and, if accurate, President Cleveland has done a new thing in American administration, and one of which the effects will be permanent as well as important. We believe every member of the Commission has been selected without the aid of the "pulls" which have long formed so important a feature in our political machinery.

The St. Louis *Globe-Democrat* publishes a very notable editorial article regarding the next Presidential campaign, apropos of the recent interview with Senator Edmunds. The *Globe-Democrat* agrees with Mr. Edmunds in the opinion that the Democrats will renominate Mr. Cleveland. It holds that the few Democratic newspapers, like the New York *World* and Louisville *Courier-Journal*, which favor some other candidate, "voice the views of a mere handful of malcontents, whose wishes would not have the slightest influence in directing the party choice, and whose opposition would not be a feather-weight in a canvass against the party candidate." It warns the foolish Republicans "who may find a mild variety of amusement in conjuring up in their minds such opposition to the President in his own party as could defeat him for renomination," that they are the victims of a delusion, and says that "wise Republicans will realize now that Cleveland will be the standard-bearer of the Democratic party a year hence, and be governed accordingly." The question for Republicans, therefore, is whether they can defeat Cleveland in 1888, and this is the *Globe-Democrat's* answer: "We believe they can. *But they certainly cannot do so if they again confront him with the candidate which they put in the field in 1884.*" Such a confession would be significant in any Republican paper, but it derives added force in this case from the two facts that Mr. Blaine's friends pronounce him peculiarly strong in the West, and that the St. Louis *Globe-Democrat* is perhaps the best representative of Western Republicanism.

A Republican Club has recently been started in the westernmost county of Massachusetts, and the incident derives its importance from the fact that it is hoped to make this club a model for many others throughout the State, and that it is the beginning of a movement which appears to engage the chief energies of the party managers. The basis of this movement is the theory that the only thing needed to restore the Republican party in Massachusetts to its ancient preëminence is "organization." The constitution of the Berkshire Club pledges loyalty in national, State, and county contests to the principles of the National Republican party, "as declared by the national platforms, and established by the illustrious history of that party from 1860 to 1886," while it declares for "independence of all parties, rings, and political machines in municipal, town, and school elections." The most obvious comment upon this is the absurdity of making so broad a distinction between county and municipal, town, or school elections. The management of county affairs has no more to do with "the principles of the National Republican party" or of the National Democratic party than the management of town or city affairs, and "county rings" have often set up political machines of the worst type. It is therefore ridiculous to give members of the Club "the unquestioned right to vote in accordance with their individual preferences" in municipal, town, and school elections, but to insist upon their support of regular Republican nominations in national, State, *and county* contests, unless a majority of all the members fail to endorse these nominations. To say that a Republican shall have "the unquestioned right" to vote for a Democrat as Selectman or School Committeeman of his town if he thinks the Democrat the best candidate, but that he must forfeit his membership of the Club for a year if he supports a Democrat whom he thinks the best candidate for County Commissioner, is so ridiculous that it seems odd that anybody should have the assurance to formulate such a rule.

The first colored State fair in Florida, which was held at Jacksonville last week, furnished striking evidence both of the rapid progress which the race is making and of the growth in harmonious relations between the whites and blacks. The range of exhibits was very extensive, and the patronage included hundreds of white spectators every day. Better than the signs of progress in agriculture and the mechanical arts was the evidence furnished of progress in education and the finer arts. Mr. Albert J. Russell, Superintendent of Public Instruction in Florida for some years past, delivered the opening address, and congratulated his hearers upon the fact that the colored people had just reported the raising of funds which assured the establishment of an industrial school for the training of their boys and girls in a knowledge of tools and the trades. It will thus be seen that the negroes are not only improving to the full the educational advantages offered by the public schools, but are becoming so prosperous that they can establish an industrial school of their own. This is only one of many signs of progress in Florida, which is fast developing a common-school system worthy to rank with that of any Northern State. A letter from Mr. Russell announces that his forthcoming report for last year will show an increase in the number of schools from 1,504 in 1884 to 1,724 in 1885, and 1,832 in 1886, with a corresponding increase in the enrolment and average attendance. "Best of all," he concludes, with that self-reliant spirit which is now so rapidly growing in the South, "the people of Florida are doing it all themselves, without any aid from any outside source."

The discovery that Mr. Bayles, the new President of the Board of Health, at one time belonged to the Knights of Labor, is not a very important one. We have heard of many sensible and intelligent men and women, not manual laborers properly so called, either joining the order or watching it with sympathetic eyes a year or two ago. They thought it was, as its Constitution and by-laws seemed to indicate, a social-science association, or an association for mutual improvement, and for the promotion of reformatory legislation. Nobody then dreamed that it was to be the promoter of such insane and childish performances as the sympathetic strikes; or that its chiefs were to declare strikes to be "war," and to justify the use of the bludgeon, the pistol, and the torch, not only against employers, but against poor men who refused to join the order and sought to manage their own lives in their own way; or were to try, almost without disguise, to substitute the despotic rule of the Order for the National Government, and to blackguard and threaten the officers of the law for seeking to restrain or punish their disorders. Neither Mr. Bayles nor any other good citizen ever knowingly joined an organization of this sort, or remained in it after it had shown itself simply an elongation and amplification of the Molly Maguires of Pennsylvania. Nothing more discreditable, too, has ever issued from the pen of a Christian minister than Cardinal Gibbons's sophistical and disingenuous description of the Order addressed to the Holy See. There is hardly a paragraph in his account of the Knights which does not contain either a suppression of the truth or a suggestion of falsehood.

Mr. Bayles recently published a pamphlet entitled 'The Shop Council,' which is, on the whole, we think, so far as our observation goes, the most rational, and practical, and persuasive of all the suggestions for averting strikes which the recent labor troubles have called forth. It shows clearly enough that he never could have been a Knight of Labor in good standing with Powderly or Quinn. He proposes the establishment in each shop or factory of a council, composed both of the employers and employed, to form a permanent tribunal for the discussion, though not for the absolute settlement, of all grievances and complaints, in the belief, which is undoubtedly well founded, that nine out of ten labor disputes are the result of misunderstanding or of imperfect knowledge of the facts on one side or other. Mere trifles become the cause of great disturbance, loss, and suffering, by the habit on the part of workingmen of running with them to the paid officers of the trades-unions, who not only have no direct interest in settling the quarrel amicably, but actually have a direct interest in magnifying it, both for the purpose of showing their power and of justifying their salaries.

The extraordinary act which the President inadvertently approved, providing for the exclusion from the United States of aliens under contract to perform labor, was the product of Mr. O'Neill's Labor Committee, and is now said to be embarrassing the Treasury Department a good deal. It is an addendum to the act of February 26, 1885, which forbade the importation of aliens under labor contracts, except personal and domestic servants, professional actors, artists, lecturers, and singers, or workmen to be employed in any new industry not already established in the United States. That act imposed heavy penalties for its violation on the employer making such a contract, or the master of the vessel "knowingly" bringing the aliens over; but the prosecution was left to the United States District Attorney. The last act goes further, and charges the Treasury with the duty of seeing to the execution of the law, by sending agents on board incoming passenger vessels to overhaul the passengers, and see whether any of them come under its provisions, and, when any such are found, to send them back at the expense of the owners of the vessel. If the owners refuse to pay, the ship is to be excluded from the ports of the United States, and the expenses are to constitute a lien on the ship. Of course, if such agents or commissioners are to accomplish anything, they must be armed with inquisitorial powers of an extraordinary nature, and capable of monstrous abuse. They would have it in their power arbitrarily and on their own dictum to exclude anybody they pleased from the country, and to inflict ruinous fines on any ship-owner they might select for persecution. The Treasury, it is said, hardly knows how to make regulations for the execution of such a law.

It is not to be denied that the practice, in which some corporations have been indulging during the past few years, of importing large bodies of the lowest class of European laborers, Hungarians, Poles, and Italians, only partially civilized, and ignorant not only of the laws but of the language of the country, and with very low standards of living, is one which needed some restraint. The serious troubles, both industrial and political, which these importations have been causing during the past year, have made a deep impression on the public mind. A measure, therefore, directed against importations *en masse* of unskilled and ignorant labor, and fortified with some tests of character or education, would, we think, meet with general approval. But such a measure would of course have to be carefully drawn, and to contain ample provision against abuse and against arbitrary interference with legitimate intercourse or trade. The present bills contain nothing of the kind. They simply strike blindly at any man, no matter his quality, who makes a contract in Europe to come here to "perform labor," and contains not one word looking to the exclusion of the "foreign devils," to use the Chinese phrase, who come here not to labor, but to "raise hell," by throwing bombs, or by getting up murder associations, or opening rumholes, or publishing anarchical newspapers. As the law now stands, Most, or Braunschweiger, or Owney Geoghegan, or Tom Gould could enter the United States without any difficulty whatever, while the most respectable and industrious German cabinet-maker, or Irish mason, or bricklayer, or farmer, who had secured his future or that of his family by an agreement with an employer before starting, would run the risk of being sent back in the ship by which he had arrived.

Emigration from the United Kingdom is still on the increase, 236,104 persons having sailed from the various ports in 1886 against only 210,848 in 1885. About 60 per cent. of the whole number were Englishmen, and about 10 per cent. more were Scotch, so that the 61,411 Irish composed only about 30 per cent. of the whole number, whereas thirty or forty years ago Ireland contributed from 60 to 70 per cent. of all. The change in proportion is not due so much to the fact that Irishmen emigrate less than they did, as to the fact that Englishmen emigrate much more. The United States continue to attract about two-thirds of the whole number, despite all the efforts of the Canadian authorities; and Australia and New Zealand come next, almost as large a number seeking homes in the latter colonies in 1886 as in the years of the gold discoveries. Statistics covering a long period show that the emigration from each part of the United Kingdom has certain persistent features. Thus the Irish woman is as ready to quit her country as her father or brother, while there are two men for one woman among English and Scotch emigrants. On the other hand, the English or Scotch emigrant more often goes to his new home with his children than the Irishman, only about 11 per cent. of all Irish emigrants being children, against about 18 per cent. among the English, and more than 20 per cent. among the Scotch. The back-flowing stream of immigration into Great Britain is much larger than is generally supposed, from 80,000 to 90,000 persons annually going from the United States to England, many of whom, doubtless, are people who found that they were unfitted for life in a new country.

The last report of the Registrar-General in England furnishes fresh evidence of the steady progress which is making in the prolongation of human life, especially through the influence of the sanitary measures adopted during the last thirty years. The death-rate for 1886 was 19.3 per thousand of the population, which was lower than that recorded in any previous year since the registration system was started in 1837, with the two exceptions of 19 in 1885 and 18.9 in 1881. The mean annual death-rate for the six years since 1880 did not exceed 19.3, which was 2.1 below the mean rate between 1870 and 1880. This means that 339,000 persons in England and Wales were alive at the end of those six years who would have been dead if the rate of mortality which prevailed between 1870 and 1880 had been maintained. The reduction is largely accounted for by the falling-off in the deaths from the principal zymotic or "filth diseases," which have sunk from an annual rate of 4.15 per thousand between 1860 and 1870, to 3.40 between 1870 and 1880, and only 2.43 since 1880. The proportion of infant mortality has also been perceptibly diminished, falling from an average of 149 per 1,000 births during the ten years preceding 1880 to 141 in the six years since then. The birth-rate itself last year was only 32.4, which is lower than in any previous year since 1848, and the natural increase of population by the excess of births over deaths accordingly shows a decline from 375,922 in 1884 and 371,520 in 1885 to 366,138 in 1886.

The latest attempt to solve the labor problem is that of Mr. W. H. Mallock, who has begun some articles on it in the *Fortnightly Review*. The first one states the problem, which is, how to satisfy people who have embraced the doctrine of Karl Marx, viz., that all value is given by labor, and that, therefore, laborers are entitled to everything into the production of which labor enters, including the instruments of labor, land, machinery, and mines. In other words, they demand that everything called property should be taken possession of by the Government, and managed for the common benefit. Mr. Mallock is to give the answer to this question in the next number of the magazine, and it will probably be interesting as a bit of speculation in sociology by a lively writer, but we have no expectation that he will throw new light on the subject. There is no way of refuting a man who maintains that every commodity derives all its value from labor, although he sees every day much labor expended on things which have no value. It is desire for things which gives them value. Everybody has more or less experience of this, and a man on whom this experience makes no impression is not likely to be influenced by argument. The part which successful capitalists and investors play in modern society is that of distinguishing the things to which labor will give value from the things to which it will not give value. The men who are skilful in this make fortunes. The men who are not, go into bankruptcy, or remain laborers. If the former were more numerous, there would be fewer unsuccessful enterprises, and less wasted labor, and the whole human race would be far better off. As a matter of fact they are lamentably scarce. The history of industry is in large part the history of mistakes in the selection of things on which to expend labor.

To the question how we are going to satisfy the Socialists, either of the Karl Marx or any other school, the answer must always be that we cannot satisfy them. There is not much use in arguing with them, because they are generally poor and unsuccessful men, who have a powerful personal bias in favor of the theory that they have been in some manner cheated or robbed by the successful. The only sure way to enlighten them would be to try the experiment of turning some nation into a joint-stock company, and handing over all the property of individuals to be managed by boards of politicians for the common benefit. But no nation will ever be willing to try an experiment so costly in order to convince anybody that his theories are false. It would involve ruin if it failed, and, in fact, the mere attempt to try it would be productive of as much convulsion as a civil war. What, then, is the modern world going to do about Socialism? Simply bear with it as patiently as it can; bear with it as we bear with unpreventable disease in men, animals, and plants. We must argue with Socialists where argument seems likely to be effective, and resist them where argument is of no use, and go on as well as we can making the world a more and more comfortable place for good men to live in, and a more and more uncomfortable place for cranks and criminals to cut capers in. To the patient, industrious, law-abiding, just, and self-reliant, society owes every help which science or art or statesmanship can suggest. To the unreasonable and obstreperous it owes nothing but such restraint as may be necessary to keep them from harming themselves or their neighbors.

The "Incorporated Society of Authors" has begun a series of conferences in London, at which are to be debated practical questions affecting the interests of writers, the subject of the recent first conference being the rather wide topic of "The Maintenance of Literary Property," on which a paper was read by Mr. Walter Besant. On this occasion the chair was taken by Lord Lytton, who said that the results which might be produced by such a society could scarcely be overestimated. He did not think that the profession of literature at the present day could be regarded on the whole as unprosperous or unremunerative, yet the individual provider of literature found himself in a very disadvantageous position as regards the distributor, compared to any other producer and distributor. The farmer, the manufacturer, knew the commercial value of the article he produced, and knew the conditions of the market in which it was sold. The author had none of those advantages. Mr. Besant's main contention was that the relations between author and publisher are at the present moment most unsatisfactory. They have always been strained; the increase and development of the literary trade only make this strain felt more keenly; there is no workman so discontented with his pay as the author; there is no one so jealous and suspicious of his treatment; there is no kind of work which has caused so much disappointment as literary work. The Society of Authors was founded partly in the hope of finding some remedy for this state of things. The question put before them for the first time now was, "What proportion of the results from the sale of a book should be retained by the publisher in equity in payment of his services for producing a book in the publishing of which there is no risk?" There were now a great number of writers about whose books there was no risk. It must be remembered that as administrators, or distributors and collectors, as agents, in short, the publishers have a perfect right to payment for their services. Many disagreements between author and publisher would never occur if this very simple rule were borne in mind. Men do not work for each other without payment. Much less do they pay heavy rents, keep travellers, clerks, and accountants simply in order to do good to each other. Mr. Besant discussed the various systems employed in publishing, such as that of half-profits, royalties, and commission. His cure for the faults of the half-profits system was "no more secret profits, and the auditing of all accounts." The improvement of the royalty plan which he desired was apparently to treble the amount of royalty, which has the merit of being simple.

Of course, much was said about copyright. Lord Lytton said that the Society hoped to work with the publishing and book-selling trade in securing an international copyright all the world over. At present their chief difficulty lay with the United States, where piracy was so profitable. With the increase, however, of a literature of their own, the American publishers would find the piracy not so profitable, and there was every reason to hope that authors would soon secure their rights in their own property on both sides of the Atlantic. Mr. Bryce, M. P., said that they had already obtained protection throughout all English-speaking nations, except the United States of America; and Mr. Besant concluded his paper with a description of a dream in which he imagined the more than 400,000,000 English-speaking people having one common copyright law. This, he said, was the aim of the English Society of Authors. At the next two conferences Mr. Edmund Gosse will speak on "The Profession of Author," and Mr. John Hollingshead on "Dramatic Rights and Property." All these questions are of living interest in this country, and it might be useful to have an American organization to act in concert with the London Society for mutual benefit in all matters of common interest. Perhaps for dealing with the question of copyright nothing further is required than what we have already; but as to other matters something may be done, if our authors are not in a happier state than their English brethren. The Authors' Club might hesitate, perhaps wisely, to concern itself as a club with matters of business, but it could fitly afford a *nidus* for a society such as we suggest.

One of the oddest scandals which have occurred in politics for a long time, is the charge brought against the Corporation of the City of London of having spent a large sum from the municipal funds, something like $250,000, in getting up bogus meetings to protest against the bill introduced by Sir William Harcourt to reform the municipal government. At these meetings everybody, including the audiences, was hired. Indeed, the "hire of the audience" was set down as an item in the accounts. Of course these hired audiences were small. One, composed of "indignant London Irishmen," consisted of only five persons, and was held in a tavern. In some cases the hired men were sent to capture Liberal meetings, and if necessary "storm" their platforms. Among them on all occasions a small party of men is set down as "chuckers-out," who performed the functions assigned in this country to "bouncers," and were doubtless men of similar build and character. If it be asked how these bogus meetings were made to serve any purpose in the agitation, the answer is, we regret to say, that reporters who had access to the leading metropolitan journals were found ready to desecrate their calling by getting accounts of them published as "imposing demonstrations," or "crowded and enthusiastic meetings," at which the applause was described as frantic. The charges have been brought up in the House of Commons by Mr. Labouchere, and he offers to prove them to the letter, having the accounts and other documents in his possession.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, March 16, to TUESDAY, March 22, 1887, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND has appointed on the Commission created by the Inter-State Commerce Law: Thomas M. Cooley of Michigan, for the term of six years; William R. Morrison of Illinois, for the term of five years; Augustus Schoonmaker of New York, for the term of four years; Aldace F. Walker of Vermont, for the term of three years; Walter L. Bragg of Alabama, for the term of two years.

The President spent his fiftieth birthday, March 10, quietly at the White House. Speaker Carlisle and most of the Senators and members of Congress in Washington called and offered their congratulations.

Mr. C. H. J. Taylor, a colored man, has been appointed by the President to be Minister to Liberia, to fill the vacancy caused by the death of the late Mr. Hopkins.

A general order has been issued by the War Department to discontinue the firing of a morning and evening gun at military posts, except at the United States Military Academy, Fort Monroe, Virginia, and Fort Leavenworth, Kansas, because the supply of powder remaining at the close of the war of the Rebellion, which has been used for this purpose, has been exhausted.

Application has been made to the Treasury Department for the free entry at San Francisco of a joss for a joss house in that city. It is 150 feet long and is made of wood, paper, tinsel, and metal. The Department has decided that it is not entitled to free entry, as "philosophical and scientific apparatus, statuary, paintings, drawings," etc., or as "regalia and gems, statues, and specimens of sculpture, where specially imported in good faith for the use of any society incorporated or established for religious purposes."

The captain of a Gloucester, Mass., schooner, which was seized last summer by the Collector at Port Hawkesbury, C. B., for alleged violation of the customs laws, and held until a fine of $400 was paid, has received word from the Dominion Government that the fine will be remitted.

The Trade Convention between Cuba and Porto Rico on the one hand, and the United States on the other, which was to have terminated in April, has been prolonged to November, in order to give time for the negotiation of a treaty.

The General Assembly of Virginia met on March 16 in extra session. Its especial duty is to settle the vexed question of the State's debt. Gov. Lee recommended the appointment of a commission on the part of the State to meet a similar commission on the part of the bondholders, to make a true presentation of the revenues and resources of the State, and to determine how much the State can pay.

The Democratic Congressional Convention to nominate a successor to Congressman Reagan of Texas, who has been elected Senator, on the 272d ballot chose William H. Martin.

The Republican State Convention of Rhode Island on the 18th nominated all the incumbents of the State offices for the party candidates, namely: For Governor, George Peabody Wetmore; Lieutenant-Governor, Lucius C. Darling; Secretary of State, Joshua M. Addeman; Attorney-General, Edwin Metcalf; General Treasurer, Samuel Clark; State Auditor, Samuel H. Cross.

The bill fixing the annual salary of the Governor of Ohio at $8,000 instead of $4,000, as now, has become a law, to take effect after the next election.

A high-license bill in the New Jersey Legislature was so amended as to reduce the fees to a low-license system. The purpose of the measure has thus been defeated. The movement for submitting a prohibitory amendment in Nebraska has been defeated in the lower branch of the Legislature, receiving only a small majority where two-thirds were necessary.

The Legislature of Maine has abolished capital punishment after an experiment with it of several years. The condemned are to be kept in close and solitary confinement, and no pardoning power is left to the Governor and Council, unless the convict is afterwards proved innocent.

The Richmond Hotel at Buffalo was burned on March 18. The fire was discovered at 3:30 o'clock in the morning, and the house was filled with people. Ten persons were killed—burned to death, or so severely injured that they died within a few days; four others are missing, who are supposed to have perished, and as many as twenty-five received more or less severe injuries. Two days before this fire the Miller & Greiner block of buildings was burned, and there have within a week been three smaller fires in Buffalo. The total losses are little less than $1,000,000. In East Buffalo, on the 20th, a small hotel was burned, from which several persons escaped just in time to save themselves. A fire at the Chautauqua (N. Y.) Assembly grounds, on March 21, destroyed more than fifty buildings, including several boarding-houses and several of the handsomest cottages. The total loss exceeds $100,000. The fire was caused by a defective flue. On the same night the Grand Central Theatre, at Troy, N. Y., and the Warsaw (N. Y.) Salt Company's Works were burned.

The succession of fatal fires in hotels has caused a bill to be prepared, which will be introduced in the New York Legislature, to require every hotel to have a rope in every room above the ground floor, so fastened as to hold a weight of 400 pounds, and coiled in plain sight by a window, so that any person will be sure to see it.

The important addition is to be made this year to the summer instruction offered by Harvard College of a course in physical training for teachers of both sexes. It will consist of lectures, examinations, and exercises, and the various opportunities offered by the University will be opened to the students under the direction of Dr. Sargent.

Mr. Robert Garrett of Baltimore, an alumnus of Princeton College, has given $8,000 towards the new art school of Princeton. This will permit the work on the building to begin. Mr. Robert Garrett's brother, Mr. T. Harrison Garrett, gave $7,000 towards the same purpose last spring.

Subscriptions have been opened in Brooklyn towards the erection of a monument to Henry Ward Beecher, and for the building of a free public library to his memory.

A mass meeting was held at the Cooper Union March 21, called by the Municipal Council of the Irish National League, to protest against proposed coercion for Ireland by the English Government.

Walter E. Lawton, a dealer in fertilizers, has disappeared from New York, and left obligations to the amount of nearly $1,000,000.

The snow blockade on the Canadian Pacific Railroad has been raised, and the line is open to the Pacific Coast.

A flood in the upper Missouri River on March 18 washed away a part of the high trestle of the Northern Pacific Railroad at Mandan, Dak. The bridge and the telegraph poles were swept away, and for a number of days the town was cut off from communication in any way with Bismarck, which is on the east side of the river. At one point, where the river is usually three quarters of a mile wide, it became more than six miles wide. The ice from a broken gorge struck the railroad warehouse at Bismarck, which is one of the largest in the world, and drove it against the bluffs. A meadow of 6,000 acres was inundated, and ice was driven over it by the current at the speed of ten miles an hour. The water rose a foot higher than the highest previous water-mark. Traffic has been delayed on the Northern Pacific since March 17. It is expected that passengers and mail will be transferred by boats on March 24. Conflicting reports have been made of the loss of life by the washing away of houses near the river bank.

An earthquake shock was felt at Summerville, S. C., on March 18, which was more severe than any since last summer.

FOREIGN.

The celebration of Emperor William's ninetieth birthday (March 22) was extended over two days. On the afternoon of the 21st he gave a special audience to foreign envoys. Every European court had sent a royal representative. Afterwards there was a state dinner to the royal guests. In the evening more than 3,000 students, bearing flags, banners, and torches, formed in procession and marched to the palace. The Emperor and Empress appeared at a window and bowed. The students called for cheers for the Emperor, "for the victorious commander in glorious battles, for the beloved father of his country, for the author of the union of the German races, for the defender of the frontiers of the empire, for the guardian of the peace of the world." The procession cheered loudly at Prince Bismarck's palace, and paid a similar compliment to Gen. von Moltke. While the procession was passing the palace the multitude bared their heads, and the cheers became wilder and wilder until the Emperor, overcome with emotion, was compelled to withdraw. The procession passed through the town to an open space, where the torches were thrown into heaps, and the students sang patriotic songs. In the rear of the procession was a long row of carriages containing deputations from German and foreign universities. Most of the schools celebrated the event a day in advance. Children in most of them received portraits and short biographies of the Emperor in memory of the occasion. On the morning of the 22d the Emperor received the congratulations of his household, and at eleven o'clock appeared at the window dressed in parade uniform, standing firm and erect, and repeatedly waved vigorous salutes to the crowd. He came to the window often during the day. The greatest outburst of enthusiasm occurred when, after the arrival of Prince Bismarck and Gen. von Moltke, all three appeared, the Emperor in the centre, with Bismarck on his right and Von Moltke on his left. The royal visitors offered their congratulations during the day, and in the afternoon the Emperor and Empress dined at the palace of the Crown Prince. In the evening they attended a soirée in the castle. During the interval between the parts of the entertainment the Emperor walked about and exchanged greetings with his guests, shaking hands with the ambassadors and their wives, saying a few words to a number of the diplomats. After the performance the company adjourned to the four supper rooms, the members of royalty occupying one, the diplomats another, and the suites of foreign princes the two remaining. The Emperor retired to rest before midnight. At all the European capitals the German Ministers held receptions.

Prince Bismarck has assured the Crown Prince Rudolph of Austria-Hungary, who represented his father at the Emperor's birthday celebration, that Germany's foreign policy is pacific, that peace is assured for 1887, and that there is no cause for disquietude in either the East or West. The comment of the Berlin *National Gazette* is: "The signs of peace that are coming from all sides testify that the occasion is treated in the most splendid and un-

equivocal manner as a European peace festival. The imposing assembly of princes which has gathered around the Emperor represents the common desire of Europe to maintain the existing state of things. The alliance between Austria, Italy, and Germany, finally concluded only within the last few days, constitutes one of the firmest supports of the tranquillity and security of Europe."

The German Reichstag on March 21 passed the second reading of the Army Budget Bill, agreeing by a large majority to vote the grant which was several times rejected by the former Reichstag for the construction of military schools for non-commissioned officers.

Experiments with an explosive invented by Lieut. Graydon, late of the United States Navy, have been made at the Fortress of Spandau, near Berlin, under the supervision of German officers—it is reported, with success.

The new alliance between Germany, Austria, and Italy places each of these Powers on an equality. All three will undertake the protection of the interests of each of them. Annoyance has been expressed in Paris that the treaty was signed while the attention of France was fixed upon Germany. A former foreign minister of France is reported to have said: "I would have shrunk from nothing to prevent the signing of this treaty, which I consider the most serious and vexatious event for us that has happened in the past sixteen years." But the treaty is regarded as a guarantee of the peace of Europe for some time to come, unless Russia makes the breach.

More arrests have been made of persons suspected of complicity in the recent plot to kill the Czar. An institute at St. Petersburg for the higher education of women has been closed, and the Rector of the University threatens to stop his lectures. It is reported that the Czar has received a letter from the Executive Nihilist Committee, informing him that at a sitting of the Committee on February 22 he was condemned to death. In an "official declaration," made at St. Petersburg, it is said: "The Czar's advisers are convinced that the influential classes in Russia do not consider that the time has yet arrived for the introduction of a constitutional government. Nor do the Panslavist party desire constitutionalism. State socialism, recently promoted in Germany by Prince Bismarck, is being carefully studied by the Russian Government, the Czar being well disposed in favor of such progressive economic changes in the territories under Russian sway as shall conduce to the happiness and welfare of the Russian people."

The rumor is reported from Kabul that the Amir is inciting a holy war against Russia, and denouncing the Czar as a tyrant and promise-breaker.

On his return from Berlin to Paris M. de Lesseps maintained the truth of his assertion that Germany and France were natural friends having common interests. He repeated Bismarck's assurance of this in these words: "May we some day exclaim that we should be stupid to kill each other; let us join forces and be masters of the world. We should then be able to work for the progress of civilization."

Sir G. O. Trevelyan, Unionist, in a speech at Liskeard on March 16, expressed the conviction that the leaders who had been separated from the Liberal party by their objections to the Gladstone bills would never return to that party unless their objections were definitely met, but that it was possible to reconcile the differences, and to deal with the Irish question in a manner more thorough than the half-hearted style of the Conservatives.

On the 17th Mr. Gladstone spoke at a dinner given by Yorkshire members of the House of Commons, and said that there was a growing opinion in favor of home rule even among s former opponents. He counselled Lord Salisbury to waken from his sleep if he wished to banish his "nightmare of English politics." He repeated that it was impossible to deal with other questions until the Irish question had been cleared out of the way. The most significant parts of the speech were these: "We are agreed that Ireland asks effective self-government in affairs properly and exclusively Irish, subject to the unquestionable supremacy of the Imperial Parliament. Should she extend her demands beyond this limit, I frankly tell you I could no longer promote her cause; but so long as the demands she utters are just and within the bounds of moderation, I will stand fast to her cause during what remains to me of political life." "I accept Sir George Trevelyan's desire for reunion as proof of the loyalty of his heart towards us, but I so far differ with him that if the Tories are able to settle the question satisfactorily, I wish them with all my heart to do so. The present schism in our party is useful, showing that we, as a political body, are placing national and material questions above party considerations. While there is so much talk about offers and proposals of conferences, let us not conceal from ourselves the fact that this is strictly not a question of individuals, but one of nations, and when nations collide individuals are liable to be uncomfortably squeezed." "I at once tell you this, and make the confession that in our proposal in behalf of the Irish landlords we went to the furthest point in their behalf. I cherish the hope that it will be perfectly possible to devise a plan for the safe purchase of estates in Ireland, whereby the landlord will receive perfect security with respect to the price of his property, without trenching on the imperial credit." "What I earnestly desire is a gradual approximation of not only the Liberal ranks, but of the nation at large."

Before the Parliamentary Committee appointed to investigate the charges against the London Corporation on March 18, Mr. Firth, formerly a member of Parliament, deposed that a special committee had been appointed in 1882 to oppose the Reform Bill, and that £50,000 was expended by the Committee. He said that practically the city accounts had never been audited. Meetings held in support of the Reform Bill were raided by ruffians who had been supplied with thousands of forged tickets of admission by Corporation officials. A man named Hodge made an affidavit that he had been engaged to bribe ruffians to break up reform meetings.

The closure rule was adopted by the House of Commons on March 18, only forty-one voting against it.

The House of Commons was in session all night March 21-22, and did not adjourn till 1:25 o'clock the next afternoon. The Government insisted on disposing of the Naval and Civil Service Bills, but the Home-Rule members, by obstructive tactics, prevented action on either measure as long as possible, because Mr. Balfour, Secretary for Ireland, had given notice of the introduction of a coercive measure. When the House met on the evening of March 22, Mr. William Henry Smith, the Government leader, moved that the bill for the amendment of the criminal law in Ireland have precedence over all orders of the day. This precipitated a long and spirited debate. Mr. Morley denied absolutely Mr. Smith's assertions as to the lawless condition of Ireland, and demanded that the Government give comparative statistics of crime in Ireland, which, he said, would show that beyond a certain very narrow area the country had seldom been quieter. The Government's proposed restrictive legislation would only aggravate such evils as existed, and would weaken and spoil whatever remedies they had in store. His deliberate conviction was that there had never been a more wanton, gratuitous, and unjustifiable resort to the ever-failing, ever-poisonous remedy of coercion. Mr. Smith and Mr. Balfour replied at length. Although neither of them made any explicit statement of the Government's Irish measures, an analysis of their speeches shows that a definite policy has been decided upon and fully elaborated. The programme begins with the Coercion Bill conjoined with a tenants' relief bill, to be introduced in the House of Lords. The relief proposals will consist of giving tenants power to stay evictions by declaring their inability to pay full rent and wiping out the claim by surrender to the Bankruptcy Court. A measure for land purchase, based upon Mr. Chamberlain's land-bank scheme, will follow. If the Government should be defeated at any point in the development of their policy they will not resign, but will appeal to the country.

A feature of the observance of St. Patrick's Day in England was the appearance of many Englishmen wearing shamrocks.

Father Keller, a Catholic priest, was arrested on March 18 at Youghal, Ireland, for refusing to give information concerning the plan of campaign, which, he declared, he had received in confidence from members of his flock. He was carried to Dublin, and on the way crowds cheered him as the "martyr priest." At Dublin, on the 19th, he was driven to court in the Lord Mayor's carriage. Father Keller, being sworn, refused to testify as to his custody of tenants' money as trustee under the "plan of campaign." He was then committed for contempt and was ordered to enter a cab in the custody of officers. The people made a rush for the vehicle, removed the horses, and dragged it through the streets to Kilmainham Jail, where the priest was locked up. Archbishop Walsh, Mr. William O'Brien, Lord Mayor Sullivan, and Mr. Timothy Harrington, M. P., followed the priest to the jail in carriages. The people marched after them singing "God Save Ireland" and "We'll hang Judge Boyd on a sour orange tree," and they uncovered their heads on arriving there. Mr. O'Brien predicted in an address to the crowd that the conflict which had been begun would end in the destruction of Tory power and "the present infamous system of alien misrule." Father Keller remarked that his journey had been more like that of a conqueror than of an humble pastor. Archbishop Croke, in an address presented to Father Keller, said: "No Government has ever grappled successfully with Irish priesthood. The present Government will rue the day it threw down a fresh gage of battle." Mr. John Dillon, in the House of Commons, protested against the arrest, and Mr. Parnell declared that Mr. Balfour would not escape "retribution and the judgment of history as one who had entered upon a task of bloodshed with a light heart, or as one who, during a short period in office, had shown more callousness and indifference than any previous Secretary."

Bishop Keane of Richmond, Va., preached a sermon on Sunday in the Irish Franciscan Church of St. Isidore, at Rome, on the subject of St. Patrick and the Irish nation, in which he emphatically expressed a desire for greater Irish liberty.

The April number of *Macmillan's Magazine* will contain Tennyson's Jubilee Ode to Queen Victoria.

At a meeting of citizens of Halifax on March 17, it was decided to offer a silver cup valued at $500 for a yacht-race prize on June 21, in connection with the Queen's jubilee celebration. Halifax is the only imperial military station in British North America, and on that date there will be a naval and military review there.

A public consistory was held at Rome on March 19, when the eight new Cardinals, Archbishop Gonzales of Toledo, Mgr. Aloisi-Masella, ex-Nuncio at Lisbon, Archbishop Taschereau of Quebec, Archbishop Gibbons of Baltimore, Archbishop Bernadou of Sens, Archbishop Place of Rennes, Archbishop Langénieux of Reims, and Archbishop Giordani of Ferrara, were hatted by the Pope with the imposing ceremony of the Church.

DEMOCRATIC PREPARATIONS.

It is said to be the confident belief of a considerable number of shrewd men in the Democratic party that "Cleveland cannot be renominated," and all the subsoiling and pipelaying which is now going on in this State in preparation for the Convention next year is said to be conducted on this assumption. Of course, the reasons for this opinion are various, but the most powerful one is his unsatisfactory behavior both with regard to appointments and dismissals from office. He has kept too many Republicans in their places, and he has in filling vacancies paid too little attention to recommendations. In other words, he has taken the reform talk of his party in its platforms and on the stump too seriously, and he has not taken Congressmen into his confidence as much as party custom is thought to require. Whenever the tale of these woes is told to a listener on whom they do not seem to make sufficient impression, they are apt to be fortified by a whisper that "Cleveland does not really want a renomination, and would not take it if it were offered him to-morrow"; that he is tired of official life, and longs for retirement, with the accompaniment of domestic happiness, which is now for the first time within his reach. The authority for this statement is never given, but it is usually garnished with enough nods and winks to make it appear that it comes direct from either the President and Mrs. Cleveland, or Col. Lamont, his private secretary, and therefore there is no use in attacking it on the score of improbability.

Now, we do not propose to dispute with the various adroit gentlemen who are engaged in overhauling and oiling the nominating machinery in this State, either as to the merits of Mr. Cleveland's Administration or as to the chances of his renomination. They know as well as we do, and better than we, the uncertainties which attend the action of conventions, the frequency with which the politicians of one State find their most careful arrangements completely upset by countercurrents of sentiment from other States when the Convention meets. Delusion on this point is likely to be unusually great in New York this year, owing both to the fact that President Cleveland is a New York product, and to the fact that this is the only State in which the politicians have gone to work to manufacture a rival and successor for him. Those who go to the Convention to rail and intrigue against him from his own State will think themselves greatly strengthened, therefore, by being able to offer a substitute. What we have to suggest is, that they should take into account now the absolute ignorance of that portion of the community which lies outside the circle of managing politicians, about the things which most damage Mr. Cleveland in their eyes. The reasons why he cannot be renominated are, we venture to assert, not known to-day to over one thousand of the eleven or twelve millions who will cast ballots at the election of 1888.

This, it must be admitted, is for Mr. Cleveland's enemies a state of things which cannot be remedied too soon. It will not do to let the Southern and Western delegates get together under the impression which, we venture to assert, now prevails among their constituents, that Mr. Cleveland has done so well that not only is there no reason why he should not be renominated, but that his renomination is an absolute necessity to the party if it wishes to retain control of the Government. This, of course, may be a very false impression. It may be that the managers in New York could destroy it if they chose. It is certain, however, that it cannot be destroyed suddenly. It will take time to do it. It is no easy matter, as every one knows who has had to do with the shaping of public opinion on any subject, to rid the popular mind of an opinion once formed. Anybody who undertakes the work cannot begin too early, or repeat himself too much. Any one, therefore, who means to have the Convention throw Mr. Cleveland overboard when it meets, unless he can count on a letter from Mr. Cleveland positively declining the nomination before the Convention meets, should go to work at once to prepare reasons against his nomination which will bear publicity.

All those reasons of which we have heard anything, or which are in circulation in the inner councils of party management, are in a certain sense secret and confidential. They are the kind of objection that men communicate to their friends after dinner, or over brandy and soda in clubs and cafés, which they have generally heard from somebody else, and which it would be base to give to a newspaper reporter. But something less delicate than this will be needed to affect the Convention. Arguments must be prepared which will bear publication of the widest kind on the stump and in the press; arguments which can not only be whispered but shouted, and which plain people who do not occupy themselves much with party machinery, can understand and appreciate. We do not say there are no such arguments. We simply say that they have not yet seen the light, and that it is time that they did. The delusion that Mr. Cleveland —if delusion it be—has made a good President is widespread and deep-seated. It would be little short of madness for his opponents in this State to allow delegates from other States to be elected under its influence, and to remain steeped in it between now and next year. We trust, therefore, we shall soon see the objections to him set out in black and white.

THE READJUSTER INCIDENT.

The retirement of Mahone from the United States Senate marks the end of a curious incident in American politics. It is true that his colleague, Riddleberger, has two years still to serve, but Riddleberger is an utter nonentity, except when he makes himself a nuisance, and has no political weight whatever. When Mahone's term expired, the Mahone party virtually collapsed.

William Mahone was a "Confederate Brigadier" from Virginia during the civil war, and a leading Democrat in the years succeeding the war. He was openly charged by the Republicans with responsibility for some of the grossest frauds by which the negro voters were cheated out of their rights, and he remained in close affiliation with the Democratic Machine until it refused to gratify his ambition for the Governorship. Finding that it was impossible for him to control his own party, he went to work to organize another party which he could boss. The debt question gave him just the opportunity which he needed. A considerable proportion of the white voters were ready to welcome a movement for partial repudiation. The ignorant mass of black voters could, of course, be easily solidified in support of such a movement. The only thing requisite was an unscrupulous man, familiar with the worst methods of Machine politics, and Mahone exactly filled the bill. The man and the opportunity met. In 1879 a Legislature was chosen which elected Mahone to the United States Senate as a Repudiator, under the more euphonious title of Readjuster.

Thus far the matter had been purely a State affair, with which the Republican party of the nation had nothing to do. But when, upon the opening of the special session of the Senate, after Garfield's inauguration in March, 1881, Mahone went up to Washington to take his seat, the Republican party of the nation was called upon to define its position towards him. There was but one thing for it to do. It had always opposed repudiation and prided itself upon its honorable financial record. Mahone's policy in Virginia had been opposed by the white Republicans of character and honor, and a fifth of the Republicans in the Legislature had voted against his election to the Senate. He was a boss of the most odious type, whose personal record was so bad as to forfeit the sympathy of good men. Every consideration of party and public policy forbade his receiving any support from the Republicans in the Senate.

But parties were so evenly divided just then that Mahone held the "balance of power" in the Senate. He was ready to support the Republicans if they would violate all their professions of fidelity to civil-service reform, turn out the efficient Democratic officials of the Senate, and give the place of Sergeant-at Arms to his man Riddleberger. He held out also the hope that, if properly supported by "patronage," he could make a break in the "solid South," and turn over the electoral vote of Virginia to the Republican candidate for President in 1884. The Republicans yielded to the temptation, and Mr George Frisbie Hoar, in a burst of bathos, thus welcomed this soldier of fortune, this boss, this repudiator:

> "There are Democrats in the South who do not mean to live any longer in the graveyards and among the tombs, whose face is toward the morning, and on whose brow the rising sunlight of the future generations of this country is already beginning to be visible. Of such Democrats the avant-courrier has already reached the Senate chamber after long waiting and yearning. The Republicans of the North desire to stretch forth a friendly hand."

The White House was as friendly as the Senate Chamber, and a Republican President turned over to Mahone all the patronage of Virginia. Six years have passed, and what is the result of this "avant-courrier's" work? The public sentiment of Virginia regarding the State debt has been utterly demoralized. The Republican party of the State has degenerated into a merely personal organization, controlled for the private ends of the ruling boss. The

standard of politics in the Old Dominion has been so lowered under his rule that the worst faults of the old Bourbons appear venial in comparison with his sway, and his downfall was welcomed scarcely less warmly by honest Republicans throughout the country than by honest Democrats in Virginia. The split in the solid South has not come, and the prejudice of the better class of whites against a Republican party which is represented by a repudiator is stronger than it was six years ago. Mahone himself can no longer give the Republicans in the Senate the assistance of his tainted vote, and the colleague whom he has left there, fit pupil of such a master, is a man so unscrupulous and untrustworthy that nobody feels any assurance that he will not go over to the Democrats for the remaining two years of his term.

It should not have required such an experience to convince anybody that a "party of moral ideas" could not touch the pitch of repudiation and escape being defiled; but nothing short of such a lesson could have taught anything to men who were in the state of frenzy which Mr. Hoar exhibited when he delivered his apostrophe to Mahone. Fortunately the lesson has been so effective that it may be hoped its effect will be lasting, and that we shall not soon see a great national party throwing away all its principles, in the hope that corruption will win more than honesty.

EMIGRATION FROM GERMANY.

The influence of economic forces in determining the strength and direction of the emigration of man is beyond question, and the course of immigration into the United States from all parts of the world during the last twenty-five years is evidence of this influence. Natural causes, however, have been of greater importance during that period than artificial, and interest has centred more in this country and its conditions than in the countries where the migration originated. The introduction of a series of artificial influences offers a new feature which may command some notice, and nowhere has this feature been more prominent than in Germany.

Since 1878 the German Government has exercised a continually increasing control over the economy of its people, which has now reached an extent and thoroughness that, when considered with the rapidity with which the measures were conceived and carried into execution, surpass the efforts of any other European nation in that direction during the last fifty years. In 1878 a system of factory inspection was framed, still imperfect in its performance, but very useful in protecting the lives, health, and general interests of factory operatives; in 1879 the policy of protection to home industries was raised to a principle by the framing of a tariff designed to exclude foreign competition; then followed the legal institution of sick and invalid funds by employers and their men, and finally in October last the Accident Insurance Law, applying to workers on farms as well as to workers in factories, went into operation. The general intention of these measures was to improve the condition of the workingman, and to enlarge his opportunities for employment; and while it is difficult to say whether there has been a positive advance in wages or in the general welfare of the German workingman, the hope, at least, of a benefit has been held out to him, his rigid dependence upon his daily labor for his daily bread has been somewhat loosened, and age, sickness, or disability has no longer the same terrors for him. To these State measures should be added the efforts of individual firms, also tending to make the position of the laborer more endurable.

The general thrift of the German workingman would enable him to make the most of whatever improvement these reforms might involve; and a few pennies saved, as the reports of the inspectors of factories show, would widen materially the margin between sufficiency and want. Of the enlarged opportunity for employment there can be little doubt, for the development of mining and manufacturing industries has been very great. In 1883 207,577 men were employed in mining black coal, as compared with 170,509 in 1879. The copper mines gave employment to 14,326 miners in 1883, and 9,118 in 1879. The number of furnaces and foundries increased during the same period from 227 to 270, and the hands employed from 32,242 to 42,724. While this increase of employment has been especially marked in the metal and sugar industries, it has also occurred in other branches of manufacture. This great increase in the demand for labor in manufactures—though not commensurate with the rapid growth of the German population—and the consciousness that the Government is exercising a watchful care over their concerns, have doubtless deterred many from emigrating to the United States who would otherwise have gone.

Have these influences yet affected the emigration of skilled labor from Germany to the United States? The tide of German emigration has of late years been fed chiefly from the sparsely settled agricultural districts, like Mecklenburg and Pomerania, and not from the industrial districts, like Saxony and the Rhineland. The succession of bad harvests that followed 1873, resulting in the extensive absorption of small farms into large holdings, may explain the movement. It is not the farming element, however, that now interests us, but the skilled labor, and in this case skilled labor refers to domestic or *hand* skill, and not to mechanical skill. As the German Government keeps no records of the occupations of emigrants, the Treasury reports must supply the information.

Since 1873 the percentage of skilled labor of the total immigration from Germany has been:

1873.....	10.03 per cent.	1880.....	12.86 per cent.
1874.....	11.18 "	1881.....	11.41 "
1875.....	13.82 "	1882.....	10.58 "
1876.....	13.62 "	1883.....	12.93 "
1877.....	14.54 "	1884.....	12.31 "
1878.....	14.25 "	1885.....	10.44 "
1879.....	13.48 "	1886.....	11.01 "

The year 1873 was in great part a time of great inflation in this country, and during it the effects of the war between France and Prussia, also, may have swelled unduly the total emigration. 1879 marked the last of six years of almost universal stagnation and depression; while 1886 was a year of moderate depression. As skilled labor receives higher wages and is in better demand than common labor, it is less likely to be so severely influenced in its power to emigrate by years of depression than is the latter; and, in fact, it does form a larger proportion of the emigration in a bad than in a good year, when it is overwhelmed by great movements in the lower and unskilled classes of population, who seize upon any temporary advantage to migrate. So that while the percentage in 1886 is, according to the table, about the same as it was in 1874, it really marks a decided falling off, as it should be nearer the percentage of 1877 or 1878.

There is another method of reaching the same conclusion. In 1873 48,792 skilled immigrants landed in the United States; in 1879 the number had fallen to 21,362, and in 1886 had again risen to 36,522. These figures represent 10.6, 12, and 11 per cent. of the total immigration in the respective years. Of the skilled immigrants Germany supplied 30.77 per cent. in 1873, 21.37 per cent. in 1879, and 25.45 per cent. in 1886, and did not therefore follow the general variations, but one peculiar to itself, giving a high average in 1873, a low one in 1879, and a medium in 1886, as compared with a low general average in 1873, and higher averages in 1879 and 1886. The conclusion is that the domestic policy of Germany has influenced unfavorably the movement of skilled labor to this country.

This influence can hardly be permanent, because it depends upon the continued success of artificial relations, relations, it may be added, that are working their own failure. The productive energies of the empire cannot be indefinitely expanded at a rapid rate, for the markets for the products are more and more difficult to obtain, and cannot be held by bounties and subsidies save at great cost. There are already indications of a partial break down, more especially in the sugar and iron industries, where over-stimulation has resulted in overproduction, and, as a further consequence, in bankrupt works, lower wages, and masses of labor without employment and willing to work for a pittance. The same extreme condition may not result in the less favored industries, but the immunity of Germany from the economic ills that have beset other nations since 1879 is being broken down, and labor must suffer. It is not a rash prediction to assert that unless a period of prosperity intervenes, the migration of skilled labor, and this time of labor familiar with the use of machinery, from Germany to the United States may be greater than ever in a few years. Assisted emigration to German colonies may for the time deflect the current from this country, but the advantages to be gained here are too great to be overthrown by any system of moderate State aid. The question is not without interest to the economist.

WHY HAS INTEREST IN POLITICS DECLINED IN ENGLAND?

London, March 4, 1887.

The causes of a singular and perhaps permanent alteration in national character are in the main twofold:

(1.) The gradual transformation of an aristocratic into a democratic Constitution.

An aristocratic government means of necessity

the administration of public affairs by persons intensely interested in the work (or the game) of politics. A king may hold power simply because he is the descendant of kings. Louis XV. ruled France because he was the descendant of Louis XIV. Charles II. would never have influenced the destinies of England had he not represented a long line of monarchs. A democracy may, for a time, maintain itself by the simple weight of numbers. American citizens may or may not be vigilant to protect their own rights, but the huge force of the collective People is enough to crush even the thought of an anti-democratic revolution. Whether the apparent immensity of the force at the disposal of a democracy will, in the long run, be sufficient to protect popular governments from attack, is an open question. All that my argument requires is the fact that, where the mass of the citizens constitute the ruling power in a state, the mere weight of numbers may, without any great energy on the part of individuals, keep the Constitution in force. Where a limited number of noble families bear sway, there must be a constant struggle for the maintenance of power. With the English aristocracy this certainly has been so. One portion of English history is, in effect, the struggle of the nobles to keep alive rights menaced by the Crown. Another portion is, in effect, a contest to maintain rights or privileges against the increasing power of the people.

Nor is this attitude of conflict the sole circumstance which, under an aristocratic régime, invests politics with a special interest. Government carried on by the members of wealthy and high-born families is not "personal government" in the sense in which that term is now generally employed, but it is a government by prominent persons. It is a form of rule in which personal considerations, personal interests, the virtues no less than the vices of definite individuals, exercise immense weight on the policy of the commonwealth. The private vices of Fox and of Sheridan, the personal defects of George III., the disinterestedness of Chatham, the inscrutability of Lord Shelburne, all went a great way to determine the fortunes of England. No doubt another kind of personal influence has, as we all know, immense weight in a democratic society. But this influence flows from power over the multitude possessed by some one leader. It does not in the main depend upon what we may call the family peculiarities, which often tell decisively on the policy that prevails under an aristocratic constitution. The expressions, "the great families," "the Revolution families," "the Newcastle interest," and the like, which abound in memoirs of the last century, suggest a good deal to any one who reflects on the latent meaning of current phrases. They signify, among other things, that o the leading politicians of a former age public affairs were, in fact, family affairs. Contests for power had, if you like, the narrowness, the bitterness, and the selfishness, but they possessed also the absorbing interest, of quarrels among relations. The world will have undergone a revolution unlike any change of which history has preserved the record, when men cease to grow enthusiastic, or zealous, or hot, or passionate about the virtues or defects, the wisdom or the cunning, of themselves or their relatives. Limit the field of public life to a comparatively small body of persons, and you insure that political controversy shall be at least as interesting as gossip. If anything be still wanting to the excitement of party contests, make the pecuniary prosperity of public men depend upon the success of their party; you will then be sure to see the fire of political fervor blaze up again with renewed brightness. When, as in the last century, public life might be the road to fortune, bad men and good men alike were as keen about public affairs as men are now about success at the bar or in business.

It was, moreover, under these circumstances, possible to believe in all cases, what was true in some instances, that a man's political opponents were actuated by the basest of base motives. Modern rhetoric languishes for want of the patent gross vices which rhetoric should be employed to scourge. The last real triumph of rhetorical invective is to be found in the effect produced by Disraeli's attacks on Peel. Yet one cannot doubt that Lord Beaconsfield, as a critic, would have admitted that his denunciations were deficient in something which gives their real force to the sarcasms of Junius. This "something" was the possibility of imputing pecuniary corruption to the Minister made the object of attack. The readers of Junius could believe without difficulty—though in many cases the belief was grossly unjust—that the interest of the nation was sacrificed to the cupidity of Ministers. Not the bitterest protectionist in the House of Commons could have been brought to believe that Peel repealed the Corn Laws to fill his own pockets. Private vices may or may not be public benefits, but they assuredly add at times a good deal to the interest of political life. It would, however, be no less unfair than absurd to suppose that in the main the interest felt in politics fifty years or a century ago was due to the vices of aristocratic government. It was caused quite as much by the one great merit of an aristocratic constitution. Institutions which lead the baser kind of men to look upon public affairs as matters mainly of private interest, lead nobler spirits to identify their own interests with the prosperity of the commonwealth. George the Third's Duke of Newcastle was not an impressive representative of the English aristocracy, but, when he left office, he displayed one element of dignity which should never be forgotten. He had greatly reduced his private fortune in the service of the state, and he declined all compensation. With the more heroic leaders of the same age, the same trait appears under nobler forms. They were reckless, unscrupulous, even greedy of gain for themselves, and still more for their followers. But they knew how to spend lavishly money, strength, and talent in what seemed to them the service of the state, even when it took the form of devotion to a party.

English party spirit was both intensified and occasionally exalted into patriotism by the existence of two conditions in the state of the world which appear—for the moment, at least—to have no existence. The first was the striking contrast between the freedom and grandeur of the great English free state, and the despotism and meanness prevailing among the states of the Continent. The second was the peril of invasion. We are all apt to forget that, until Napoleon's schemes of attacking England were finally baffled, there was always before the English mind a sense of possible armed attack from France. Whoever will study in the 'Annual Register' the account of the court-martial held on Admiral Keppel, will see that a century ago the French fleet might appear to Englishmen as fearful a menace as does the German army of to-day to Frenchmen. Whoever reads 'Peter Plymley's Letters' will see that an observer as calm as Sydney Smith could fear to see French soldiers encamped round London, as truly as French journalists may dread to see German armies at Versailles. When a feeble foreign policy may result in encouraging the invasion of England, the question whether Tories or Whigs were in power had for Englishmen an immediate personal importance hardly realized by men who feel as if the worst blunder we could make must lead to no worse calamity than the sacrifice of prestige in Afghanistan.

Add to all this that the interests of the members of an aristocracy are generally as narrow as they are intense. Englishmen wonder, when they read about their forefathers, to learn that eminent statesmen left the House of Commons for the gambling table or for the prize fight. But if you turn the matter the other way, it comes to this—that the statesmen of a past generation had no elevating occupation but the pursuit of politics. England, it may be said, has not for centuries been governed wholly by an aristocracy. This is true; but the point to note is, that while the Constitution was aristocratic, the tone of the country was the tone of the nobility. A political class governed the nation, and imbued the whole nation with political passion. Under a modern democracy it is necessarily otherwise. Power lies with the masses, but the interest of the crowd cannot be mainly political. The majority of mankind are of necessity occupied, in one form or another, with earning their livelihood. This is true of the professional no less than of the working classes; but, of course, the lower down you go in the grade of wealth, the more absorbing becomes the struggle for existence. It is vain to suppose that English laborers can occupy their time in thoughts about politics: their heart must be in their daily work. A proposal to abolish outdoor relief, or to relax the rules which compel paupers to go into a workhouse, would, we may be quite certain, kindle more feeling of one kind or another among the country laborers of England than would a proposal to give up our Indian Empire or to allow the establishment of an Irish republic. That this is so, is no matter for indignation. The inevitable should never excite anger. High policies and grand schemes of statecraft are at bottom but devices for securing to large bodies of men the happiness of civilized existence. This, however, may be confidently asserted, that when power lies with the majority of the people, schemes directly affecting popular comfort or happiness will excite more general emotion than plans dignified with the name of high policy. Here we come across a second cause for the changed attitude of Englishmen towards politics.

(2.) The increased interest felt in religious and social questions.

In one form or another, every thinker who influenced public life in England during the last century (or, indeed, till late into the earlier part of this century) shared one belief, namely, the importance for good or bad of constitutional, and what we may call purely political, arrangements. To this general statement Burke, it will be said, was an exception. But the exception is only apparent. He perceived, indeed, the side of truth popularly embodied in the maxim that "constitutions grow but are not made." But his consistent opposition to even small changes in the form of the Constitution certainly shows that he had not grasped the conclusion which many modern politicians practically draw from the maxim I have cited, that alterations in the form of a constitution, if they cannot effect any great good, need not be resisted, because they can produce no great harm. Now as long as this belief in the importance of alterations in the Constitution of England held its ground, the result followed that politics remained a matter of interest, since the success of a party might involve alterations in the form of the Constitution. The men who advocated or opposed the abolition of rotten boroughs did so because they believed that to deprive Old Sarum of her member was to smooth the path of rapid progress, or else was to open the door to fundamental and violent revolution. The statesmen who, a year or two back, could not even get up a decent party battle over the question of extending household suffrage to the counties, must have felt, though very possibly

without reason, that changes in the Parliamentary franchise were at bottom matters of trivial importance. This state of feeling no doubt flows in great part from the success with which, in England, constitutional changes have been carried through without producing any palpable disturbance in the social condition of the country. But it is partly to be attributed to other causes. Methodism, it has been well remarked, turned the working classes of England away from revolutionary towards religious aspirations, and it seems almost past a doubt that the "interest"—remember I do not say "passion," which is quite a different matter—aroused among the English public by theological or religious discussion, has tended to lower the excitement of political controversy. Let any one read carefully through the pages of the London *Spectator*. He will find therein a great deal about politics, but, if my supposed reader will weigh the matter carefully, he will, I think, come to the conclusion that the readers of that periodical are a good deal more interested in theological than in political questions. Some years ago some letter or article in the *Spectator* gave rise to correspondence about the efficacy of prayer. What thousands of communications the editors must have received I can only conjecture, but to the most casual observer the fact soon became apparent that the discretion of the editors, and not the weariness of the public, put an end to a discussion which, after being continued for weeks, still apparently possessed an unlimited attraction for the large body of intelligent readers.

Theology, however, has, it is supposed (whether truly or not I cannot say), little interest for the masses. What undoubtedly has an interest for them is any topic which can be brought within the limits of what is vaguely called Socialism. No two books can be conceived which at a first blush differ more from each other than the 'Life and Work of the Seventh Earl of Shaftesbury' and Besant's 'Children of Gibeon.' But though the one work is long, stiff, solid, and, if the truth be said, a trifle dull, and the other amusing, bright, and, to speak with equal veracity, not a little shallow, they both breathe one spirit. They both are filled with the conviction that the state of the poor and the improvement of that state by social efforts are the topics, and I might almost say the only topics, worth the consideration of humane and rational men. Whatever may be the case with the poor themselves, one thing is apparent with regard to the wealthier classes: the most enthusiastic, if not always the wisest, men among them are turning their minds towards social rather than to political problems. Nor, if social questions are really the chief concern of the age, is it out of harmony with the habitual course of English history that well-to-do Englishmen should become the leaders of the mass of the people in what, under their guidance, may ultimately turn out a pacific and beneficial revolution. Meanwhile, one may be quite sure that, the capacity of the human mind and heart being limited, interest given to the improvement of houses in the East End is in general so much interest diverted from questions affecting the preservation of the Constitution or the integrity of the Empire. Socialism in all its forms is at bottom the foe to patriotism. A generation supremely interested in social reform is likely also to be a generation more or less indifferent to political conflicts, except in so far as they immediately affect the material welfare of the people.

AN OBSERVER.

SCHERER'S GRIMM.

PARIS, March 7, 1887.

If there is a writer upon whom the mantle of Sainte-Beuve may be said to have fallen, it is M. Edmond Scherer. Unfortunately politics has for many years absorbed much of his time, and, as his moderate views are not triumphant, his political work may be said to have been lost. It is not so with his literary work. He has already published eight volumes of studies on contemporary literature, one volume of 'Mélanges d'histoire religieuse,' one volume on Diderot; and he gives us now a volume on 'Melchior Grimm, the Man of Letters, the Factotum, the Diplomat.'

Grimm has acquired universal renown by his 'Literary Correspondence,' though very few people have taken the trouble in our time to read it. In his own time he was somewhat obscure. His name first became familiar after the publication of the second part of Rousseau's 'Confessions' (which came out in 1788), and more so after the publication of the memoirs of Mme. d'Épinay, eleven years after his death. The famous 'Correspondence' was private, and was only published in 1812. In 1853 Sainte-Beuve wrote two articles on him; before that date Danzel had been occupied with Grimm in his book 'Gottsched and his Time,' which appeared in 1848. The Russian Historical Society published in 1878 the correspondence between Grimm and Catharine of Russia, and afterwards completed its work by the publication of letters which have recently been found in Poland. Grimm's 'Literary Correspondence' has had several editions, the best being the last, and the work of M. Tourneux. We have now probably all the documents which concern Grimm, and we can easily conceive that M. Scherer should have been tempted to write his biography.

Frederic Melchior Grimm was born at Ratisbon on September 26, 1723; his family was poor, his father one of the Lutheran ministers of the town. He was well educated, and made at Leipzig the acquaintance of Gottsched. He wrote a tragedy while he was at the University—a very flat tragedy. He lived for a short time in the family of the Schombergs as a tutor, and in 1748 went to France with a young member of that family. He became reader to the Duke of Saxe-Gotha, who was then in Paris, and Rousseau even says that for a while he remained "chez des filles du quartier Saint-Roch." The Comte de Friese took him as a secretary. They were both young; the Count was rich and fond of pleasure. He gave weekly dinners to Diderot, Rousseau, Helvétius, Marmontel. Grimm had not been two years in Paris before he became acquainted with a number of people. His young and profligate patron was trying to imitate the heroes of Richardson and Laclos. Grimm himself was more sentimental. Rousseau laughs at his great passion for Mlle. Fel, a celebrated singer at the Opéra. The Abbé Raynal was one of Grimm's confidants. Mlle. Fel did not take pity on the poor German; she treated him with marked contempt, and his vanity cured him of his love.

Grimm rapidly renounced his mother tongue, and began to write in French. He wrote articles on theatrical representations, made his début in the *Mercure;* and when he wrote 'Le Petit Prophète,' which was the event of a day, Voltaire said, "What means this little Bohemian who dares to have more wit than ourselves?" The 'Petit Prophète' related to the arrival of the Italian Bouffe in Paris, and to the great quarrel between the Italian and the French schools of music. It has lost much of its interest, but it gave to Grimm his letters of naturalization. The success of the 'Petit Prophète' was immense. Grimm, who made himself the patron of the Italian music, became also one of the protectors of Mozart, who arrived in 1763 in Paris with his father. The decisive moment in his life was the beginning of the correspondence which he sent, every fortnight for twenty years, to the various courts of Europe. Others before him had undertaken a similar work; the intellectual supremacy of France, the scarcity of journals, explain such undertakings. The news from Paris was awaited with impatience in Berlin, in St. Petersburg, at the dull little German courts.

Raynal, the author of the History of the Two Indies, chose Grimm as his successor for correspondence which he sent to the court of Germany. "I have made it my rule," said Grimm in 1766, "to send my correspondence only to princes. Important personages in England have offered me large sums for it, but I have never consented to send it to them." The price was not the same for all princes. The King of Poland, for instance, paid only forty ducats a year, or 400 francs; the Empress of Russia paid 360 rubles, or 1,500 francs. Goethe tells us that he shared the letters, by the courtesy of his friends at Weimar, and that he read them with great attention. Grimm not only gave all the literary news of the day, he sometimes gave extracts from remarkable works. The 'Correspondence' is a real mine of documents on the dramatic art of the eighteenth century. Grimm had a passion for the theatre, and his descriptions of Clairon, of Raucourt, of many others, are full of life. He is also the precursor of our modern school of criticism, which is not a dry analysis, but subjects a work to many collateral considerations, and shows it in all its surroundings. He is sometimes pompous, often heavy, too full of general theories on everything—on women, on art, on languages. He has the jargon of his time—love of nature, horror of fanaticism, sensibility, delicious emotions, tears running constantly from his eyes, and so on; but he has also much good sense, a real knowledge of men and things. Moreover, he is superior to the subjects which he treats, and sees everything from a high standpoint. He can be witty, he can be eloquent. Grimm's philosophy was different from the philosophy of the French "philosophes." Scherer goes perhaps a little too far when he sees in him an unconscious Positivist, an unconscious Darwinian, a moral Determinist. Grimm had the German tendency to generalization, but he was not very systematic. He did not much believe in progress; he said that "the finest centuries are precisely the germ of the centuries of decadence." There was in him a curious vein of scepticism; he often quarrelled with Diderot, who believed in human perfectibility. He believed that "Europe was threatened with some sinister revolution" long before 1789 and 1793.

In politics, the preferences of Grimm are for an enlightened despotism, but we must remember that he wrote for sovereigns. His social doctrine is well summed up in these lines:

"Let us not be children, and do not let us be afraid of words. In fact, there is no other right in the world than the right of the strongest; and if everything must be said, it is the only legitimate right. The moral world is composed of forces like the physical world; not to admit that the strongest must be the master, is as reasonable as not to be willing that a stone which weighs a hundred pounds should weigh more than the stone which weighs twenty pounds. It is this science of forces which gives the true elements of natural right and of the law of nations. Whether men were subjugated first by the force of arms, by persuasion, or by paternal authority, it is just the same: the truth is, that they are governed and always will be governed, that a man alone can do nothing against the mass of men and that he must endure its pressure, that the state of society is a forced state, in which action and reaction are continual."

Rousseau had been introduced to Mme. d'Épinay by Francueil; he himself introduced to her his friend Grimm. Mme. d'Épinay found herself at the time in a very critical situation. Her sister, at the point of death, had charged her to burn certain compromising letters.

Among these were supposed to be papers concerning a debt of M. d'Épinay, whose wife would thus have destroyed the proofs of the existence of this debt. The affair made much noise and was discussed everywhere. At a dinner given by the Comte de Friese, Grimm undertook the defence of Mme. d'Épinay, and a duel ensued in a garden of the hôtel. Grimm was slightly wounded, and Mme. d'Épinay could not but feel much gratitude for her "chevalier." Her complete innocence was proved some time afterwards, and the papers, which were supposed to be stolen, were found in the hands of a third party. Grimm became the friend, the adviser, the counsellor of Mme. d'Épinay, and by degrees his influence completely substituted itself for that of the tortuous and cynical Duclos, of the light-headed and light-hearted Francueil, who remembered at times that he had been the first lover of Mme. d'Épinay, and finally of Rousseau

Scherer is very severe on Rousseau. He knows nothing more revolting than the second part of the 'Confessions,' in which Rousseau constantly denounces Mme. d'Épinay and Grimm:

"The most cynical egoism, the most odious ingratitude, the most insinuating malignity are allied to effusions of sensibility and to virtuous pretensions. All is base in this man, who thinks he excuses disgusting vices by confiding them to the public, throwing off the burden of gratitude by calumniating those who have spoiled him by the most touching attentions; whose favorite society is the servant who bears him children which he sends one after another to the Foundling Asylum. In vain do people say that he is mad, that his madness is increasing and characteristic; in vain are his malice, his duplicity, his suspicions considered as pathological symptoms; we feel that the soul of the writer was always vile, and we experience a sort of satisfaction in recognizing that, with all his talent, he never succeeded in disguising his native vulgarity."

Mme. d'Épinay may be said to have spent the second part of her life in repairing the errors of the first, and it cannot be denied that the influence of Grimm was very beneficial to her. Her Memoirs are, in Scherer's opinion, one of the most agreeable books of the eighteenth century, as curious as a document for the moral history of an epoch as they are captivating as a biography. At the death of the Comte de Friese, Grimm was appointed *secrétaire des commandements* of the Duke of Orleans. This title gave him a salary and no real duties. The judgment which Grimm passed in 1793, in a letter written to the Empress Catharine, on Orleans-Egalité, deserves to be cited, as it shows the better side of the Prince who voted for the death of Louis XVI. and paid for this dreadful error with his own death:

"He was not a genius, he was not an eagle; he had perhaps a rather *borné* mind. But nature had given him such an instinct for honor and for honest people that no bad character ever could approach, and still less circumvent him or abide near him. . . . Love of pleasure sometimes led him, like others, into bad company, but the dignity of his rank and a certain decency followed him even in his orgies; his companions in pleasure always found the Prince. The court of the Palais-Royal was extremely brilliant. Whatever was most respectable in France aspired to the honor of being admitted to it; it was not 'de bon ton' not to be of it, and if Louis XV. was King at Versailles, the Duke of Orleans was called the King of Paris."

Grimm had entered into communication with many princes, and he aspired to the honor of entering diplomacy. He first became the Minister of the free city of Frankfort, with the salary of 24,000 livres a year, afterwards Minister of the Court of Saxe-Gotha. He accompanied German princes on their journeys in England and in Russia, and he finally became the friend of Catharine of Russia, who treated him with the greatest generosity. Mme. d'Épinay was ruined by her husband's dissipations. Her daughter married M. de Belsunce, and, after her death (which took place in 1783), Grimm took entire charge of Émilie, her granddaughter. He interested the Empress Catharine in her fate, and married her to the Comte de Bueil. One of the last acts of Catharine was the nomination of Grimm as Minister of Russia at Hamburg. He did not remain long in this town, for the loss of an eye obliged him to hand in his resignation. The Emperors Paul and Alexander continued, however, to pay him his salary. He spent the remainder of his life in Gotha, in a house which the Duke placed at his disposal. Goethe saw him at Gotha in 1801. Grimm died December 19, 1807, at the age of eighty-four years. He said of his own life, after the death of Catharine: "Three-fourths of my life have been so happy that if I had died at the proper moment I might have been counted among the most fortunate of men; but the last fourth, so cruelly painful, has ended in a mortal blow, which found me defenceless." Grimm had seen the Revolution triumph; the world which he had known was no more; Napoleon was triumphant. Grimm had lived long enough to witness from his retreat the battles of Austerlitz and Jena, and the peace of Tilsit, which seemed the deathblow of Germany.

Correspondence.

SECTIONAL PARALYSIS OF CONGRESS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Why is it that one Congress after another fails to make provision for the reduction of the tariff? It is not because of ignorance of the needs of the country, nor of faith in the justness of the present tariff laws. Every member of Congress understands perfectly well that our tariff laws are totally inadequate to the needs of the country, and that the superabundance of money in the Treasury is a source of danger. But in the consideration of any measure of national importance there are two questions which every Congressman asks himself: First, what effect will it have on the fortunes of the political party to which he belongs; second, what will be the effect on the interests of the locality which he represents.

If we examine the more important measures which have become laws by the action of the Forty-ninth Congress, we shall find that no one of them had any special significance in party politics, nor greatly affected the interests of any locality. The "Presidential Succession Bill," the "Electoral Count Bill," the "Inter-State Commerce Bill," and the "Repeal of the Tenure of Office Act," were all measures which could be considered without prejudice, and their enactment showed that the Forty-ninth Congress were not wanting in ability or patriotism. But on the other hand, the "Pauper Pension Bill," the great number of private pension bills, and the "Texas Seed Bill," besides several bills for local appropriations, all of which were vetoed by the President, showed how ready Congressmen were to sacrifice their patriotism to political fears or local interests. If a man of less firmness and integrity than President Cleveland had been at the head of affairs, the record of this Congress would have been far less creditable than it is. Does not the history of the country show that the tendency of legislation is more and more to the neglect of national interests whenever questions arise where the interests of one section of the country are opposed to those of another? Who is there besides the President to reconcile conflicting interests?

The dangers of dissolution were set at rest for awhile, but were not removed, by the successful issue of the civil war. Is it not possible to diminish the danger by electing to Congress a number of members to represent not local nor State interests, but the interests of the country at large? Suppose that each political party, at Presidential elections, should nominate say thirty members at large, and that fifteen of each of two parties receiving the greatest number of votes should be elected for a term of years, we should have in Congress a body of men who would represent the United States, and who in times of great excitement, or of sectional controversy, would stand in the breach and ward off danger. The centre of population is moving westward at a rapid rate, new States are knocking for admission into the Union, and the time is not far distant when the population west of the Mississippi will rival that to the east. Who knows what new dangers will arise from sectional differences to threaten the safety of the Union? There should be some Representatives from the country at large to hold up the President's hands, and, amid the conflict of interests, to act for the welfare of the whole country.

R. F.

Binghamton, N. Y., March 17, 1887.

JEFFERSON DAVIS AND REPUDIATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In answer to the inquiry of a correspondent in the last number of the *Nation*, permit me to say that there is ample authority for the statement that Jefferson Davis was a "repudiator."

In the Washington *Daily Union* for May 25, 1849, is a statement, signed by Jefferson Davis, in which he defends the right of Mississippi to repudiate the bonds in question, on the ground that they were issued in disregard of the Constitution of Mississippi. Here is a sample from the letter: "The crocodile tears which have been shed over ruined creditors are on a par with the baseless denunciations which have been heaped upon the State."

The London *Times*, July 13, 1849, in its money article, replied to Davis's letter, explaining the repudiation of the bonds from the creditors' point of view. To this reply Mr. Davis responded, August 29, 1849, in a long letter addressed to the editors of the *Mississippian*, in which he elaborated his arguments in favor of the repudiation, and denounced the article of the London *Times* in most violent terms. He further said: "With far more propriety might *repudiation* be charged on the *English Government*, for reduction of interest on her loans when she consolidated her debts; for the income tax which compels fund-holders to return a part of the interest they receive on their evidences of public debt, for the support of the Government which is their debtor."

In the United States Senate, also, Mr. Davis excused Mississippi for her repudiation. Also, on April 29, 1846, he moved an amendment to the Smithsonian Institution Bill, allowing Arkansas, under certain conditions, to repudiate her bonds.

A full account of Jefferson Davis's connection with repudiation, and the letters above referred to, can be found in three pamphlets by the Hon. Robert J. Walker, published in London in 1863-64.

Mr. Davis's connection with this matter has doubtless often been overstated. For example, Mr. John Stuart Mill, in an article on "The Contest in America" (*Fraser's Magazine*, 1862), said that "the President of the new Republic, Mr. Jefferson Davis, was the original inventor of repudiation. Mississippi was the first State which repudiated. Mr. Jefferson Davis was Governor of Mississippi; and the Legislature of Mississippi had passed a bill recognizing and providing for the debt, which bill Mr. Jefferson Davis vetoed." Though this may have no foundation (Mr. Davis, I believe, never having been Governor of Mississippi), the letters and statements given by Mr. Walker seem to show that Jefferson Davis can-

not be defended from the charge of being a "repudiator." ALBERT T. PERKINS.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY,
CAMBRIDGE, MASS., March 14, 1887.

WOMAN SUFFRAGE IN MASSACHUSETTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The consolation which you offer to the disappointed woman-suffragists of your State, in your number of March 17, will perhaps be increased by a few additional statistics from Massachusetts.

In 200 out of the 347 cities and towns of that State, not one woman has ever voted, though the right to do so has been granted for eight years past. In those towns where enthusiasm for the new privilege led its advocates to register and vote the first year, the number of women voters has steadily and greatly diminished with scarcely an exception. In the year 1885, as you observed, there was a decided gain in their vote in Boston, which was lost the following year. This experience of 1885 contains a moral. In that year an unusual effort was made by public and private appeal to call out the woman vote in favor of a so-called reform school-committee ticket differing from that of either political party. This special effort led to a vote of nearly 2,000 women; but when the result was declared, it appeared that a clear majority of these women voters had been sent to the polls by advocates of one of the regular party tickets, with the acknowledged purpose of offsetting the votes of the women reformers, and thus defeating the reform ticket, which they succeeded in doing.

This is a bit of history which is sure to repeat itself, and it ought greatly to console those who are grieved because they are not allowed to try the effect of women's votes upon questions of reform. It is interesting, also, to note that for the past four years every woman candidate for School Committee has been defeated, although for several years before school suffrage was granted to women they had been annually elected to that office. Thus it would appear that, by their entrance into school politics, women have driven themselves off the School Board in Boston. E. L.

BOSTON, March 20, 1887.

DIVORCE STATISTICS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: All lovers of discussion and legislation founded on a thorough knowledge of the facts involved will be glad to learn that Congress has recently appropriated $10,000 to the Bureau of Labor for the collection of statistics and other facts concerning the marriage and divorce laws of the country. The National Divorce Reform League has urged this measure upon Congress for more than three years, and the Senate has each year approved it, but it is only recently that certain members of the House have come to acknowledge its importance. In the hands of Mr. Carroll D. Wright this appropriation will undoubtedly bring a report of great value. It would seem indispensable to intelligent legislation upon our conflicting marriage and divorce laws.

SAMUEL W. DIKE.

AUBURNDALE, MASS.

CONVENTUAL PASTIMES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: But a week after reading your review of Perey's memoirs of the Princesse de Ligne in the *Nation*, I discovered an account of pranks similar to hers, practised a hundred and fifty years before in the Carmelite Nunnery of Sainte-Marie; and they interested me so much that I send you a translation of the passage in question, which is cited by Livet in the preface to his 'Précieux et Précieuses,' from the 'Mémoires de la Duchesse de Mazarin.'

"As Mme. de Courcelles had been sent into the convent with me," writes the Duchess, "I was good-natured enough to join her in playing tricks upon the Sisters. Whereupon people made a thousand silly stories out of them to tell the King: that we put ink in the holy-water fount to daub [*barbouiller*] these worthy ladies; that we ran up and down through the dormitory at night with a pack of little dogs, crying out '*tayaut*' [tally-ho!], and a quantity of other such things, either made up out of the whole cloth or greatly exaggerated. Under pretext of keeping us company, they watched us closely. For this office they selected the oldest of the Sisters as being most incorruptible; but by doing nothing but walk up and down all day, we very soon used them up, one after the other, until two or three were completely lamed from their determination to follow us."

These stories, although denied by those concerned in them, obtained a wide circulation at court, and appear to have been not without foundation. At any rate, until la Mère Angélique began her reforms at Port Royal in 1609, French convents were but too convenient retreats from the shadow of a great scandal; and their worldly visitors spent far more time in frivolity than in penitence, to the delight rather than the scandal of the younger Sisters.

Could our naïve little Princess have been reading Tallemant des Réaux, and got the idea of the joke from him? Or are such pranks the natural result of the ennui of a convent life?

PÉTRUS AURÉLIUS.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., March 15, 1887.

JOHN COTTON AGAIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A week or two ago I took occasion to point out an absurd blunder made by Mr. W. M. Fullerton in the Boston *Sunday Record*, whereby he announced that a certain edition of Theocritus was dedicated to the Rev. John Cotton, the Puritan minister of Boston at its first settlement. I strove to point out this error in a light and even tender mood, as being perhaps the vagary of a mind overburdened with knowledge, and finding dark allusions and mystic analogies where ordinary mortals were blind. But my tenderness was evidently misplaced, since in the *Sunday Record* for March 13 Mr. Fullerton has poured forth a column or more of special pleading and irrelevant nonsense, still maintaining that he was right.

His whole argument was based upon the dedication, which he prints as follows:

"Nobilitate, Virtute, Eruditione ac summa Humanitate conspicuo Viro,
D.D. JOHANNI COTTONO,
Equiti Aurato & Baronetto.
Maximo Literarum Literatorumque
Patrono, Domino suo benevolentissimo, ac summâ observantiâ in
perpetuum colendo, Author S.P.D."

Relying upon the fourth line, Mr. Fullerton actually asks me to explain why Sir John Cotton, Bart., of Connington, should be called a "doctor of divinity"; for, he adds, "this D.D. does not seem to be satisfactorily intelligible unless it means doctor of divinity." He also gravely states that he considers the three letters at the end of the inscription, viz., S.P.D., to be a misprint for S.T.D., the usual contraction for Sacrosanctæ Theologiæ Doctori. I should very much like to see his translation of the whole sentence with these substitutions, and would especially ask him where his verb is to be found. I would also ask him if he ever before saw such a sentence in Latin or English, where the D.D. of a doctor of divinity preceded the personal name instead of following it.

But if Mr. Fullerton had condescended to make a little search of authorities, he would have found that the common-law Latin term for a knight is "miles," but the heralds usually use "eques," and for a knight bachelor "eques auratus." Moreover, the usual and proper prefix to the name of a knight is "dignissimus dominus," the equivalent for "most worshipful sir." Here, therefore, is just the explanation needed of the D.D. Finally, a competent authority assures me that the customary phrase at the end would be "salutem plurimam dicit."

Again, Mr. Fullerton translates the long dedication, closing with the words, "Debtor to your noble qualities, Georgius Sylvanus, P.M." He discovers another mare's nest here, and says that he thinks that P.M. stands for M.P., "member of Parliament." But a little search in the proper direction would have shown Mr. Fullerton that Georgius Sylvanus was the editor of divers classical works, and that he therein describes himself as "Pannonius Medicus," or "Hungarian Doctor," being evidently one of the wandering scholars seeking employment wherever learning could find a market.

Having thus easily and decisively cleared up the ridiculous mistakes of the critic, I will spare your readers a recital of the ludicrous errors made in his attempt to bolster up his case. They are not even ingenious, as may be inferred from his argument that we do not "certainly know that the Rev. John Cotton was not a baronet." This line of argument, of course, can be urged in regard to any man or any office. I do not certainly know that Mr. Fullerton is not the true Sir Roger Tichborne, though I feel quite confident that he does not teach Latin in any university nor occupy a position in Heralds' College in London. POCOMAS.

BOSTON, St. Patrick's Day, 1887.

THE CHICAGO DEATH-RATE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The letter on "Results of Sanitary Inspections in Chicago," in No. 1133 of the *Nation*, gives data for only six years in regard to the mortality of that city. That period is too short to enable the reader to arrive at the best conclusions. As Mr. Bemis shows in his table, the death-rate in 1886 in Chicago was considerably lower than in 1881. But the value of his conclusion is neutralized somewhat by the fact that in the years 1859-62, 1865, 1867, 1875, and 1877-79, also, the death-rates were lower than in 1881. If we compare groups of years, we find that the average death-rate in Chicago for 1880-84 was 21.83, while for 1875-79 it was 18.51; showing that for the five years 1880-84 there was an actual increase, compared with the preceding five years, in the number of deaths to each 1,000 inhabitants. The following table for Chicago is of interest:

Years.	Average annual death-rate from all causes per 1,000 living.
1855-59	23.12
1860-64	18.83
1865-69	22.10
1870-74	23.70
1875-79	18.51
1880-84	21.83

My authority for these figures is an article by Erwin F. Smith on the "Influence of Sewerage, etc., on Death-rate in Cities," published by the Michigan State Board of Health. This pamphlet presents a vast amount of statistics compiled by Mr. Smith himself in a most painstaking manner.

While the death-rate of Chicago is undeniably low compared with that of other cities, yet the decline of its death-rate has not been so rapid as in New York or Brooklyn. I would refer to pages 138 and 139 of the pamphlet mentioned. St. Louis, while exhibiting a more marked decline in its death-rate, has also fewer deaths per 1,000 of her population than Chicago.

The general truth seems to be that the introduction of sewers and common water supplies into cities lessens the number of deaths from typhoid fever and kindred diseases, while it has little or no influence upon diphtheria, scarlet fever, and smallpox. This, in regard to diphtheria, etc., is contrary to the usual opinion; but it is demonstrated by Mr. Smith's paper. My present purpose, however, is to show that in a long time the number of deaths in Chicago from diphtheria has steadily increased. The same can be said of Boston, Baltimore, New York, Brooklyn, and St. Louis. As diphtheria is a "wave" disease, we must, to be accurate, make comparisons of the averages of groups of years. Thus in 1860–64, in Chicago, the average number of deaths from diphtheria per 10,000 inhabitants was 8.3; in 1880–84 it was 11.9.

For success in preventing sickness and death from the dangerous communicable diseases like diphtheria, something more than good sewers and pure water and general cleanliness must be relied upon. William Squire, M.D., of London, Eng., in the *British Medical Journal* of October 30, 1886, says:

"Diseases propagated by personal infection, such as scarlet fever and smallpox, have shown no diminution under our extensive sanitary works, but require measures of isolation for their control; they are not checked by the great improvements in drainage and water supply that have proved so efficacious against the prevalence of diarrhœal diseases, and especially in diminishing the amount of enteric fever. Both these points are proved in the reports of the Registrar-General."

This has a lesson for our boards of health. The prompt isolation of the patients, and the thorough disinfection of clothing, bedding, rooms, etc., are measures that should be enforced in cases of diphtheria and like diseases.—Yours truly,

H. M. H.

MICHIGAN, March 18, 1887.

A CARELESS AUTHOR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Prof. Laurie's recent book on 'The Rise and Early Constitution of Universities,' in Dr. Harris's "International Education" series, is so useful and so pleasantly written that it may seem hypercritical to indulge in any strictures upon matters which neither affect the general plan nor essentially contribute to the formation or elucidation of his views. At times, however, this work bears such marks of extreme haste in its composition, and the author's use of materials is so uncritical, that the thoughtful reader is likely to conceive a prejudice, and the authority of the book to be unduly weakened.

For example, we find the following on page 35: "Bede says, according to Newman, that in his time there were monks in England who knew Latin and Greek as well as they knew their mother tongue; but, according to Mullinger, this was said by him only of Albinus, who was taught Greek by Theodore." Is it not incredible that the Professor of the Institutes and History of Education in the University of Edinburgh should pen this statement without even taking down the 'Ecclesiastical History' from his library shelf, and endeavoring to effect a reconciliation between the two writers whom he quotes? Had he done so, he would have found (Hist. Eccl. iv, 2—I quote from Moberly's edition): "Indicio est quod usque hodie supersunt de eorum discipulis, qui Latinam Græcamque linguam æque ut propriam in qua nati sunt, norunt." This is, then, the authority for Newman's statement. Again (v, 20): "Albinus discipulus ejus qui monasterio ipsius in regimine successit, in tantum studiis scripturarum institutus est, ut Græcam quidem linguam non parva ex parte, Latinam vero non minus quam Anglorum, quæ sibi naturalis est, noverit." And thus Mullinger's assertion is substantiated. But not only is there no conflict between the views adduced: there is even a superfluity of evidence in favor of the main proposition. Thus (Hist. Eccl. v, 8): "Tobiam pro illo consecravit, virum Latina, Græca et Saxonica lingua atque eruditione multipliciter instructum." In v, 23, Bede again says of Tobias: "Cum eruditione litterarum vel ecclesiasticarum vel generalium, ita Græcam quoque cum Latina didicit linguam, ut tam notas ac familiares sibi eas quam nativitatis suæ loquelam haberet."

Prof. Laurie's orthography of proper names is sometimes peculiar. He writes now "Salerno," and now "Salernum"; always "St. Galle"; and always "Lancfranc," against the consensus of modern usage. Curiously enough, too, the "Cairo" of page 88 becomes "Babylon" on page 99, and in this he is followed by Dr. Harris (pp. xviii, xix), who must have been aware of their identity.

ALBERT S. COOK.

BERKELEY, CAL., March 7, 1887.

THE TRANSFORMATION OF SURNAMES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I should like to contribute one or two instances, in addition to those given by your correspondent in No. 1133 of the *Nation*, illustrative of the facility with which the surnames of foreigners—especially those of French origin—are transformed after settlement in rural New England.

Something like a quarter of a century ago two brothers, John and Louis Le Ware, from Canada, became residents of this town. Both have since raised large families here. John and his descendants have kept their original name (now written Leware). The family name of the other brother was long since transformed to *Lovell*, by which he and his posterity of two generations are so universally known, both in speech and writing, that the former name, now obsolete and forgotten, would not be recognized.

Fifteen years ago, perhaps, another Canadian Frenchman, Joseph Simoneau, settled here. This name was soon Anglicized into *Simonds*, by which the family are now almost universally known, although it is still occasionally written Simoneau. Before a generation has passed, however, the latter name will doubtless be wholly disused and forgotten.

Such instances as the above are curious illustrations of the habit of domination of the Anglo-Saxon mind, the world over, when brought into contact with other races, in moulding language, laws, manners, etc., into conformity to itself.

M. E. G.

NORWICH, VT., March 19, 1887.

Notes.

THE completion, by Mr. Henry C. Lea, of the History of the Inquisition of the Middle Ages, to which he has closely devoted himself for many years, is a very gratifying event, both in the interest of American scholarship and as a sign of the author's restoration to health. Mr. Lea's originality of research and exposition is of a kind that leaves little scope to the reviewer. The date of publication is not yet determined.

Fords, Howard & Hulbert announce 'A Summer in England with Henry Ward Beecher,' by Maj. J. B. Pond, his travelling companion. There will be a photographic portrait frontispiece.

Thomas Whittaker will issue Canon C. A. Row's 'Future Retribution viewed in the Light of Reason and Revelation,' and the Rev. E. Hatch's 'Early History of Christian Institutions.'

Wm. S. Gottsberger will publish on March 26 'The Bride of the Nile,' a romance by Georg Ebers, from the German by Clara Bell, in two volumes.

James Pott & Co. have undertaken the sole agency for Bagster's Bibles in this country.

We have lately had from Geo. Routledge & Sons a sumptuous edition of 'Les Misérables' in English. Mr. W. R. Jenkins now proposes to make a new edition of the original French, manufactured wholly in this city in five duodecimo volumes. Mr. Jenkins has also in press 'La Lingua Italiana,' by Prof. T. E. Comba—a text-book in the "Natural Method"; 'Livre des Enfants,' a French primer, by Paul Bercy; and 'Contes tirés de Molière,' by Prof. Alfred M. Cotte, who has had Lamb's 'Tales from Shakspere' in mind as a model.

The American Economic Association announces 'The Relation of the State to Industrial Action,' by Prof. Henry C. Adams, professor of political economy in Cornell University and the University of Michigan, to be issued March 25.

Mr. Andrew Lang is editing the old English translation of 'Cupid and Psyche' (1566), to which he will prefix a paper on the transmigrations and transformations of the myth.

It is always well to know who did the historic deed which men incline to celebrate—for instance, who abolished slavery in the United States. Some say the Rev. George Bourne, because he first formulated immediate and unconditional emancipation. Some say Benjamin Lundy, because he first dropped everything else in order to labor for emancipation. Some think Garrison had a hand in it because he first organized the anti-slavery sentiment of the country on the basis of immediatism. Others think the genuine emancipator was the political abolitionist, say J. G. Birney and the Liberty party; or the Republican party, first to elect an anti-slavery Presidential candidate. John Brown paved the way for this success, say others still, and made a war for freedom inevitable. Lincoln, finally, did actually sign and utter the edict of emancipation. Here is choice enough, without mention of Mrs. Stowe and 'Uncle Tom's Cabin.' But it is the object of a small pamphlet, 'The New-England Emigrant Aid Company, and its influence, through the Kansas contest, upon national history' (Worcester, Mass.), to call attention to the claims of its author (as the founder of the Company) to have been the first to knock the bottom out of the "peculiar institution." The lectures here reproduced were given before the Worcester Society of Antiquity, and are only the prelude to a larger work of the same purport. In it Mr. Thayer will doubtless settle the question of the interference of his patent right of killing slavery, by free-labor colonizing cordons, with that of Benjamin Lundy a quarter of a century earlier.

Two years ago Mr. Theo. L. DeVinne read a paper before the Grolier Club on 'Historic Printing Types'; and now two hundred copies of this lecture have just been printed for the Grolier Club at the author's own press. It is a delight to see a book whose mechanical execution is of so high an order, and whose literary quality is quite worthy of its beautiful setting. Mr. De Vinne traces the modifications of the movable letter from John Fust and Peter Schoeffer to the latest (and most ugly) novelties of the type-founders of to-day. He has adorned his broad and beautiful pages with an abundance of facsimiles and reproductions. Nowhere else can so much information on the subject be found collected together, but there is, nevertheless, a hope that Mr. De Vinne will expand his treatment in a larger work procurable (no doubt) by the public at large.

Uniform with Mr. DeVinne's book, the Grolier Club has also issued Mr. Robert Hoe's lecture on

'Book-Binding as a Fine Art,' illustrated by many examples from his own collection, reproduced by the Bierstadt process. We may note a strange slip on p. 7, where Mr. Hoe speaks of the MM. Marius Michel as "a Frenchman."

A new volume of vacation travels of the light, entertaining sort which seems to be an increasingly popular form of literature, is issued by Roberts Brothers, Boston, under the title 'Cathedral Days,' by Anna Bowman Dodd. It narrates the incidents of a driving tour through southern England. The writer takes a special interest in architecture, and gives a fuller account of the cathedrals seen than of anything else; but the text is by no means confined to such subjects—the landscape, the inns, the rustics, the fairs, and the country seats all receiving their share of attention. The journey was made in a "trap" with only one companion, and a good deal of its six weeks' pleasure has found its way into these pages.

The 'Satchel Guide to Europe' of Houghton, Mifflin & Co. reaches this year a sixteenth edition, with very slight and immaterial changes in its last year's contents.

Readers of *Outing*, our open-air sporting contemporary of excellent repute, will recognize familiar matter in 'Yachts and Yachting' (Cassell & Co.)—Capt. R. F. Coffin's history of American yachting, in six chapters to 1885; the *Mayflower-Galatea* races of 1886, by Charles E. Clay; American steam yachting, by Edward S. Jaffray; and British yachting, by C. J. C. McAlster. This record, not more comprehensive than convenient for reference, is fully illustrated, mostly by outline sketches by F. S. Cozzens and others.

Mr. Griswold's 'Annual Index to Periodicals [monthly or quarterly]' is now published (Bangor, Me.: Q. P. Index). It is divided into two parts, authors and subjects, reference to and from which is effected with characteristic ingenuity; but the liability to error is enormously increased by the use of such high numerals as 40,000 and its sequence, and Mr. Griswold may ultimately be driven to consider whether he is not paying too dearly for condensation.

Mr. Spofford's 'American Almanac for 1887' (Am. News Co.) rounds out its first decade. It remains the most varied and useful work of the kind in this country in the realm of statistical, financial, and political information.

Mr. T. W. Higginson has reprinted two short articles from the *Atlantic* and *Harper's* in a little Handbook, 'Hints on Writing and Speech Making' (Boston: Lee & Shepard), which is sure to find young readers in plenty, to whom its slight but practical suggestions will be welcome and stimulating.

From Lee & Shepard we have likewise a new edition of Whately's 'English Synonyms Discriminated,' or perhaps we should say a new issue.

A. C. Armstrong & Son put their imprint on a Glasgow edition of Cowper's translations of Mme. de la Mothe Guyon's religious poems, prettily manufactured without and within.

The third and final volume of the 'History of Woman Suffrage' (Rochester: Susan B. Anthony), covering the period from 1876 to 1885, has just been issued. Like its predecessors, it is abundantly supplied with steel portraits of the female advocates of the cause, and it also contains an index to the entire work.

We have the customary supply of Easter leaflets and booklets, each in its proper envelope: from D. Lothrop & Co., Boston, 'Easter Lilies' and 'Sunshine'; from A. D. F. Randolph & Co., the more elaborate 'Easter Lilies,' 'Heartsease,' 'Garden Graith, or Talks among My Flowers,' by Sarah F. Smiley, and 'In Blossom Time: Songs and Ballads of the Spring.' The last two are genuine books, very tastefully attired.

The accomplished translator of Mommsen's 'Roman History,' the Rev. W. P. Dickson, has given us the much desired translation of his fifth volume, and it has been republished by Charles Scribner's Sons. As the original three volumes are made into four in the translation, so the thick fifth volume is divided in two, and the difficulty of numbering them—in the uncertainty as to the bulk of the unpublished fourth volume—has been solved by publishing them with an independent title, 'The Provinces of the Roman Empire,' in two volumes. The maps are reproduced directly from the original, with German names and descriptions. Translation is one of the most difficult forms of composition, and Mr. Dickson is certainly very skilful in it. Occasionally, however, one meets with an expression which is inexact or obscure. For example, take the rendering of a sentence which is perfectly intelligible in the original, but which here (vol. i, p. 21) is far from being elegant or perspicuous—that the region submitted "probably in the form of a dependent principality emerging in the first instance, but of its prince ere long giving place to the imperial procurator, from whom, for that matter, he did not essentially differ."

The extraordinary vogue of Mr. Rider Haggard's 'She' has already invited parody in England, and a burlesque, called 'He,' has appeared. This is chiefly a satire on the attacks on the so-called "literary log-rollers." It is said to be by the author of 'Much Darker Days' (*i. e.*, Mr. Andrew Lang) in collaboration with another humorist (probably Mr. "F. Anstey").

A well-conceived and well executed souvenir series of sketches of Westminster Abbey comes to us from S. Drewett, London (1 Northumberland Avenue, Trafalgar Square, W. C.). The artist, Mr. Alfred Dawson, here contributes six water-color drawings, reproduced, as we judge, by photogravure, with the general effect of etchings and almost of photographs. A very true sense of the picturesque has determined his choice of subjects, which include three exterior views of the Abbey, the interior of the nave, the Poets' Corner, and the doorway of the chapel dedicated to St. Erasmus. Other sketches are to follow. Their scale is about three by four-and-a-half inches. Miss Bradley, daughter of the Dean of Westminster, furnishes a brief descriptive text.

The *Studio* for March fulfils its promise to present its subscribers with an etching, made expressly for that journal by Mr. Sidney L. Smith, after a pastel portrait of the boy John Quincy Adams, at the age of sixteen. This portrait was drawn by one Schmidt at the Hague, and his work is praised by the editor of the *Studio* for great delicacy and refinement. To have preserved this pleasing memorial of one who, if not to be called the greatest of American Presidents, was certainly the best equipped of all the line for such an office, is a service to his countrymen. The boy's expression is roguish, and is heightened by his costume, which is that of a "little man" of the period.

M. Charles Yriarte continues his account of the treasures of Chantilly in *L'Art* for February 15 (Macmillan). There are numerous illustrations after Poussin, Watteau, etc., including Mignard's portrait of Molière. The Princess Demidoff's gallery furnishes a fine open-air landscape ("On the Meuse") by J. Wynants, which has been etched full-page by G. Greux.

The Supplement to the *Nouvelle Revue* of February 15 contains the beginning of what promises to be an extremely charming story by Dostoyevsky, 'Les nuits blanches.' The nights at that period of the summer when the sun does not set till after nine o'clock, and rises about one in the morning, have received this name in St. Petersburg. The title seems significant, not only for the material setting of the story, but for the moral condition of the two actors. So far, it is almost gay and happy, while showing all the strange power of mental and moral revelation to which the author has accustomed us.

Our readers have often heard from us concerning the social-reform movement of M. Le Play which is exercising so salutary an influence in France. Its organ, *La Réforme Sociale*, a fortnightly journal, contains, in its issue for January 1, an article by M. Claudio Jannet, entitled "L'ancien régime en Amérique"—a study of the institutions of the early settlers, based principally upon the publications of the Johns Hopkins University. The writer starts from the assertion of De Tocqueville that the American colonies had a new conception of society and a new type of institutions, and undertakes to show that, on the other hand, the institutions of these colonists were the direct outgrowth of those of the mother country—a view familiar enough to us at the present day, but perhaps a novel one to Frenchmen. Probably nothing is so hard for a Frenchman (or a European in general, for the matter of that) to understand as that English and American liberties are founded upon law and precedent, and not upon vague generalizations. The extravagances and aberrations which the writer cites at the beginning of his article, as accompanying the Protestant Reformation, can be easily matched in Catholic countries. It is not any form of belief, but the existence of a healthy conservatism in the national temper, and a habit of self-reliance, that protect against such extravagances. It is noteworthy that the illustrations of the *ancien régime* described in this article are mainly taken from Protestant colonies.

The *Revue Scientifique* for March 5 contains an interesting account of the valley of the Obi, by M. Ch. Rabot, founded on the work of the Italian traveller, Stephen Sommier, 'Un' Estate in Siberia.' From this it appears that the northern forest limit is receding in Asia as in Europe. According to the author's theory this is due, not to the increase of cold or the violence of winds, but to the saturation of the soil. He believes that since the glacial age there have been successive periods of dryness and humidity, and that the forests which have grown in the one are succeeded by mosses in the other. In support of this view he points out the fact that trees are still to be found in places where there is drainage. Descriptions are given of the summer and winter dwellings of the Ostiaks and Samoyeds, who constitute the principal part of the scanty population, their dress, religion, and marriage customs. The Ostiaks have a special cult for the dead, making an image of one who has died, which they treat in every respect as if it were a living person. They are also believers in spirits, and have mediums whom they always consult before any transaction of importance.

The paper of most general interest in the last number of *Petermann's Mitteilungen* is upon the journey of Messrs. Capello and Ivens across Africa. They left the west coast in April, 1884, having for their main objects the discovery of a trade route to connect the Portuguese possessions on the Atlantic with those on the Indian Ocean, and the determining of the watershed between the Congo and the Zambesi. In neither of these do they appear to have been successful. On reaching the latter river in longitude 24° they proceeded in a northeasterly direction, hoping to gain the east coast by the way of Lake Tanganyika. Disappointed in this by the hostility of the natives, they were obliged to return to the Zambesi, which they followed to the coast. Although little of the territory traversed was new, the numerous observations taken, the careful mapping of their route, and the large collections

made of the fauna, flora, and geology of the interior have given the expedition a high scientific value. An admirable map accompanies the paper. Prof. Fischer completes his account of the changes in the North-African coast, and Prof. Kunze contributes a paper, chiefly tables of observations, on the barometric hypsometry of South America.

By royal decree of Feb. 20, a new and complete edition of the works of Galileo will be published under the auspices of the Italian Minister of Public Instruction, in twenty quarto volumes of about 500 pages each. The task will consume ten years.

We read in the *Courrier de l'Art* that Fanny Zampini Salazaro, daughter of Demetrio Salazaro, the historian of the monuments of southern Italy, has just started *La Rassegna degl' interessi femminili*, whose mission will be to promote not political, but industrial and artistic emancipation and expansion for women. She has the cordial approval of Prof. R. Bonghi.

Recently announced in Italy are an enlarged edition, revised with the aid of fresh documents, of Prof. Villari's 'Savonarola'; the fifteenth volume of Mazzini's writings, with Saffi's invaluable preface; a new volume of poems by Carducci.

A "bloody shirt" campaign document of the late German elections is before us, and shows how the war string was pulled. A folding sheet has on one of the inner pages a map of the Franco-German frontier, with great red squares dotted over the French territory, marked "120,000 men," as at Paris, or 17,500, as at Belfort, or 18,250 at Nancy, etc.—showing, in fact, the disposition of French forces and strongholds with reference to a possible invasion of Germany. On the opposite page are odious tabulated and graphic comparisons of the military strength in peace and war of the two countries, and much other information creating a belief in the hostile intentions of the French. This compilation is professedly made from the official sources enumerated by Maj. E. von Tröltsch, of the Würtemberg army, and is modestly published "im Auftrag der Deutschen Partei." There is no other allusion to the pending elections.

— The April *Atlantic* opens in a novel way with the familiar features of Dr. Holmes, whose portrait is fitly the first to appear in the magazine to which he gave the name at its christening, and in whose fortunes he is fond of manifesting a paternal interest. He continues in this number the diary of his English visit, in which there is nothing more pleasing to the reader than the evident pleasure he himself took in it; though the cuckoo's note in Windsor Forest is a kind of prose poem. The poet of this month, however, is Whittier, whose verses on the conversion of the Indian chief Rain-in-the-Face to the arts of peace breathe that Christian gratulation and hope which entitle him to be called our sacred poet as no one besides is. An interesting paper of Lincoln reminiscence is given by "Edmund Kirke," who in the summer of 1864 published in this magazine an account of an interview with Jefferson Davis, to show that peace was impossible except with disunion. The present article narrates the events that led up to that interview—the hallucination of Col. Jaquess that Providence had chosen him to be a mediator through the Southern Methodist Church, Lincoln's relation to the affair, and subsequently his sending the writer unofficially with Jaquess to sound Davis, for the purpose of showing the North that reunion was not then feasible, as the peace advocates asserted. Lincoln dictated conditions of peace which the writer took down from his lips, among which were an indemnity of five hundred millions for the slaves, amnesty, and immediate representation in the Government on the basis of the voting population. The affair will not bear much emphasis, since it never came into a practical or serious shape. Nothing is more striking in it than the contrast between the large space it filled in the eyes of the actors and the small arc it really occupied in Lincoln's commanding view of the situation. At every step he was in a position to disown it or to avail himself of it, and in fact made use of it to "draw" the enemy for political effect on Northern opinion. As an episode it illustrates his character, but as history it contains only conjectures of events in the settlement of which other methods would have been required, and great forces would have worked with profound modification. A good many people besides McClellan were engaged in personally "saving the country" in those days, and Lincoln gave them every chance.

—The *Harvard Monthly* for March has a letter from Mr. Hamerton reviewing some exceptions taken by Col. Higginson, in an earlier number, to the former's remarks in the *Atlantic*, that literary celebrity is powerful only over a few, and that he would as willingly be overshadowed by an English lord as by an American millionaire. Col. Higginson holds that in this democratic country literary celebrity is powerful over the many, and that the author is not at a social disadvantage with the millionaire. Mr. Hamerton mildly replies that "the form of government has nothing to do with the reading habit," and cites France, as a democracy, to offset the United States, and Italy, as a monarchy, to balance England and Germany, etc. He apparently still believes that here, as in Europe, an author obtains an audience by a process of natural selection from all possible readers, and this audience, according to his individual observation, is constituted of "a few" in the cases of Victor Hugo, Thackeray, Ruskin, and Arnold; they were known, but not read in proportion to their fame. As to the relative estimation of literary celebrity and such visible things as wealth and rank, he clearly remains in an unbelieving state, maugre Col. Higginson's report. The discussion is not very fruitful. Col. Higginson relies for his main point on the vast circulation of journals and magazines; but the portion of their contents which Mr. Hamerton would regard as literature is very small, and it is plain from his instances that Col. Higginson confers the degree of "literary celebrity" with no academical hand. One thing the latter points out with marked emphasis, in contradiction to the conditions in England—namely, that literary men here count for nothing in the universities; but he has Harvard especially in mind.

—In the February number of *Les Lettres et les Arts* (Paris: Boussod, Valadon et Cie.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons) the article to which most readers will turn with the greatest expectation is the one by M. Caro: "Les dernières années de George Sand, d'après sa correspondance." It is not surprising that, for readers of the correspondence itself, M. Caro should scarcely have fulfilled the anticipations to which his own name, as well as his subject, has given rise; still, his long article is interesting even to those to whom the whole is familiar ground. He sketches with a few light strokes the first George Sand, as he calls her, the legendary George Sand of the Quartier Latin, the untiring wanderer over all the highways of Europe, especially those of Bohemia, accentuating the picture by a summary of Alfred de Musset's 'Merle blanc'; but he depicts with care the second George Sand, the George Sand of the peaceful later years at Nohant, as she appears in her correspondence with the authors who were her friends. M. Caro has not attempted to give any idea of these letters, not even of those to Flaubert, upon which he dwells the longest; but, within the narrow limits of the space at his disposal, he does show something of her methods of work and of her conceptions of literary art, and especially of her sympathetic and helpful goodness of heart, and the maternal charm of her relations with all who approached her, which makes her, even for those who know her only through her writings, one of the most gratefully and tenderly loved of authors. Among the illustrations is a small reproduction of Calamatta's portrait of 1836, and an excellent full-page one of Couture's well-known picture of 1850, thus showing M. Caro's first and second George Sand. Another noticeable article, "Opera buffa, opera seria," by M. Armand de Pontmartin, reads like a chapter from some future volume of "Mes Mémoires," of which the first, 'Enfance et Jeunesse' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof), was published last year. In this paper he recalls the winter, or rather the spring, of 1830, the last of the Restoration, the interval between the great theatrical battles of the Classics and Romantics over "Hernani," and the Revolution of July. The prettiest illustrations in the number are the picturesque Nuremberg views in the continued story of Mme. Thérèse Bentzon, "À la Sirène."

—The eighth edition of W. W. Story's 'Roba di Roma,' in two neat volumes (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), describes a Rome that has passed away under his own eyes. The revision to which it has been subjected consists of the recurring foot-note that "all this is changed now," the matter having been originally written more than a quarter of a century ago; but this book remains historically one of the very best pictures of both the scenes and the sentiment of Roman life. The author is inclined to lament the ruin of the picturesque and the incursion of the last barbarians, but sensibly concedes that the reform is usually for the good of the nation and the people. The *pifferari* have vanished and ballad-singers are rare; the beggars are restricted, the cabmen have a tariff, the slaughtering of cattle is banished without the walls; the Villas Ludovisi, Massimo, and Negroni are gone, and the railway station and the Via Nazionale have come. The Colonna Gardens are disappearing to make way for "blocks," and now the Villa Borghese, it is threatened, must follow these. The Piazza Navona is no longer flooded for its carnival; the Ghetto submits to sanitary inspection beyond the annual visit of Father Tiber; the great processions, and illuminations, and benedictions of St. Peter suffer eclipse, but the theatres rejoice in gas; costume goes out and fashion arrives; and for a good deal of this Mr. Story expresses sympathetic regret. But read his long chapter on the Ghetto, and one rejoices that Christian iniquity is now ancient, too; and so of many other things. The change in the conduct of funerals and the care of the dead is a great gain in itself, to say nothing of the living. Mr. Story observes that suicide has come in with liberty, and also cruelty to animals, though he ascribes this last to the presence of the carters and other laborers gathered there because of the building operations, and also to bad customs remediable by law. But, all told, one execrates the papal rule and blesses Italy with a good conscience, and bids New Rome god-speed, villas or no villas. Mr. Story's book is not confined to Rome, but makes little excursions into the country, or even as far as to Siena. The charm of the Campagna was never more feelingly described, and the nature of the Italians never more amiably and benevolently illustrated. In fact, Mr. Story loves them so much that he can never repress a sneer at the French, English, and Americans to their advantage. On page 145 we observe an account of Iphigeneia's dream which indicates that the author had not recently read the play in

Euripides; and, on page 168, sentimental mention of a visit of Shelley to Severn, which is mythical.

— Strange as it may seem, there have never been but two editions of Pascal's complete works, although his 'Provinciales' and his 'Pensées' have been reprinted almost a countless number of times. Indeed, if the matter were pressed closely, the two editions would resolve themselves into one work, for that of 1819 is little more than a reproduction of the one of 1779. A couple of very cheap reprints which purport to reproduce these do not deserve to be considered. But now the publishing house of Hachette has at last begun, in the collection known as "Les Grands Écrivains," an edition of Pascal which promises to be more complete than any hitherto issued. The editor, M. Prosper Faugère, is a veteran in Pascal literature. As early as 1844 he gave an edition of the 'Pensées,' which was a revelation as to what the original text really was. And now he returns to what was "one of the first admirations" of his youth. The first volume of his 'Blaise Pascal' (Paris: Hachette; Boston: Schoenhof), just published, contains only the first twelve "Provinciales," which he reproduces, not from any previous edition, but from a manuscript in his own possession, which he surmises to have been made about the year 1659, three years after the publication of the first letter. In this manuscript M. Faugère finds readings and minute changes in which he thinks he sees the correcting hand of Pascal. He therefore chooses it for his text, giving at the bottom of the page all the different readings of other editions. As to other notes, the new editor is very sparing in his information, and in this respect the present edition of Pascal will be very unlike those of the other great writers in the same collection. Indeed, except for the general appearance of the volume, it does not seem to be made on the same plan as the excellent editions of Saint-Simon, Corneille, Mme. de Sévigné. Yet where can a reader be more in need of appropriate notes than in reading the 'Provinciales,' full as they are of allusions to disputes about what were burning questions in 1656, and now are as things of a remote antiquity?

— M. Ernest Havet, whose edition of Pascal's 'Pensées' holds so high a rank, has now published 'Les Provinciales' (Paris: Delagrave; Boston: Schoenhof). He has chosen for his text the primitive version of the Letters, as they were published, one by one, beginning in January, 1656. His reason for not following the example of other editors, who have reproduced the last edition, corrected and revised by Pascal himself, is, that the 'Lettres Provinciales,' owing to their polemical and aggressive character, are to be considered in the same light as newspaper articles. The corrections made when they were collected into a volume were made by the author often to satisfy others rather than himself, so that the present editor may well say: "It was rather Port-Royal than Pascal that published these letters." M. Havet has not thought it well to reproduce the orthography, and he has, in every case, given the readings of subsequent editions at the foot of the page. The long introduction of eighty-nine pages gives all the information necessary for a full understanding of the Letters, each of which is in turn followed by several pages of *remarques*, on the language as well as on the subject matter. M. Havet is no friend of the Jesuits, as may be seen whenever he has occasion to speak of the order; nor is his edition wholly favorable to the Port-Royal side of the questions discussed. The doctrines of grace and predestination find little favor in his sight, and this he shows, even in the school edition he has prepared of Letters 1, 4, 13, 14 (Paris: Delagrave; Boston: Schoenhof). In these the comments are such that perhaps the Municipal Council of Paris itself might accept them. We have, therefore, in M. Havet's edition of the 'Provinciales' an extended historical and literary commentary; the first published in France which is prompted neither by the Jansenists nor by the Jesuits.

—'Academica Juventus: Die deutschen Studenten nach Sprache und Sitte, lexicographisch, histo- und anthropologisch dargestellt von Herodotus junior aus Halikaparnass' (Celle and Leipzig: August Schulze. 1887) is written throughout in a very facetious vein, which at times becomes somewhat tiring. But those uninitiated in the mysteries of German student-life will find in its pages much to amuse and instruct them. The booklet will also supplement the knowledge of many Englishmen and Americans, who, while studying in Germany, did not assiduously attend the *Kneipe*, or otherwise come into very close contact with the students. In the Preface the author speaks of his work as a contribution to the "natural history" of the German student, to remind alumni of joyous days long past, and to serve as a guide to the young student about to enter the unknown *civitas academica*. The information contained in the book is arranged alphabetically. Here are a few of the many words and customs that are explained: Angströhre, Belegbogen, Blume, Brüderschaft, Burschenschaft, Collegienbuch, Commers, Famos, Bemoostes Haupt, Altes Haus, Immatrikulieren, Katzenjammer, Kneipe, Landmannschaft, Mensur, Philister, Prosit, Salamander. Subjoined are a few definitions that are doubtless new to many Americans: a broom (*Besen*) is a servant-girl or waitress; to call a person learned (*Gelehrter*) is, according to the canons of beer-etiquette, an insult, which must be duly revenged; a coat is said to "learn Hebrew" when it is pawned; *holzen* means to beat; a student "lies in the basket" when he is confined to his room on account of a duel on the "Mensur"; "to ox" (*ochsen, büffeln*) is to study hard; old sack (*alter Sack*) = old friend, 'old fellow'; moss (*Moos*) is a paternal remittance of money; sausage ("Es ist mir Wurst")=indifferent. If "Herodotus junior" had treated the subject more seriously, and devoted more attention to student customs, he would have added very much to the value of his book.

MAUDSLEY ON THE SUPERNATURAL.

Natural Causes and Supernatural Seemings. By Henry Maudsley, M.D., LL.D. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1886. 8vo, pp. viii, 368.

Dr. Maudsley, after his early successes, undertook years since the rôle of a sort of Polonius among psychologists. His latest works show that he is still advancing in a knowledge of his part. Insufferably long sermons, full of rambling and disordered references to Saint Theresa, to the insane, to the confessions of St. Augustine, to the fallacy of human testimony, to the shortness of human life, to the Hindu devotees, to cerebral physiology, to poetry, to metaphysics, to altruism, and to the hallucinations of Swedenborg—such, of late years, are Dr. Maudsley's contributions to science. The present volume is a rather extreme case of this abuse of the privileges of a distinguished position. Because Dr. Maudsley was, not so very long ago, a leading expositor of modern psychology, why must he now deem himself called upon to harangue the world in this dull and useless fashion about the evils of superstition, the terrors of the dark ages, and the sinfulness of mankind? When we want to be scolded, are there not old-fashioned preachers enough in existence to do it for us, if we will but go to their churches? Must a reputed leader of thought waste his time in this fashion? And if he persists in doing so, must we not ere long begin to doubt the soundness of his reputation itself?

In the seventeenth century, Dr. Maudsley's train of thought, as we find it expressed in this book, would indeed have been more useful. His refutation of witchcraft would have been in place, his triumphant exposure of the doctrine of signatures might have done good, his views about general philosophy would have been worthy of even an enlightened thinker of the time, and the tone of this treatise would thus have been more in harmony with some of the most valuable tendencies of the century. Addressing as he does this age, Dr. Maudsley has to be judged not by his matter but by his style, for he says nothing that is now in the least needed by those who are capable of understanding him. His style in this volume, however, is a hopeless mixture of the commonplace and the confused. It is at times almost incoherent. It is never worthy of his former fame.

The present volume may indeed have been suggested by the existence and the baleful influence of the English Society for Psychical Research. That organization has undoubtedly made more than one bad blunder in the conduct of its work. Intelligent and severe criticism it certainly ought to receive. But Dr. Maudsley here offers nothing that can be called either intelligent, or, for sensible readers, severe, criticism of any present and genuine investigations into anything by anybody, unless the commonplaces of his first two chapters, wherein the simplest of the well known fallacies of induction are diffusely and solemnly set forth and blamed, can be called such criticism. In all save these first chapters, he tells us how the human imagination must be kept within bounds, how persons of nervous temperament are subject to hallucinations, how such hallucinations have in the past influenced religions, how all religious ecstasy is more or less abnormal, and how, in general, supposed supernatural interference in human affairs must be traced to some form of human delusion. All this, mingled with reflections as aforesaid, makes up Dr. Maudsley's argument. Superstition is, he assures us, pathological in its origin and highly injurious in its individual and social consequences. Hence we should actually go so far as to eschew superstition. We should even believe that we "come into being by natural laws, and by no other laws." We "must be convinced of the futility of pouring forth lamentations and supplications to invisible powers"; and after this there must occur an "evolution of the living sentiment of human solidarity," whereby the world will be saved and religion replaced. Beyond this rather familiar and ancient diet, the reader of Dr. Maudsley's book will find in it no mental food worth talking about.

To a writer of Dr. Maudsley's position, however, is of course due a report of the contents of his book, although we can give no space to detailed discussion. After a summary "Statement of the Argument," the author goes on, in Part I (pp. 7-145), to discuss the "fallacies incident to the natural operations of the mind." These are, in chapters i and ii, the regular fallacies of induction, restated and illustrated; while, in chapter iii, the activity of the imagination is similarly treated. The result of the argument, so far, is to show that a false belief in supernatural agencies can spring up through these relatively normal fallacies. In Part 2, "Unsound Mental Action," as a source of belief in the supernatural, is discussed in five chapters (pp. 149-261). Part 3 is devoted to the explanation and demolition of "The Attainment of Supernatural Knowledge by Divine Illumination," and contains seven

chapters. The normal causes of error, and the much more potent abnormal sources of human delusion, having now been discussed, the author proceeds (p. 354, *sq.*) to summarize his results. "Malobservation and misinterpretation of nature" are the sources of all belief in the supernatural; and supernatural phenomena "have not ever been, nor are ever now, events of the external world, but have always been, and are, fables of the imagination." These are Dr. Maudsley's highly novel conclusions.

One curious problem, however, as we feel impelled to add, remains in this, as in Dr. Maudsley's previous books, wholly unsettled; and that problem concerns the author's personal views about the worth of life. If in the midst of these sermons of Dr. Maudsley's we were not always meeting with lamentations concerning human misery, and even with grave suggestions that the life of man is once for all a vain show, we should never think of vexing ourselves with Dr. Maudsley's opinions upon so metaphysical a topic. But the frequent occurrence of certain remarks in our author's writings has aroused in us a certain languid curiosity such as we cannot manage to feel concerning anything else that Dr. Maudsley of late years has chosen to mention. In his 'Body and Will' we seem to remember a passage where he declares pessimism to be a pathological phenomenon, a symptom of initial mental decay. We also seem to remember another passage where he confessed that, on the whole, he was a pessimist himself. The combination of these passages, as we remember them, has always produced in us a bewildered impression; and we have looked with interest to the present discussion for more light. We fail to get it. Dr. Maudsley sometimes hopes much of "human solidarity," and at such moments thinks that this "solidarity" will make us a very happy folk indeed some day, *if* it only becomes the triumphant principle of human nature. But, in other passages, he appears once for all to despair of us, now and hereafter. There seem to be, he tells us (p. 240), three classes of persons taking "leading parts in the great drama of human life." These are the "dupes," the "dupers," and the "duped dupers." He defines all three classes at some length. The "dupes," namely, believe "the great drama of human life" to possess "transcendent importance"; they "take it in tragical earnest," and are "ready to sacrifice strength and wealth and even life in its service." That, in fact, is what makes them dupes. The "dupers" are the actors and hypocrites of the world; the "duped dupers" are the people who, like certain reformers, combine selfishness with earnestness, and so become a kind of sincere impostors. These, then, are the typical men of this planet. As for the value of life under such circumstances, Dr. Maudsley admits (p. 143) that, "to the race, as to the individual, wisdom cannot fail to bring disillusion, and increase of knowledge to be increase of sorrow." He especially associates this "increase of sorrow" with the decline of supernaturalism. And, on page 145, he admits that good and heroic deeds, viewed from a standpoint outside the life of man, "may not be of any more moment than the devoted zeal and self-sacrifice of a toiling ant in the busy service of its colony." In short, to judge from all these passages, and others as well, Dr. Maudsley is an out-and-out pessimist.

Yet, on p. 362, we hear of an "enthusiastic optimist" who believes that "incalculable gains" and that "a vast height of power and happiness" await mankind whenever we shall have gotten rid of all forms of superstition. This person is even called, on p. 363, a "scientific optimist," and Dr. Maudsley seems for the instant to sympathize strongly with his glowing hopes. These are of a kind often referred to elsewhere by Dr. Maudsley; but he leaves all such hopes withered at last when he says, in the last sentence of his book, that whatever man is destined to become, we can hardly help feeling the conviction that it were something better for man "not to be, at the cost of what he has been, is still, and must continue to be in the long and painful process" of reaching the highest development. We see, then, how deeply Dr. Maudsley suffers from that "conviction of the utter vanities of all things under the sun," which, in 'Body and Mind,' he classes among the "forewarning intimations of inevitable decline and death," and distinctly calls a "malady of self-consciousness." Nay, this conviction he even names, in the cited passage, together with "thin and shrieking sentimentalities" and "metaphysical disquisitions," as among the prominent ills of modern life. But still, after all, we will not lose hope for Dr. Maudsley. May he quickly recover from all "maladies of self-consciousness," and long escape any more "forewarning intimations." But may he also never again write such a book as this one on the "Supernatural."

THE STORY OF KASPAR HAUSER.

Kaspar Hauser: Eine neugeschichtliche Legende. Von Antonius von der Linde. 2 vols. Wiesbaden. 1887.

EVERY one knows the story of Kaspar Hauser; all have been moved to pity at the tale of his confinement in a small dark cell without room to walk or stand—sitting there day and night from early infancy until his seventeenth year; shut off from all the world except the monster who gave him his daily bread, and the companionship that two wooden horses could afford him. Suddenly taken from this living death, he is deserted in the streets of Nuremberg with a letter to a cavalry captain in his hand. Thrown into prison as a helpless wayfarer, he becomes an object of curiosity, and, through the publication of his wonderful story by the Burgomaster, of hero-worship. Thousands travelled to see the "child of Nuremberg." Princes and noblemen paid him tribute. It became the fashion for ladies to dote on him. Scientists studied him as the embodiment of nature's most hidden secrets. Educators hailed him as the realization of Rousseau's Émile. Philanthropists made him the object of their special care. His wonderful story was translated into all civilized languages, and it was proposed to adopt him as the child of Europe. And yet all this honor, this attention, this pity, and this study was worse than misplaced—it was ridiculous. The history of popular delusions has been enriched in the nineteenth century by a deception no less thorough than the South Sea Bubble or the divine claims of the mesmeric fluid. The story of Kaspar Hauser is a myth. How did the myth arise? To answer this question Herr von der Linde has written two large volumes—on the whole, much too honorable a tombstone for Kaspar Hauser.

The facts of the case are brief and direct. They are recorded in the official protocol of the district courts on the few days following the lad's appearance in Nuremberg (May 26, 1828) *before* the "child of nature" myth was invented. This testimony is duly attested and registered; not a single authentic fact was ever added to it. From here on, the story rests only upon Kaspar's own narrations, suggested to him by the stupid credulity of his questioners and by the love of notoriety. From the official records we learn that Kaspar spoke with strong dialectical peculiarities, walked nearly a mile through the city, wrote his name, recited the Lord's Prayer, said that he had gone to school, showed his fondness for horses; and that by means of the letter which he presented on his appearance in Nuremberg he wanted to be enrolled as a trooper. For the rest, he feigned simple-mindedness to avoid inquiry into his antecedents, and answered all inconvenient questions with "Don't know." The justice recorded the suspicion that the fellow was a simulator. The letter is so framed as to block all inquiry and to quiet suspicion. It says that the boy has been kept in the house all the time, and no one knows of his existence; that he has no money, does not know where he came from, and wants to be a trooper; and that his handwriting is just like that of the writer of the letter. In it is contained a note purporting to have been written sixteen years previously by the mother of the child, but, as was afterwards proved by experts, written on the same paper, with the same ink, by the same hand. As a disguise, it was written in Latin characters. Both epistles are full of dialectic peculiarities and gross errors in grammar and spelling, many of which are repeated in Kaspar's later exercises. This is about all that was known of him. On the basis of this the rumor spread like fire that a wild boy, who did not know who he was or where he came from, was confined in the tower. Every one came to see him, and added to the wonder. He knows nothing of his childhood; ergo, he has been cut off from all humanity; ergo, he is a wild child of nature; ergo, he cannot talk or understand language; ergo, he is an innocent babe; ergo, he is a curiosity. Kaspar accepted the rôle, kept himself as passive and as stupid as possible, and in a few days was buoyed up into fame in an atmosphere of wonder and credulity. Only five days after his appearance Dr. Preu announces that "this lad is neither crazy nor idiotic, but has evidently been violently estranged in the most shameful manner from all human and social culture. . . . He is like a half-wild man brought up in the woods. . . ."

Meanwhile Kaspar was making gigantic strides towards civilization. Though at first he could only blurt out the most simple questions, and could understand only such as treated him like an infant, yet in three days he performed on the piano, soon afterwards knitted a stocking, and, before five weeks were over, had been able to inform the Burgomaster of his entire history. This the Burgomaster published in a long proclamation (33,000 words), in which the whole story is told from the point of view of the "wild boy of nature," and every suggestion of Kaspar's elaborated and expounded as gospel truth. This proclamation, though afterwards amplified and embellished with all the fantastic additions and details that credulity and vivid imagination could furnish, is the real source of the Kaspar Hauser Myth. Had this enterprising Burgomaster waited for the answer of the superior court to which he had submitted the document, he would have learned "that in the official records there was not even the slightest trace" of all this myth; that "the whole story was full of mythical and improbable circumstances as well as of inexplicable contradictions," and so on. But all this came too late.

Kaspar was put into the hands of a Prof. Daumer to be educated. Daumer was author of works on the 'Glory of the Holy Virgin,' 'The Fire and Moloch Worship of the Hebrews,' and on the 'Anthropophagism of the Apostles.' Under this master in one month Kaspar became a model of social elegance, playing at chess and checkers, carrying on witty conversations by the hour, making graceful allusions to the ancient Romans, and yet withal as innocent as a babe. The child of nature proves to be "a sensitive." It is observed that he sees a gnat in a spider's web at a considerable distance long after twilight; recognizes persons by their walk at incredible distances; distinguishes between an apple, a pear, and a plum tree by the smell of their leaves when others can scarcely see the trees, and

is overpowered by the odors of a graveyard several streets off. Nay, more, he is a magnetic sensitive. He distinguishes all sorts of metals by their attractions for his fingers, and finds a needle in the same way. A hardware shop causes the most violent shudderings and contortions. He is even made an unimpeachable witness to the truth of homœopathy, the profession of the experimental Dr. Preu.

What more than anything else served to keep afloat the belief in Kaspar's story were the (supposed) attempts to murder him. The first occurred on October 17, 1829, under such circumstances as to leave him the sole witness in the case. He reported that the monster who confined him had attacked him and fled. The surgeons, on examining the wound and hearing Kaspar's story, reported that the wound was self-inflicted, probably with a razor. Of course, afterwards, village gossips remembered to have seen a suspicious man just at the right time, but no arrest was made. The evidence is completed by the fact that on the morning of this day Daumer and Kaspar had their first falling out. Kaspar was caught in a lie—a circumstance repeatedly observed by the more sensible members of Daumer's family. "Though his (Kaspar's) soul was filled with a childish kindness and gentleness, which rendered him incapable of hurting a worm or a fly, much less a man; though his conduct in all the various relations of life showed that his soul was spotless, and pure as the reflex of the eternal in the soul of an angel," yet he told a lie—in fact, so many of them that even Daumer had to admit it, and characteristically attributes the fall to the eating of meat.

In consequence of this and other circumstances, Kaspar was removed to Anspach, to the house of a teacher, Meyer, through the patronage of the Earl of Stanhope, who had adopted Kaspar as his son. Meyer recognized in him the realization of Munchausen,* as Daumer had of Émile. Kaspar felt the change of atmosphere, and knowingly adapted himself to it by no longer affecting supernatural sensibility or talking like a madman; but it was of no avail. Meyer's patience gave out, and he told Kaspar that his true character would be revealed to Stanhope. This was the occasion of the second attack, in which the circumstantial evidence against him was even more decisive than before. Kaspar came running home with a wound in his side, and, by pantomime, forced Meyer to return with him to the scene of attack (some distance off), in order to secure a silk bag which the supposed murderer had given him. In the bag was a note (such as no one intent on crime would write) written in mirror-script on paper such as was found torn out of Kaspar's exercise-book. Kaspar had not cried for help, but gave all his attention to finding the bag. The wound proved more serious than was apprehended, and in three days he died, at not over twenty-two years of age and only five years after his first appearance. Though many persons were again brought up as suspected, no commitment was ever made.

To tell of all the speculations regarding Kaspar's origin; of the ridiculous experiments by which it was attempted to prove his descent from a noble Hungarian family (an attempt that led to the insanity of an estimable lady); of the enormous literature invented to prove him an illegitimate descendant of this or that princely house (which eventually called forth a royal decree); of the vile intrigues for which scheming politicians used his name; of the scandalous accusations of innocent and philanthropic men and women—to tell all this swelled Von der Linde's book to two large volumes, and there it can be read in full detail. That Kaspar Hauser, whoever and whatever he was, was able to deceive the world, seems more largely a matter of accident than of designed imposture. Apparently Kaspar used the original device of the letter to gain admittance to the cavalry, his fitness for which he showed by his remarkable performances on horseback. His peculiar surroundings created a rôle for him the utter impossibility of which words cannot exaggerate or describe, but which was accepted by him and applauded by the public. Few, however, of all the competent persons who had opportunities of forming an independent judgment were really deceived. His patron, Stanhope, acknowledged his error, and the literature of 276 numbers shows many attempts to expose the real Kaspar. But when such attempts were commented upon as follows, "If we should ever hear that the author had been put in chains as a maniac, we should not be at all surprised," or "Hell itself has its abominable representatives on earth," it is not surprising that cautious men kept silent. Neither the medical science of today, nor the means of investigation and publicity afforded by the telegraph and the reporter for the daily press, existed to bring the deception to a summary conclusion.

* Kaspar once told that he had had revealed to him in a dream some peculiar Latin words, which, when written down, proved to be part of an ode of Horace, and actually got persons to believe him. He afterwards admitted the deception. Von der Linde gives a catalogue of seventy-two gross deceptions, occurring within a few months, at Daumer's house.

History of the Town of Easton, Massachusetts. By William L. Chaffin. Cambridge: University Press. 1886.

MR. CHAFFIN'S history is sure to take and hold a high rank in the class to which it belongs. Its preparation has been the work of many years, and he has done his task with loving faithfulness. His conscientiousness is evident on every page, but particularly so when he is handling critical matters on which the town has been divided in the past. If he is ever just a little wearisome, it is when he is made so by his almost morbid fear of doing injustice to either party in a quarrel. The most critical case of all is that relating to the parish division upon the lines of the Unitarian controversy in 1831. Mr. Chaffin is now and has been for many years a Unitarian minister in Easton, but the most orthodox will be unable to detect the slightest bias of his theology upon his judgment of that miserable affair. To be full and accurate and conscientious is not enough, however, to make a readable town history. Many town histories are all this and they are insufferably dull. But Mr. Chaffin's for the most part is "as interesting as a novel" of the more interesting kind. His materials were helpful to this end. He has not dressed them up. There is no attempt at vivid or dramatic writing, but his eye is quick to see the force or humor of a situation, and his style does not obscure the natural features of events. His arrangement of his materials is extremely happy, and his handsome volume of 838 pp. octavo is one which, for the writers of more general histories of New England life and manners, will be an inestimable *ménoire pour servir*.

The town of Easton is in the northeast corner of Bristol Co., Mass. Its principal business is that of shovel-making, carried on by the Messrs. Ames, of whom Gov. Ames is now the most conspicuous person. There are other important industries. An account of all of them is given in chapters xxx and xxxiii; an account of their weak beginnings before 1800 in chapter xvi. Although the earliest settlement was not till 1694, the interest and importance of the early history are as predominantly ecclesiastical as with the oldest Massachusetts towns. After three chapters on the topography of the town, the original purchase, and the early settlers, in the fourth chapter we come to Elder William Pratt, and, of the twenty-five chapters following, thirteen are concerned with various aspects of the religious life of Easton. The ecclesiastical history of the town has been singularly checkered. The course of true love never ran less smooth. The first minister, Elder William Pratt, whose ministry began and continued several years before the incorporation of the town, left behind him some remarkable documents from which Mr. Chaffin has liberally quoted. The elder's orthography and piety shine with emulous brightness in the closing passage of an account of his voyage to South Carolina and back, bringing with him Heber and Hager, two negro slaves valued at £50: "But god haveing a design to try & prove us furder, & to sho' his pour & faithfullness, & to mak us pris marsys the mor, cased a violent storm to wris, & driveing us from land again for about a fortnite, but on the 23rd of febuary brought us all safe to land for wch we promised to prais his holy name." Elder Pratt's account of a secret fast he kept in 1699 is extreme in its simplicity. With God's "assistants" he "hild out comfortablely until it was near Night." Here is his recipe for the treatment of a certain ailment: "When nothing Else would do to stop the excessive bleeding at the nous, the pouder of a dryed toad with beeswax hath stoped it: the toad for hast was dryed in the ouven, but it shuld be hung up by the leag, alive until it is dead and dry."

The second minister, the Rev. Matthew Short, belied his name in the length of his discourses, if the one given in the appendix, which was printed by his congregation, is a fair example; but he made it good by the brevity of his settlement, which was cut short by death in 1731. The sermon given is one of the most ponderously huge and elaborately subdivided we have ever seen; but doubtless there were many like it in its generation. The more tragic elements of the ecclesiastical history beginto appear in chapter vii, with the Rev. Joseph Belcher's dissatisfaction with his salary, his insanity, and mysterious disappearance. Hundreds of New England towns have quarrelled over the location of the meeting-house. In Cummington it was moved from place to place so often that it should have been permanently set on wheels. Easton was no exception to the rule. It had its quarrel, which was of twelve years' duration and was complicated with questions of ministerial heresy and probity. The East-enders set up a Presbyterian church. The Baptists objected to being taxed for false doctrine. The morals of the town were not improved by the spectacle of a minister threatening to break the heads of the General Court Committee, and many similar amenities. There was a "decline of Religeon and the Love of many wexes cold." So mourned the Baptists in 1789 when their society was on its last legs. It was a general complaint.

The earlier phase of the Unitarian controversy—that of theological difference—did not begin to be so productive of ill feeling and local strife as the later phase of parochial division, when the question was which of the contending parties should have the church building and the parish funds. In Easton the Unitarians were the stronger in parish voters, the weaker in churchgoers and church members. Mr. Sheldon was a rigid Calvinist, and would not exchange with the Unitarians round about. He was requested to and did not. Then trouble began, and it lasted eight years, with every imaginable variety of complication. There were committees and conferences and councils innumerable. The Unitarian majority put themselves legally in the wrong by refusing to pay Mr. Sheldon's salary, on the ground of his refusing to exchange with other Congregational ministers. There were many painful and some ludicrous situations. Mr. Sheldon assisting, the doors of the pews belonging to his friends in the old meeting-house were

fastened with iron strips and bolts well riveted. The climax of absurdity was reached when the parish party, obliged to pay Mr. Sheldon's salary, required his services. As he was preaching twice a day to his seceded friends, he shortened his sermons to his enemies. But they demanded their money's worth, and they got it full measure, pressed down and running over. Nevertheless, there was a settlement at last, and Mr. Sheldon lived to be a welcome guest in homes from which he had long been excluded. He was an excellent man, yet he dearly loved a fight, and his "staying quality" in the teeth of vigorous opposition was remarkable.

But we must not give the impression that Mr. Chaffin's history is exclusively ecclesiastical. There are admirable chapters on Easton in the French and Indian and Revolutionary war; one on "Old Abandoned Homesteads," and one on the war of 1812, and among the later chapters there are full and interesting ones on libraries, public schools, "shadows" of local slavery and thievery and intemperance; there is one upon highways, and one on burial places. These last have been very numerous in Easton, and lovers of queer epitaphs would do well to consult Mr. Chaffin's pages. The chapter upon Easton in the civil war is the most elaborate in the volume. Even the deserters, of whom there were 18 out of 277 volunteers, are not passed over in silence. The record could afford these dreadful blots. Chapter xxxiv, "Easton in 1886," gives an agreeable picture of the appearance of the town. It is fortunate in having a station, a memorial hall, and a library that were designed by Richardson—the memorial hall, one of his most beautiful buildings. They were all given to the town by members of the Ames family. The Unitarian church and parsonage, hardly less beautiful, came from the same generous hands. There are charming heliotypes of these buildings and of several others—some also of wide views and some of persons; all adding much to the value of the book. There is, finally, an admirable index, and an appendix containing many valuable documentary illustrations.

Tenth Census of the United States. 1880. Vol. xviii. Social Statistics of Cities. Part I. The New England and the Middle States. Washington.

THERE is something in the very appearance of a public document that alarms the general reader. The size is portentous, the shape awkward, the binding unattractive, and the contents usually dreary to the last degree. Wise men, as a rule, cannot be induced to open these books that are no books, unless they are specialists, and specialists are generally disappointed in them. Of this volume, however, we must say that it is interesting. If its form were not so utterly impracticable, we should say that the Government might in this case have received something like an equivalent for its money; but we fear that a quarto nearly a foot square and three inches thick, whatever its contents, can never have many readers. The plan upon which the work was begun involved the writing of the history of every city treated of, from colonial times down to the present day, as a sort of introduction to its statistics—a plan on nearly the same scale as that of Diedrich Knickerbocker, who thought it necessary to start his history of New York with the creation of the world. Thus the historical sketch of Boston occupies 27 pages, that of Philadelphia 38 pages, and that of New York 28 pages, while Providence, Pittsburgh, Rome, and Syracuse get from 15 down to 6 or 7 pages. It was very soon found that at this rate there would be no statistics at all, for the appropriation would be exhausted in paying for historical essays. Accordingly the history of such towns as Hartford, New Haven, and others of equal importance is disposed of in a very summary way, Hartford and Brooklyn, for example, getting each 2 pages and New Haven only 1. So far as they go, these brief sketches seem to be very well done, and although they can hardly be looked upon as essential to the plan of the work, they of course add greatly to its interest. That of New York is by Mrs. Martha Lamb; that of Philadelphia by Susan Coolidge; most of the others are unsigned. The preparation of the report was in the charge of Col. George Waring of Newport, and, with the exception of the extravagance referred to, it is a truly scientific production. Even this extravagance must be judged leniently; for the valuable labors of our historians are generally so ill paid that hardly any one could grudge them this amount of patronage from the Government. In view of the profuse and reckless waste of the earnings of our people of which their representatives are guilty, it is consoling to discover an accidental diversion of a few crumbs to the encouragement of such patriotic labors as these. We should look with apprehension upon any attempt on the part of Congress to patronize literature; but when the disbursement of an appropriation happens to fall into such hands as those of Col. Waring, we can rejoice at the practical results without defending the theory.

The general plan followed in the arrangement of these statistics may be illustrated in the case of the city of Boston. There is given in the first place a small map showing by diverging lines the directions and distances of the principal cities of Massachusetts and the neighboring States, which is flanked by tables of population and followed by a statement of the financial condition of the city. Interspersed through the account are larger maps, exhibiting the original topography and early settlement, together with the present shore-line; the appearance of the city in 1772; the same in 1800; the same in 1814; the areas and dates of annexation of territory down to 1880; the location of the steam railroads and stations in that year; the ground occupied by buildings in that year; the horse railroads; the location of the concert and beer gardens, theatres, halls and lecture rooms, and museums; the hotels, apartment hotels, libraries, school-houses, and churches; the police districts; the societies, secret and benefit, hospitals, asylums, and homes—all clearly printed, but failing to show the streets of 1880 with the old maps in relief, as contemplated by the editor.

The text treats with the detail of an encyclopædia of almost every conceivable element of municipal existence. We have an account of the site and elevation of the city, of the railroads, the tributary country, the topography and the climate. The streets, the parks, the theatres, the churches, the cemeteries, all receive due notice. Then follow accounts of the municipal government in all its branches, finance, police, health, etc; especially interesting accounts of the system of sewers, the schools and libraries, hospitals, dispensaries, and penal institutions; and an essay upon the commerce of the port and the principal industries that centre in Boston. Dry as the list may sound, the particulars are so well arranged and judiciously presented that they are in the main extremely readable. The whole account has a unity that shows a trained sense of proportion in the compiler, and at the same time impresses the reader with a most profound sense of the enormous complexity of municipal existence.

There is perhaps in all this material nothing more striking than what is commonly supposed to be the proper subject-matter of a census—the statistics of population. By the year 1840 the influence of immigration had begun to be felt in Boston. In 1845, out of a population of 114,000, more than 32 per cent. were of foreign birth. This element increased in 1850 to more than 45 per cent., of whom five-sixths were of Irish parentage. From 1850 to 1855 the native population increased by 600, the foreign by 22,000; and in the latter year the balance had turned. In 1820 the foreign-born element had been so small as to be inappreciable; within the period of a generation it increased so as to constitute a majority of the population. Although it is in the nature of the case impossible that this proportion should be maintained, yet in 1875, out of a population of 342,000, 117,000 were foreign-born. In that year to every 100 births of American parentage there were 57 births of mixed and 189 of foreign parentage. In 1878 there were 10,160 births in Boston; of these only 2,874 were of American parents. The descendants of the generation that inhabited Boston in 1820 had become nearly as insignificant in numbers as the foreigners of that day, and their relative strength necessarily diminishes in an increasing ratio. In 1870 it appeared that of the inhabitants of Boston, 150,000 had foreign fathers, the same number foreign mothers, and 142,000 persons had both foreign fathers and foreign mothers.

In view of these facts, it seems remarkable, not that Boston should now have an Irish Catholic for Mayor, but that it did not long since have one. We are almost tempted to believe that a municipality is indeed a vital organism, since it can not only exist but continue its development in spite of such a sudden and complete change in the nature of its population. The moulding power of institutions was never more strikingly manifested; for, in spite of the semi-barbarous condition of the Celtic immigrants, the city seems to be in a sound condition, and the descendants of the original settlers may still look upon it with pride.

Dorothy Wordsworth: The Story of a Sister's Love. By Edmund Lee. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1887.

THE materials for this biography were slight, and consisted of passages already published in other volumes; but something is gained by collecting these and grouping them about one central person. It is very difficult, however, to make the sister of Wordsworth the main subject when he is himself continually in the story; and consequently this volume is rather a fireside view of the poet, a history of his domestic life, than a mere biography of one member of his family. But of Wordsworth's home Dorothy was a large part; through her came at first that womanly influence and sympathetic fostering of his genius, to which, as his poems frequently attest, he felt he owed so much of the felicity of his lot. She was devoted to him in his early years, kept house for him until his marriage, and afterwards continued to reside with him. She entertained his friends, and was prized by all of them. Mrs. Coleridge, in fact, is charged with some feelings of jealousy, and is said not to have relished the freedom with which Miss Dorothy, after returning from a walk with Wordsworth and Coleridge in which a shower overtook them, would go, without permission asked, to the wardrobe and array herself in her friend's gowns. Miss Dorothy was a pedestrian who could not be tired, and, intellectually, too, she could keep the pace. De Quincey gives the most life-like description of her:

"Her face was of Egyptian brown; rarely in a woman of English birth had I seen a more determinate Gypsy tan. Her eyes were not soft, as Mrs. Wordsworth's, nor were they fierce or bold; but they were wild and startling, and hurried in their motion. Her manner was warm, and even ardent; her sensibility seemed constitutionally deep, and some subtle fire of impassioned intel-

lect apparently burned within her, which, being alternately pushed forward into a conspicuous expression, by the irrepressible instincts of her temperament, and then immediately checked, in obedience to the decorum of her sex and age and her maidenly condition, gave to her whole demeanor and to her conversation an air of embarrassment, and even of self-conflict, that was almost distressing to witness. . . . She was a person of remarkable endowments, intellectually; and in addition to the other great services which she rendered to her brother, this I may mention as greater than all the rest, and it was one which equally operated to the benefit of every casual companion in a walk—viz., the exceeding sympathy, always ready and always profound, by which she made all that one would tell her, all that one would describe, all that one could quote from a foreign author, reverberate, as it were, *à plusieurs reprises*, to one's own feelings by the manifest impression it made upon hers."

Of the person and the temperament so well sketched in these lines, this little volume gives as much illustration as could be drawn from the poems, letters, and records of daily life, impressions of visitors, etc., which are to be found in the various Wordsworth memorials; and the book belongs in the library of female biography. The diary of the tour in Scotland, which Prof. Shairp published a few years ago, and some few undistinguished poems, comprise all of the literary work from her hand, unless a few letters to friends are to be included; but it is natural, and it is most fitting, that she should be seen rather in the light which Wordsworth's gratitude and affection cast about her than by her own originality, for if she had any originality, she allowed her brother to absorb it. They were united in unusually close bonds of a common nature, of which his poems were the expression; and in them the softer and feminine element may be regarded as, in a sense, her part. The whole volume breathes the peace, quiet pleasures, and domesticity of Wordsworth's home; and the closing chapters, which contain in few words the story of how his sister's mind became weakened and dull in consequence of a severe illness, and how the care of her was one of the poet's most cherished occupations in his last aged years, are full of pathos. She died in her eighty-third year.

Representative English Prose and Prose Writers. By Theodore W. Hunt, Ph.D. A. C Armstrong & Son. 1887.

THIS is a book excellently adapted to convey practical instruction in the principles and history of English prose composition. The rise and development of the art are briefly outlined, and its stages characterized with understanding and care; then the analytical method is adopted, and the different kinds of prose are defined and described; lastly, the author uses the illustrative mode of exposition, and examines separately and in detail the merits and defects, as prose writers merely, of twelve representative men, *i. e.*, Bacon, Hooker, Milton, Swift, Addison, Johnson, Burke, Lamb, Macaulay, DeQuincey, Dickens, and Carlyle. This last division occupies two-thirds of the volume and is the real matter of it, the earlier parts being of a prefatory nature. In the special criticism of one or two of these authors one could find points upon which to enter protest, but they would be few. The work as a whole is exceedingly well done, and shows thorough study, sound judgment, and a true sense of literary virtues and faults under all their outward changes. The standards of the writer are firmly fixed, and he refers to them with confidence; and it is the confidence born of knowledge. The volume has the great merit of making an instructive study of some of the masters of English serve as an exercise both in style and in criticism. It would be particularly available as an advanced text-book in rhetoric.

Tables for the Determination of Common Minerals. By W. O. Crosby. Boston: Mass. Institute of Technology. 1887.

THE use of systematic tables in determinative mineralogy, is, as Mr. Crosby in his preface very truly says, rather restricted than increased by attempting to embrace all known species, the fact being that beyond the two or three hundred common minerals, the thousand or more rare species are not likely to be often met with by the student or young mineralogist for whom such tables are primarily designed. The professional mineralogist, on the other hand, will have all the facts contained in such tables so completely at his fingers' ends that he will not be likely to make use of such adventitous aids. In preparing his tables, therefore, Mr. Crosby has confined himself to the two hundred most common mineral species, and has restricted the determinative tests mainly to their physical properties, which can be recognized without the complicated apparatus of a laboratory. It is primarily upon their chemical properties that the many sets of tables hitherto published (all founded more or less upon those of Von Cobell) are based, and their use requires at least a blowpipe apparatus, which is not conveniently carried with one in the field. In this respect Mr. Crosby's tables undoubtedly supply a want; but for actual field use they would have been still more convenient had they been published of such size that they could be easily carried in the pocket.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ballou, M. M. Due North; or, Glimpses of Scandinavia and Russia. Boston: Ticknor & Co.
Cope, Prof E. D. Theology of Evolution. Philadelphia: Arnold & Co. 75 cents.
Desjardins, Albert. Les Sentiments moraux au xvie siecle. Boston: Schoenhof.
Dyer, Rev. A. S. The Poems of Mme. de la Mothe Guyon. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.
Featherman, A. Social History of the Races of Mankind. 2d division. 2 vols. London: Trübner & Co.
Frink, B. C. Frauds of the Through Bill of Lading System Exposed. New York: The author.
Fyffe, C. A. A History of Modern Europe. Vol. ii. From 1814 to 1848. Henry Holt & Co. $2.50.
Gates, C. O. Latin Word-Building. Root Words with their more Common Derivatives and their Meanings Illustrated. D. Appleton & Co.
Gift, T. Lil Lorimer: A Novel. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Gift, T. Victorine. [Leisure Hour Series.] Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Gratacap, L. P. Philosophy of Ritual. James Pott & Co. $1.50.
Griswold, W. M. Annual Index to Periodicals for 1886. Bangor, Me: Q. P. Index.
Hill, F. H. George Canning. [English Worthies.] D. Appleton & Co.
Klinghardt, H. Das höhere Schulwesen Schwedens und dessen Reform in modernem Sinne. Leipzig: Julius Klinkhardt.
Lescure, M. de. Etude sur Beaumarchais. Boston: Schoenhof.
Lyly, J. Euphues: The Anatomy of Wit. Heilbronn: Gebr. Henninger.
McCarthy, J. H. Ireland Since the Union. Chicago: Belford, Clarke & Co. $1.50.
Mémoires pour servir à la vie de M. de Voltaire. Paris: Jouaust; New York: Duprat & Co.
Nesbit, E. The Lily and the Cross. E. P. Dutton & Co. 75 cents.
Parker, Dr. J. The People's Bible: Discourses upon Holy Scripture. Vol. v. Joshua—Judges v. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.50.
Peabody, Dr. A. P. Moral Philosophy. A Series of Lectures. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Pearson—Strong. Thirteen Satires of Juvenal. With Introduction and Notes. Part i. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Praed, Mrs. Campbell. Moloch: a Story of Sacrifice. New ed. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 50 cents.
Preston, Rt. Rev. Monsignor R. S. Gethsemane. Meditations on the Last Day on Earth of our Blessed Lord. Robert Coddington.
Proceedings in Senate and Assembly of the State of New York in relation to the Death of Horatio Seymour, held at the Capitol, April 14, 1886. Albany: Weed, Parsons & Co.
Ramsey, Prof. G. G. Selections from Tibullus and Propertius. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Rawlins, F. H. The Last Two Kings of Macedon: Extracts from Livy. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Reed, T. B. History of the Old English Letter Foundries. London: Elliot Stock; New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son.
Reid, C. Miss Churchill: A Study. D. Appleton & Co.
Rhodes, Dr. M. The Throne of Grace, or a Call to Prayer. Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Co. $1.
Robinson, A. Mary F. Margaret of Angoulême, Queen of Navarre. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $1.
Robinson, Dr. C. S. The Pharaohs of the Bondage and the Exodus. The Century Co. 50 cts.
Robinson, Edith. Forced Acquaintances: A Book for Girls. Boston: Ticknor & Co.
Robinson, E. Museum of Fine Arts: Descriptive Catalogue of the Casts from Greek and Roman Sculpture. Boston: The Museum.
Roger Camerden. A Strange Story. George J. Coombes. 50 cents.
Rulers of the World. *School Herald* Extra, for January, 1887. Chicago: W. L. Chase. 25 cents.
Samuels, Capt. S. From the Forecastle to the Cabin. Harper & Brothers.
Satchel Guide for the Vacation Tourist in Europe. 16th ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Scott, Sir W. The Bride of Lammermoor. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.75.
Scott, Sir W. The Heart of Midlothian. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.75.
Spofford, A. R. American Almanac and Treasury of Facts, for the Year 1887. American News Co.
Starck, E. L. Grammar and Language: An Attempt at the Introduction of Logic into Grammar. Boston: W. B. Clarke & Carruth. $2.50.
Stevenson, R. L. Kidnapped. Strange Case of Dr. Jekyll and Mrs. Hyde. Treasure Island. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Stevenson, R. L. The Merry Men, and Other Tales and Fables. Charles Scribner's Sons.

THE FOUNDATIONS OF ETHICS. By John Edward Maude. Edited by William James, Professor in Harvard College. 12mo, $1.50.

VILLAGE PHOTOGRAPHS. By Augusta Larned. 12mo, $1.75. A delightful series of connected sketches of village life. Reprinted from the N. Y. *Evening Post.*

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 259

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS 262

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:

The President and the Republicans 264
Growth of Mugwumpism 264
The Field Code at Albany 265
Taxed and Untaxed Liquor 266
Some Wagner Letters 266

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:

Bradford's Index to Clemencin's Commentary on Don Quixote.—I 267

CORRESPONDENCE:

Wolseley on Lee 269
Woman Suffrage in Massachusetts 269
John Cotton Finally 269
Means and Ends 270
A Workingman's Thoughts on Labor 270
The West Virginia Senator 271
"Blizzard" 271
Anglo-Saxon Pirating 271
The Transformation of Surnames 272

NOTES 272

REVIEWS:

Skeats's Piers Plowman 274
Recent French Books 275
Pomeroy's International Law 277
Recent Novels 278
A Short History of Parliament 278
The Campaign of Fredericksburg 278
Reminiscences of a Country Journalist 279
The Letters of Cassiodorus 279
The Castellated and Domestic Architecture of Scotland 279
Grundriss der romanischen Philologie 280
Histoire de l'Art dans la Flandre, l'Artois, et le Hainaut 280
George Ide Chace, LL.D 281

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 281

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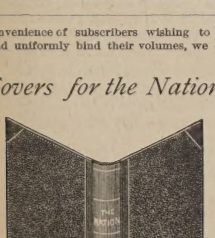

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 31, 1887.

The Week.

THE Republican majority in the Assembly did their party as well as the people of this city a great service on Wednesday week. They both passed the Crosby High License Bill, and adopted several amendments, all of which were improvements, and one of which has greatly strengthened the original measure. As the bill stands now, it not only requires all saloons selling strong liquors to pay an annual license tax of $1,000, but it makes it comparatively easy for the authorities to detect and punish holders of wine and beer licenses who attempt to sell strong liquors on the sly. Under the amended bill any person having a wine and beer license, or storekeeper's beer license, for each of which the tax is $100, who shall keep on hand on the premises any intoxicating liquors other than those permitted in his license, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor and his license shall be forfeited. This disposes of the main objection which has been made to the Crosby bill, namely, that with a liquor license at $1,000, and wine and beer license at $100, holders of the latter would sell strong liquors illicitly, and it would be impossible to detect them. Now it will only be necessary to find the liquors on their premises in order to take away their licenses. Under the present laws it is necessary to prove that they not only have the liquors but have sold them. As amended, the bill is applicable to all cities of 400,000 and more inhabitants, which limits it to New York and Brooklyn.

We do not see how the Prohibitionists are going to continue their warfare against the amended bill, since the additional provision in regard to illicit selling takes away their strongest ground of objection. They can only point to the wide difference between the liquor license fee and that for beer and wine license, but they should remember that, out of about 9,000 licensed saloons in this city, nearly 8,000 have full liquor licenses, and it is upon them that the restraint is needed. We are very glad that all efforts to reduce the $1,000 fee have failed thus far, for statistics all show that any fee less than that is not sufficiently restraining. In the following thirteen cities it will be seen that the number of saloons to population rises pretty steadily in proportion as the license rate goes down:

City.	Saloons.	License.	Saloons to population.
Omaha	176	$1,000	1 to 426
Kansas City	405	845	1 to 309
St. Louis	1,600	550	1 to 312
Chicago	3,760	500	1 to 213
Detroit	1,023	300	1 to 130
Cleveland	1,540	200	1 to 129
Indianapolis	348	200	1 to 288
St. Paul	600	100	1 to 221
San Francisco	2,799	84	1 to 84
Brooklyn	3,000	76	1 to 216
New York	9,197	75	1 to 138
Philadelphia	5,959	50	1 to 142
Baltimore	2,655	50	1 to 115

The obvious fact disclosed is that any fee under $500 is too small to have much restraining influence, and that the moment it rises above that sum the number of saloons begins to fall off.

The tribute which the Pennsylvania Republicans pay to Mr. Randall as a party ally by laying out a Democratic district for him in Philadelphia, would be less marked if this apportionment was merely a natural and just one, made by an equitable division of the territory according to population. But when it is found that in order to keep Mr. Randall, the Democrat, in the House of Representatives, the partisan Republicans at Harrisburg who make the apportionment have gone out of their way to patch him up a district that will give him a Democratic majority, then the value of Mr. Randall as a Republican ally becomes all the more apparent. The arrangement of districts reported by the Committee last week divides those of Philadelphia, according to population and latest vote, as follows:

	Population.	Maj.
First District	166,908	5,024 R.
Second District	139,596	6,056 R.
Third District	108,938	3,586 D.
Fourth District	192,435	9,481 R.
Fifth District	125,000	2,906 R.
Sixth District	119,123	3,951 R.

Thus, in order to make a Democratic majority for Mr. Randall, the Republican legislators have to construct a district which contains nearly 40,000 less population than the average population of the other Philadelphia districts, and 83,500 less than the most populous of these. The Democratic majority in the next House of Representatives will be much more stupid than the average majorities at Washington if, in the face of all the evidence of the value of Mr. Randall to the Republicans, they once more permit him, in terror of the cry of "free trade," to be elevated to a place in which he will have the greatest opportunity to pay his debt to his political opponents.

Mr. Sherman's speech at Nashville is an impressive proof of the decadence of the Republican party. The most striking thing in the development of public opinion in this country since the last Presidential election is the hearty response, not merely of his own party, but of all candid members of the Opposition, to Mr. Cleveland's firm stand against the theory that "the Government should support the people," which is at the bottom of the great river-and-harbor log-rolling bills, the Blair educational schemes, and the high protective duties. The country is evidently with Mr. Cleveland in the firm stand which he has taken against paternalism in government; and the party which presents in 1888 the candidate who best embodies this sentiment, will secure the votes that will decide the election. Yet, with all this as plain as the nose on a man's face, the Republican leader who has been accounted the most promising, deliberately commits his party in all the above particulars to a policy which a nation rejects. This indicates, if it does not prove, that the possibility of again bringing the Republican party abreast with the times is past.

Senator Sherman unconsciously paid a notable tribute to the Democratic Administration in his speech at Nashville. Referring to the denial in times past of equal rights to Southern negroes at the polls, he said: "I was glad to hear, in passing through several of the Southern States, conservative citizens say that public sentiment now revolts at the unlawful methods to defeat the free exercise of equal rights of citizens that have been adopted in several States, and are still practised in what are known as the black counties of the South." This agrees with the observation of Gen. Armstrong of the Hampton (Va.) Institute, who recently made a tour through the South, and who testifies that "a better feeling between the races is setting in" since Mr. Cleveland's inauguration. Such admissions by men like Senator Sherman and Gen. Armstrong, that a Democratic Administration has done more than the Republicans ever were able to do to establish just relations between the whites and the blacks at the South, effectually dispose of the plea that the Republican party ought to be restored to power in the interest of the colored race.

Not a day now passes that fails to bring out some new Republican paper of good standing in its State against the renomination of Mr. Blaine by the party next year, and this continues to be particularly true of the West, where the Blaine craze used to be so strong. In Iowa the protest of the *Hawkeye* in Burlington is promptly re-echoed by the *Nonpareil* in Council Bluffs, which "submits to its readers the query whether Mr. Blaine was not in 1884, like Mr. Clay in 1844, at the height of his strength," and follows it up with these other queries: "Is it possible to increase or even maintain the enthusiasm of his admirers of two years ago? Is it possible to bring him any new elements of support? Is there any quarter in which he is more popular now than in 1884? Is the confidence which he inspires in other public men and party leaders greater? And, finally and most decisively, could he carry now, any better than in 1884, the State of Indiana, the State of New York, or the State of Connecticut?" Evidently taking it for granted that its readers will answer all of these queries in the negative, the *Nonpareil* ridicules the suggestion of trusting to the chapter of accidents and "clutching at straws of chances in this or that Southern State—the Virginias, or North Carolina, or Tennessee—in order to compensate for risks unnecessarily taken in the North," and advises the choice of a leader "on whom there would be no chance of a division."

While the Republican press is thus confessing the folly and fatality of renominating in 1888 the Republican candidate of 1884, the tone of the Democratic press makes it daily more certain that Mr. Cleveland will be renominated by the Democrats without any serious opposition. The Savannah *News* and the

Atlanta *Constitution* are certainly as well entitled to speak for the Democrats of Georgia as any two papers in the State. The *News* declares that "there is no doubt but that the Democratic party will desire President Cleveland to run again," and that "in consequence it might as well be understood that he will be renominated." Referring to what it calls the "amusing theory" that Mr. Cleveland is very unpopular with his party, and that his firmness and consistency in carrying out his own convictions, and what he conceives to be the policy of the party, have created dissensions which cannot be healed, the *Constitution* declares that "the President is responsible for a wise and conservative policy that has commended itself to the better sense of the people of the country"; that "he is stronger with the great mass of Democratic voters to-day than he was when he delivered his inaugural address"; that "he has inaugurated and carried out an administrative policy that will add thousands of votes to the Democratic party in the next election"; and that "the Republicans will discover in due time that the Democratic party is for Cleveland." Such language from representative Democratic newspapers shows that the St. Louis *Globe-Democrat* was quite right when it notified the Republicans who are counting on the alleged Democratic hostility to Mr. Cleveland, that papers like the New York *World* and *Sun* and Louisville *Courier-Journal* "voice the views of a mere handful of malcontents, whose wishes would not have the slightest influence in directing the party choice, and whose opposition would not be a featherweight in a canvass against the party candidate."

The President has made a very good selection for the Turkish mission in the person of Mr. Oscar S. Straus of this city, a Jewish lawyer of excellent standing, and an active Mugwump and reformer. The Turkish mission is not, it must be admitted, a post of great responsibility, as we have but little trade with Turkey and no interest in the Eastern question, and could not, in case of a war, threaten her with any loss or damage that she would care about. But we have missionaries there who are doing admirable work, and who sorely need support and protection, as some of them have before now been murdered with perfect impunity. Moreover, though Turkey is a rapidly decaying State, new nations are springing from her soil, which are probably destined to make a great figure in European history during the coming century. At such a crisis, it is most desirable that the United States should be represented there, as it was in Gen. Wallace's day, by somebody who, in intelligence as well as character, will do credit to the American name, and maintain American influence. The notion that it makes any difference to the Sultan or the Turks whether a foreign minister is a Jew or a Christian, is ridiculous. To a good Mussulman they are both substantially the same thing—that is, people who, as the midshipman said of the Fiji Islanders, have no manners and whose customs are disgusting.

The difficulties of the old-fashioned Blaine papers about the Inter-State Commerce Commission are so great that one cannot help feeling sorry for any Blaine editor who finds them insuperable, and lets the whole subject alone. Our wretched contemporary, the Boston *Journal*, seems to be in more trouble from this cause than any of its companions. For two days after the names of the Commissioners were announced it remained perfectly silent about them, probably because the editor was either looking for advice or was sitting at home in dumb despair, surrounded by his family. Apparently, either nobody advised him to face his trouble like a man and say that Cleveland had done a good thing, or, if anybody did give him this advice, he disregarded it. What he seems to have resolved on was to seek, not work or strife, in which so many people find a cure for sorrow, but mild distraction. He has, in other words, turned to Nature as the best relief from Cleveland. So on the third day, instead of writing an article on Inter-State Commerce Commissioners, he wrote one on "Orchids." We have it before us, and we like it much. It does him credit to produce such a work under such circumstances. "Breathing the fervor of the tropics," says he, "expressing the strange luxuriance of vegetation which comes with the glare of sunlight, moisture, and rapid decay, orchids come forth on exhibition in the midst of the pale New England spring to cause wonder and bewildered curiosity. They are queer flowers, both botanically and æsthetically." He then prefaces a stirring account of the difficulty of keeping up our supply of orchids by saying: "No other flower represents such devotion of horticulturists and such perseverance under dangers by collectors." If an entire stranger may be permitted to intrude on a scene of woe with a sympathetic and respectful suggestion, we would urge the mingling of music with flowers as an object of study until the present cloud passes from the journalistic sky. The ordeal, we are sure, will not last long. Time, the great healer, works wonders in these cases. It will not be many weeks before our stricken contemporary will be able to speak of the Commission without betraying any emotion, or even to return to his old pastime of lying about the Administration.

The *Times* calls attention to a very gross misstatement and perversion contained in the Messrs. Appleton's 'Cyclopædia of American Biography,' which seems to show that the firm will have to look after their editors a little more carefully. A cyclopædia of biography, being intended to be a permanent and accurate book of reference, should, in dealing with contemporary politics and politicians, be absolutely colorless, and above all things should avoid producing party surmises or excuses as historical facts. The 'Cyclopædia,' however, in the sketch of Dr. Burchard of this city, is made to ascribe the loss of the State by Blaine, as a positive fact, to Dr. Burchard's remark about "rum, Romanism, and rebellion." The "official count," says the writer with extraordinary assurance, "gave the State and the Presidency to the Democrats by only 1,047, and the number changed by Dr. Burchard's remarks *was reasonably estimated at several thousand.*" The loose, slip-shod character of this last assertion hardly calls for comment. How "reasonably"? And by whom "estimated"? By what process was the number "several thousands" reached? It is very discreditable that such things should appear in a book which anybody is expected to put on his shelves as a reservoir of facts. The truth is, that not one man has ever appeared, or been produced, or designated by name or description, who admitted that he had, or was known to have, changed his vote by reason of Dr. Burchard's remark. That his remark had any influence whatever on the vote was a mere guess or suggestion of some of Mr. Blaine's managers in the first moments of chagrin over the miscarriage of the arrangements they had made for the capture of the Irish Catholic vote. A large portion of it they undoubtedly did secure, which accounts for the closeness with which Blaine followed Cleveland in this State, but they did not get all they expected, and had bargained for, owing to "Johnny" O'Brien's treachery, and thus lost their money and the election. We are here stating things which it would be difficult to get an intelligent man in this city to deny, and for which a large amount of evidence might be produced, and yet we should never think of admitting them into a book of reference as historical truth. The Burchard theory of Blaine's defeat was put afloat, not because it had any foundation whatever, but because it was the only one available which was not damaging to Blaine personally, and which relieved the managers in this city from responsibility.

The Reform League of Baltimore, an organization of men of both parties who have been zealously working to secure honest elections, has won a notable victory. There has been for some time a registration law upon the statute-book, but registers who were disposed to falsify the books have been in the habit of striking off the names of qualified voters and adding bogus names by wholesale, in the belief that but a tithe of these frauds could be rectified before election, and that the courts could not review their work after election. But a unanimous decision has just been rendered by the Court of Appeals which establishes the fact that the registration law was made for a practical purpose, and that registers cannot defeat its operations by piling up cases and throwing obstacles in the way of the courts until after election. This is a great point gained, and will encourage the League to continue its efforts, and bring to as speedy trial as possible the thousand cases which now crowd the dockets of the courts, with the result of administering an effective check to the system of frauds in elections.

The "gentleman in politics" has frequently been a very odd, sometimes a very odious, figure during the past few years, so apt has he been to try to outdo the "practical men" in practicalness and the tricky politicians in trickery. We do not recall, however, at this moment a more grotesque example of his folly and his futility than Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge has been presenting re

cently in Rhode Island. He actually left his own State in order to defend on the stump the sale of the Governorship to a rich New Yorker, by a ring of politicians headed by Brayton, who while in the public service stole $30,000 of the Government's money. The American stump has seen many strange things, but nothing stranger than a man of fortune and a scholar, a Harvard graduate and quondam instructor, and an author of some repute, perorating publicly against the people who object to this degrading spectacle as guilty of a "mixture of sham morals and false issues which is revolting to any honest-minded man." The trouble with Mr. Lodge and his congeners is that they forget, before they have got very far on their road, how "honest minds" feel about any question of public morals or policy. In fact, they could not succeed in their new calling if they kept alive the memories of their better hours. So that Mr. Lodge's talk about what "revolts honest minds" in politics is about as valuable as his description of the Gardens of the Hesperides would be—that is, it is pure romance.

The Tennessee Senate, by a close vote, rejected the House bill increasing the school fund from $2,000,000 to $5,000,000, and thus more than doubling the annual income available for educational purposes, but it substituted a measure, which has since been accepted by the House, that will produce the same desirable result. The proportion of the general State tax devoted to the schools has been increased from 10 to 15 cents on every $100 of property, and 10 cents of what is called the privilege tax is applied to the same purpose, thus raising the total school fund from 10 to 25 cents per $100, or more than doubling it—besides which both branches have agreed in doubling the former appropriation for the normal school. This increase of the State school fund of itself assures a decided improvement in the system, and if supplemented by the local taxes which the counties are able to levy, and which some of them are already levying, the Memphis *Appeal* says that "the schools of the State may be kept open for nine months in the year." As the *Appeal* further says, "this would afford abundant opportunity for the children, black as well as white, to get an education and as fair a start in life as is vouchsafed now in the States most favored in this regard." Best promise of all for Tennessee's future, this remarkable development of her public-school system, established only about fifteen years ago, is the work of her own people, without any help from a paternal government.

The revival of Knownothingism in California is a curious political phenomenon. At the State election last fall one Wigginton announced himself the candidate, for Governor, of the American party, and, although his performance was much ridiculed, he received 7,260 votes, or four out of every hundred that were cast. The recent municipal election in Oakland, the second city in the State, indicates that the new party possesses unexpected vitality. A full American ticket was put in the field, and although none of its nominees were elected except one who was also on the Republican ticket, its candidate for Mayor received 1,357 votes to 2,009 for the Democratic and 2,761 for the Republican. The remarkable feature of this result is the fact that the third party appears to have drawn more heavily from the Democrats than from the Republicans, and the San Francisco *Bulletin* is inclined to the conclusion that Wigginton's candidacy last fall hurt the Democrats throughout the State more than it did the Republicans. The interesting question now is whether this new Knownothing movement has vitality enough to last through 1888. The original Knownothing party swept California in 1855, when it carried the Governorship by 5,000 majority over the Democratic candidate, but at the next gubernatorial election, in 1857, it polled only about 19,000 out of 93,000 votes, and was never more heard of.

Mayor Hewitt is quite right when he says of the primitive methods pursued in this city in the collecting of ashes and garbage: "There is no other city in the world which presents such a spectacle as is to be found every day in the main thoroughfares of this city, encumbered as they are by ash barrels, vessels containing garbage, and obstructions of almost every kind to the free use of the streets." If the ashes and garbage only stood on the sidewalks, it would be bad enough, but the nuisance goes far beyond that. The favorite time of collecting them on Fifth Avenue and others of our principal thoroughfares appears to be between eight and ten in the morning, when the streets are most desired by pedestrians. The barrels are then lifted to the sides of the carts, and, if there is a wind, the larger part of the contents is distributed over two or three blocks and into the eyes and upon the clothing of all the passers-by. Fifth Avenue is literally almost intolerable in the morning hours because of this practice. Not only is such a spectacle unknown in any other city of the world, but in no other city would it be tolerated for a single day.

Some of Cardinal Gibbons's additions to his report on the Knights of Labor are lamentable departures from the truthfulness and accuracy which should characterize the statements of a Christian minister. In fact, portions of the report read like a letter on "Labor" from Gen. Butler to the New York *Sun*. For instance, he says, touching strikes:

> "First, strikes are not the invention of the Knights, but a universal, perpetual means by which workmen protest against what is unjust and demand their rights; second, in such a struggle of the multitudes of the poor against hard, obstinate monopoly, wrath and violence are often as inevitable as they are regrettable; third, the laws and the principal authorities of the Knights, so far from encouraging violence or occasions for violence, exercise a powerful preventive influence, seeking to keep strikes within the limits of legitimate action. An attentive examination into the violent struggles between labor and capital has convinced me of the injustice of attributing violence to the Knights. Their principal authorities have proved the fact that it is as unreasonable to attribute violence to the Knights as to attribute to the Church follies and crimes of her children against which she protests."

Now, it is not true that strikes are always, or even in most cases, the "struggle of the poor against hard, obstinate monopoly." The very use of the term "monopoly" here is misleading, and, coming from a man of education, must be set down as used with intent to deceive. Nor is it true that "the principal authorities of the Knights" discourage violence or seek to prevent it. On the contrary, every species of evidence bearing on the subject shows that they have at every period of their existence either set it on foot, instigated it, encouraged it, connived at it, or apologized for it. Either the Cardinal has not made an "attentive examination" of this evidence, or his mental training has been such that no examination of evidence does him any good. The assertion that "their principal authorities have proved the fact," etc., is one which we confess we do not understand. To all outward appearance, it is untrue, but it may be true. Who the "principal authorities" are, when or where they proved "the fact," or who was the unreasonable person who said that the Church was guilty of "the crimes and follies of her children," we do not know. It would seem, however, as if people engaged in crime and folly were an odd sort of "children" for any church to have.

The Irish Coercion Bill is, we believe, the eighty-ninth bill of the kind presented to Parliament within the present century. Some of them have been worse than this one, but its greatest peculiarity, as Mr. Gladstone has pointed out, lies in the fact that it is the first coercion bill introduced in defiance of the protests of the majority of the Irish members, and the first which attempts to deal with discontent which the majority of the House acknowledges to be real, and curable by other kinds of legislation. Moreover, it is the first bill of the kind introduced in the teeth of strong English and Scotch disapproval, and the first which proposed to make permanent serious encroachments on constitutional liberty, such as subjecting public speakers and newspaper editors to the arbitary jurisdiction of justices of the peace, and providing for the transportation to England for trial, by what would be to all intents and purposes foreign juries, of persons indicted under it for certain offences. It will be remembered that this device was resorted to for a similar purpose in this country before the Revolution. To give such a bill, produced under such circumstances, a decent appearance, would have required extraordinary talent and Parliamentary experience on the Ministerial side. Its introduction by Mr. Balfour, a clever young dinner-table states man, with a lady-like voice, languishing manner, and small experience, with no better support than Mr. W. H. Smith the newsdealer could give him, was, of course, a tremendous undertaking. The sympathy freely shown for Dillon by the Gladstoneites during his impassioned harangue, and the open declaration of Hartington and Chamberlain for the policy of force, seem to promise a crisis in English politics of extraordinary violence.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, March 23, to TUESDAY, March 29, 1887 inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE President has appointed Mr. Oscar S. Straus of this city to be Minister to Turkey in place of Mr. S. S. Cox, resigned. Mr. Straus, who is thirty-six years old, was graduated from the Academic Department and the Law School of Columbia College. After a period of ill health at the practice of the law, he began a successful mercantile career. He is the author of a volume on 'The Origin of a Republican Form of Government in the United States.' He was recommended for appointment by Mr. W. R. Grace, the late Henry Ward Beecher, and other prominent citizens of this State.

The appropriation of $149,749 to indemnify Chinese subjects for the murder of their kinsmen at Rock Springs, Wyoming Territory, has been placed to the credit of the disbursing officer of the Department of State for payment to the Chinese Minister at Washington.

Lieut. Zalinski made successful experiments on March 26 at Fort Lafayette with his pneumatic dynamite gun. It is a slender steel tube sixty feet long and one foot in diameter, balanced on a skeleton framework. Four shots were fired, each shell containing fifty pounds of dynamite. The air pressure was a thousand pounds. The first shot took 9 3-5 seconds to travel 1,816 yards, and on touching the water it exploded. The second shot, with a slow fuse, struck the water 2,500 feet away, ricochetted, and disappeared. A second later a huge column of mud and water arose for many feet. In another shot the cartridge was twenty-five seconds in the air, and it struck 3,868 yards away, or about two miles and a quarter.

Senator Sherman addressed a large audience at Nashville, Tenn., March 24, on national politics. He spoke chiefly in praise of the protective tariff. He found fault with the Democratic party for having made no disposition of the surplus revenue.

At a meeting on March 24 of the Democratic State Committee of Virginia, it was decided to call a State Convention to adopt a platform for this year's campaign. The Legislature which will be elected will choose a United States Senator to succeed Mr. Riddleberger.

The New York Railroad Commissioners have made an official study of the problem of heating passenger cars safely, and reported to the Legislature that no stove or heater is safe, and that it is practicable to heat a train of the usual length with steam or hot air from the engine or from a car constructed for this purpose.

A high-license bill was passed by the Assembly of New York, March 23, which, if it become a law, will fix the fee for a license to sell spirituous liquors in New York and Brooklyn to be drunk on the premises at $1,000, and a license to sell malt liquors at $100. All the Republican members of the Assembly voted for it but four, and all the Democratic members but one voted against it. Since the bill has become a "party issue," it is considered certain to pass the Senate.

The Governor of New York has signed the Murphy "Tenement Commission" Bill, which provides for a better system of inspection and better construction and care of tenements. Not more than 65 per cent. of any lot shall be covered by buildings, and no tenement in which two families live on one floor must have dark rooms.

The Governor of New York has signed the Tilden Trust Incorporation Act, and the executors under Mr. Tilden's will can organize, and they now have power to carry out the provisions of the will to build and maintain the Tilden Free Library in this city. One amendment, however, that was proposed by the Tilden heirs was incorporated in the bill, which provides that nothing in the act shall be construed to affect the rights of the heirs in any legal proceedings instituted to test the validity of the will. The litigation that is likely to follow will probably not come to an end except by a decision of the Court of Appeals.

The collection of pictures made by the late A. T. Stewart of this city has been sold at auction. Some of the most noteworthy, with the prices they brought, are: Auguste Bonheur's "Fontainebleau," $17,800; Fortuny's "Serpent Charmer," $13,100; Gérôme's "Pollice Verso," $11,000; Meissonier's "At the Barracks," $16,000; Erskine Nicol's "The Disputed Boundary," $15,250; Meissonier's celebrated "Friedland, 1807," $66,000; Rosa Bonheur's "Horse Fair," $53,000; Knaus's "Children's Party," $21,300; Troyon's "Landscape and Cattle," $11,000. The total proceeds of the sale were $513,750.

It has become known that the purchaser of "The Horse Fair" was Mr. Cornelius Vanderbilt. He has presented the picture to the Metropolitan Museum of Art. In his letter of presentation he wrote: "It seems to me to be a work of art which should be in a position where it can be permanently accessible to the public. In the gallery of the Museum this object will be obtained." Meissonier's "1807" was bought by Mr. Elbert Hilton, son of ex-Judge Hilton.

Six of the jurors in the case of Thomas Cleary, one of the members of the New York Board of Aldermen of 1884, who was on trial for accepting money for his vote granting the franchise of the Broadway Railroad, stood for acquittal and six for conviction, and the jury was discharged March 24.

In the Wisconsin Assembly a bill requiring railway companies to furnish annual passes, good in Wisconsin, to all members of the Legislature, elective State officers, and members of the courts of record, was passed by a vote of 49 to 33 on March 26.

A convention of the Knights of Labor in Pennsylvania is to meet in Harrisburg, April 7, to consider bills now pending before the Legislature and to establish a permanent committee to remain at Harrisburg and "assist in the passage" of bills which the Knights favor.

After the Republicans in Chicago had nominated Mr. John A. Roche for Mayor, the Democrats renominated Mayor Carter Harrison. He declined, and two unsuccessful efforts have since been made to agree on a candidate.

A company of Socialists in Chicago have threatened to kill a member of the Legislature of Illinois unless he retract criticisms of the conduct of two other members who attended the funeral of the wife of one of the imprisoned Anarchists, and thereby showed sympathy with them. A few days before this threat an effort was made to take the life of another member of the Legislature who had offended the Socialists.

Twenty thousand of the voters of St. Louis, who number not more than 45,000, have failed to register preparatory to the forthcoming municipal election.

A college for young women will be opened at Princeton in September, which is meant, with modifications of the Harvard plan, to be a Princeton "Annex." There will be two courses—the collegiate department and a preparatory department. Requirements for admission to the collegiate department will be the same as those of Princeton College. All the studies of the Freshman and Sophomore years except Greek will be required. In the two higher classes the regular course may be modified by lectures. An advanced course in the French and German languages and literature may be substituted for Greek, and other changes made as in the lecture system of Princeton College. The Rev. J. H. McIlvaine is principal, and most of the instruction will be given by professors of Princeton College.

The lumbermen in northern Maine, where the snow in many places is eleven feet deep in the roads, have found it necessary to shovel out places by the side of the road for their horses, and to haul food to them on hand sleds to keep them from starving.

Trains on the Northern Pacific Railroad crossed the bridge and trestle over the Missouri River at Bismarck, Dak., March 27, for the first time in eight days. The overflow is yet causing the destruction of much property, and the number of persons who are reported to have perished becomes larger.

The bark *Scot's Bay*, on its voyage from Fernandina to Lisbon, was capsized at sea March 22. One of the crew died from exposure, another was washed overboard, two colored seamen became insane and committed suicide, and the captain and one mate, the only remaining men of the crew, were rescued, nearly dead, on March 24.

The French steamship *Scotia*, approaching New York, ran ashore near Fire Island on the morning of March 25. She had nearly 900 Italian immigrants on board, who all, however, were safely put ashore and brought to New York by rail. The sea has been so high since the accident that the steamer had not on Tuesday been floated.

The transatlantic yacht race from Sandy Hook to Queenstown between the *Coronet* and the *Dauntless* for $10,000 a side was won by the former. She crossed the line off Roche's Point, Cork Harbor, Ireland, at 12:40 P. M., Queenstown time, March 27. The *Dauntless* arrived on the afternoon of March 28. The corrected time of the winner was 14 days 19 hours 3 minutes and 14 seconds. The voyage was a very stormy one, and gale after gale was encountered. Thursday, March 17, a fearful gale was blowing, at the rate of ninety miles per hour, and all that night the *Coronet* was hove to. The following Tuesday another gale struck the yacht, and she lay to for nearly twenty hours, making only 38 4-5 knots in the twenty-four hours. The greatest number of miles made in any one day was on last Saturday, when she made 291 miles, an average of over twenty miles per hour. The *Coronet* sailed in all 2,934 miles, which is within forty-four miles of the shortest course possible between the two points, and averaged within a very small fraction of 200 miles per day.

The report of the Bell Telephone Company made on March 29 to the annual meeting of its stockholders, shows that during the year there was an increase of 9,318 subscribers, against an increase of 2,969 in 1885. The company controls 14,185 miles of wire, 2,613 miles of which are under ground.

Mr. William R. Travers, who had been ill for some time at Bermuda, died there March 19, and his body was brought to this city on March 27. For many years he was a prominent figure in all places of public resort, in theatres, in club life, and on the race course, and it would be difficult to name any one whose face and figure would be missed more widely in New York. He was born in Baltimore in 1819. He was a merchant in his native city for several years, and he married a daughter of the late Reverdy Johnson. For more than thirty years he was a member of the New York Stock Exchange. His fortune is estimated to be $3,000,000. Judge Samuel H. Treat of the United States Court for the Southern District of Illinois died in Springfield March 27, in his seventy-fifth year. He was nominated to the bench of the Southern District of Illinois by President Pierce, March 3, 1855, and, out of the more than fifty men in the country holding like positions, there is but one who has served longer. It is said that the proportion of his decisions that have been reversed is at least as small as that of any other Judge upon the District Bench in the United States.

Other men of prominence who have died this week are the Rev. Ray Palmer of Newark and Mr. Paul Tulane of Princeton, N. J. Mr. Palmer was a well-known Congregational preacher and writer on religious subjects. He was the author of the hymn, "My Faith Looks Up to Thee." Mr. Tulane made a fortune as a cotton-dealer in New Orleans; and although he had long resided at Princeton, he founded and endowed the university at New Orleans that bears his name.

FOREIGN.

The conflict between the Irish party and the Tory officials in Ireland has again become sharp. The Parnellite Dublin paper *United Ireland* on March 23 spoke of the Secretary for Ireland as "the bloody Balfour with a tiger's heart wrapped in a woman's hide." When the police undertook on the same day to evict peasants at Carrickmacross, they found the cottages barricaded, and boiling water was poured on them from the upper windows. Another priest, Father Ryan, has been arrested for refusing to testify concerning his action as trustee for tenants under the plan of campaign.

Still another Irish priest, Father Slattery, has been sent to prison in Dublin for refusing to give information concerning the plan of campaign. The people gathered about the cab in which he was driven to jail in such numbers that the police rode with drawn swords to clear a lane for the cab. Mr. O'Brien, editor of *United Ireland*, with the Lord Mayor and Archbishop Croke, rode in the Lord Mayor's carriage to the prison.

Mr. Gladstone made a long speech in the House of Commons March 24, on the motion for urgency for the Coercion Bill, in which his main effort was to point out the difference between the Irish provocation for coercion now and in 1881 under his ministry. He contended that Irish crime then was of a different character from the present Irish crime, which is simply a combination to obtain a fair reduction of rent. He trusted that the people of England would see the Liberals united in opposing this ill-omened measure to the last stage, and that the Liberal members would ring out the voices of justice and reason against a Government which, after eighty-six years of experience, was preparing, under the name of a statute of Parliament, to strike a fresh blow at the life and happiness of Ireland and at the prosperity, contentment, and unity of the empire. Speaking of the application of closure, he said incidentally that he had seen more Parliamentary life than any other man in the House, but he never knew of so grave a state of affairs. It was due to an extreme abuse of power by the majority, which, if persisted in, would leave behind a sense of intolerable wrong.

The Irish Crimes Bill was explained in the House of Commons by Mr. Balfour, Secretary for Ireland, on March 28. Its chief features are to give to magistrates power to examine witnesses on oath, even when no persons are charged with crime; to give the Government power to change the venue for graver offences from Ireland to England, and to give the Viceroy power to proclaim dangerous societies found to be disturbing the peace. In his speech on the bill, Mr. Balfour said that to meet the difficulty of getting verdicts the Government proposed to abolish the jury system altogether for certain classes of crime, giving the magistrate jurisdiction, with power to impose a maximum penalty of six months' imprisonment in cases of criminal conspiracy, boycotting, and the like. His speech provoked one of the most remarkable scenes of recent years in the House. A succession of contemptuous questions, jeers, interjections, suggested emendations, and mock encouragement to "go ahead," "keep it up," were shouted at him, and when he hesitated for a moment there was a chorus of cat-calls. On the front Opposition bench Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Morley sat side by side. Mr. Gladstone's face was flushed, a most unusual thing with him, in his excitement as the stringency of the measure became apparent. Mr. Dillon's reply to Mr. Balfour was an excited speech, in which he said: "If I thought they (the people of England) could accept such a measure, I would abandon public agitation, for I would consider that the man had the heart of a slave who would submit such a matter to agitation. I should do one of two things: I would leave for ever the country wherein no Irishman could live except like a slave, or, if the Irish people were willing, I would be proud and willing to lead them on to battle."

Mr. Gladstone spoke in opposition to the Irish Crimes Bill in the House of Commons March 29. He said that the bill, instead of being a cure for Irish ills or even a palliative, was a measure that would aggravate the deepest seated and worst disorders. "Among its most insulting and exasperating proposals," he declared, "the worst ever submitted to Parliament, is the provision that Irish trials be held in London. I have never known such a blow at the national feeling of Ireland. The Government could have devised nothing more likely to aggravate every existing evil. As to the permanent duration of the bill, the proposals make one's blood boil. To establish what was formerly only a temporary remedy as a permanent rule of existence for society in Ireland will put a brand of inferiority upon Ireland for ever, recognizing as a fixed principle that force is a remedy. The lesson of many years shows that force is no remedy."

Mr. Parnell on March 29, in a cable message to President Fitzgerald of the American Irish Land League, said that the Irish Crimes Bill is stringent, tyrannical, and uncalled for by the state of affairs in Ireland; and he appealed to the American people "for that sympathy and support which they have never withheld from a people struggling for liberty."

Queen Victoria has commanded all the members of the royal family to come to London to celebrate her jubilee.

The Duchess of Cumberland, youngest daughter of the King of Denmark, and sister of the King of Greece, the Czarina of Russia, and the Princess of Wales, was placed in a lunatic asylum near Vienna for melancholia on March 24.

The annual boat race between the crews of Oxford and Cambridge Universities was rowed March 26 over the usual course on the Thames from Putney to Mortlake, and was won by the Cambridge crew in twenty minutes and fifty-two seconds. The record of races won now stands: Oxford 23, Cambridge 20.

The formal challenge by the Royal Clyde Yacht Club of Glasgow, on behalf of the yacht *Thistle* for the *America's* cup, has been received by the Secretary of the New York Yacht Club. The races will be run next fall.

Mrs. James Brown Potter of New York made her début on March 29, at the Haymarket Theatre, London, as *Anne Sylvester* in Wilkie Collins's "Man and Wife." Many prominent persons were present. The critics are agreed that the character was not suited to Mrs. Potter, but they praise her for her effort, and predict a successful career for her.

Dr. Arthur Farre, F.R.S., the celebrated surgeon and medical writer, who was Physician Extraordinary to the Queen, died in London March 25 at the age of seventy-seven.

The Emperor of Germany, after the celebration of his ninetieth birthday, published an address to the people in which he said: "In my early youth I saw the monarchy of my deeply afflicted father under a direful visitation that tested the endurance of the people. I have since seen how the devoted loyalty, eager self-sacrifice, and undaunted courage of my people brought them deliverance and elevation, and now in old age, after the many vicissitudes of my life, I look with pride and satisfaction upon the great transformation which the glorious events of the recent past, the imperishable feeling of German unity, and the sincere love of the Fatherland have effected in Germany. May the consummation achieved, after long yearning, by our beloved country conduce—as I confidently hope it will—to ever-increasing prosperity, all classes of the nation living in the undisturbed and blessed labors of peace."

The Emperor received 1,648 telegrams congratulating him upon his birthday anniversary. Of these 1,297 came from different parts of Germany, 60 from America, and 5 from Canada. He has sent to Queen Victoria for her jubilee a service of Saxon china, composed of 500 pieces of the famous yellow tint. The centre piece, an enormous basket for fruit and flowers, is surmounted by a white and gold bust of the Queen, surrounded in its turn by a medallion portrait of all the royal family.

The Reichstag on March 28 passed to its third reading the budget, with the budget bills and the Loan Bill. Dr. Windthorst, the President, and the Vice-Presidents of the Reichstag were reëlected by acclamation for the remainder of the session, and the Reichstag then adjourned over the Easter holidays. The next sitting will be on April 19.

More movements have been made to overcome the French sympathy of the people of Alsace-Lorraine. A bill has been prepared for the Reichstag to limit the power of the Alsatian Diet and so to change the education law as gradually to abolish teaching in the French language.

Eleven Alsatians have been sentenced to imprisonment at Berlin for six months for wearing tri-colored ribbons there.

The Czar has made a reply to the address sent to him by the students of the University at St. Petersburg congratulating him on his escape from the recent plot to kill him, in which he said: "I thank the University and hope it will prove its devotion to me by deeds, not merely on paper, and endeavor to efface the grave impression which the part that a number of students took in the criminal design on my life has created in every one. May God bless and guide the University aright."

Evidence given in the case of the fifteen Anarchists on trial at Vienna shows that a well-laid plot to burn the whole city was discovered just in time to prevent its execution.

The garrisons of Madrid and other Spanish cities were ordered to be in readiness for immediate action on March 26, the Government fearing that a *coup d'état* would be attempted by revolutionists.

Subsequently the Governors of Barcelona, Seville, Valencia, Cadiz, Valladolid, and other provinces arrested persons suspected of complicity in a general revolutionary plot. The prisoners belong mostly to the lower classes.

The French Government continues to make unsuccessful efforts to prevent gambling at races. On Sunday at Longchamps many arrests were made for betting.

The Pope, as a mark of special honor to Archbishop Corrigan of New York, has named him Prelate Assistant to the Pontifical Throne.

Ditler Gothard Monrad, a well-known Danish ecclesiastic, Cabinet minister and author, died March 28. He was born in 1811 at Copenhagen. He had been a journalist, Minister of Public Worship and Education, Bishop of Laaland again Minister of Public Worship, and in the Cabinet of 1863 he was President and Minister of Finances. In 1865 he emigrated to Germany, but returned to Denmark in 1869 and resumed his place as Bishop.

The complicity of Egyptian officials in the fraudulent sale of State lands, and the existence of a ring in the Finance Ministry whereby the Egyptian Government has been defrauded of £90,000, have been discovered. An American, Mason Bey, who is at the head of the land department, has declared himself innocent and demanded an inquiry.

A despatch was received at London March 26 from Mr. Henry M. Stanley, saying that he arrived at the mouth of the Congo River on the morning of the 18th.

THE PRESIDENT AND THE REPUBLICANS.

THE selection of the Inter-State Commerce Commissioners was the most important act of President Cleveland's Administration, for the law which they are to enforce is, perhaps, with the exception of the Resumption Act, the most important piece of legislation enacted by Congress since the war. The first stage of its interpretation and application will, therefore, need great skill and patience, not only to make the act in any way beneficial to the business community, but to prevent its proving a source of great loss and confusion. It is hardly an exaggeration to say that its committal to the hands of a body of active politicians, in need of salaries and occupation, would have been a most disastrous thing. And yet President Cleveland might have done vastly better than this without doing nearly as well as he has done.

His success has, however, not only great commercial, but great political importance. It not only illustrates once more, and very strikingly, the extreme silliness of many of the maxims of political prudence as taught by professional politicians, but it does more than anything that has been done within five or six years to put our Republican friends—if we may use a bit of very expressive political slang—"in a hole." Of course, as we all know, it hardly needed a year of President Cleveland's Administration to get rid of the rubbish thrown up around his candidacy by the more violent Republican partisans during the canvass. He was not long in office before the scatterbrained youths who do the "arraigning" in the organic Republican press, ceased to "dismiss him with a smile," and laid aside the fear that he would issue a decree levying taxes on the Northern States to pay off the rebel debt and to compensate the slaveholders for the loss of their slaves. But he very speedily so raised the standard of administrative purity that the Republican press began to complain bitterly of his doing, occasionally, things which all the Republican Presidents had done as a rule, and which no politicians on either side had ever thought of finding fault with until he had shown that better things were possible. In fact, paradoxical as it seems, no such sterling compliments were ever paid to any President as the complaints which the Republican newspapers have made of President Cleveland's shortcomings, for it was he who taught them that they were shortcomings, and might reasonably be complained of.

The manner in which the Inter-State Commerce Commission has been filled has, however, apparently caused the President's opponents greater embarrassment than anything which has gone before. This time they have absolutely ceased to impute bad motives. Hitherto, when he has made an undeniably good appointment, attempts have been made to lessen its effect by alleging that it was made by way of paying some sort of debt to a wicked friend of the appointee, or that it was made as an offset to some particularly bad appointments made at the same time. In this case, however, the critics only break silence to applaud. Some, like the Boston *Journal*, are silent altogether, but others, like the New York *Tribune*, acknowledge, without reservation, that he has done well. All over the country his enemies, in fact, admit that he has behaved abominably well.

Now, the effect of this on Democratic policy is easy to see. But the effect on Republican policy, though a little more recondite, is also not hard to discern. It is evidently going to hasten some kind of change of base in preparation for the next campaign. The harder to beat Cleveland seems, the greater will be the number of Republicans who question whether it will be wise to go into the fight in 1888 with the same leaders and war cries as in 1884. A large number of Republican newspapers have for a good while been seriously considering how they are to get along in the next canvass without the aid of the rebel debt, rebel pensions, compensation for slaves, the old fear that a Democratic Administration would overthrow the Government, and the personal attacks on Mr. Cleveland which played so large a part in the last canvass. But they are now beginning to consider also how they are to get along in the teeth of his acknowledged official excellence, and in the teeth of the strong hold he is acquiring on the confidence of the business community. The tougher the job of defeating him, in case of his renomination, grows, of course the more stripping for the fray there is likely to be, and the more searching the investigation into the causes of the disaster in 1884. We think we know somebody who will suffer dreadfully from this investigation, and who will unquestionably be the first who will have to get out of the wagon as the load appears to grow heavier. One of the bad signs for him is the rapid disappearance, which we notice in many quarters, of the infantile delusion that the votes of cranks and "kickers," Pharisees and hypocrites, do not count at American elections.

GROWTH OF MUGWUMPISM.

THE spring elections of the odd years in several of the States ordinarily attract little national attention, as they concern only judicial offices in Michigan and Wisconsin, and the annual choice of a State ticket in Rhode Island usually passes almost unnoticed. This spring, however, these contests are everywhere of uncommon interest, and their results will be awaited with much curiosity.

Michigan elects next Monday two judges of the Supreme Court and two Regents of the State University. The Republicans apparently have greatly the advantage in point of candidates, one of their nominees for judge having been for nearly thirty years a distinguished member of the court. They are also aided by the demoralization among the Opposition. For several years the Democrats and Greenbackers in Michigan have "fused" on State and National tickets, and in this way they carried the judicial election in the spring of 1885. But there has been growing dissatisfaction with the union among both parties to it, and although the managers apparently favored a maintenance of the fusion, the rank and file rejected the idea, and the Democrats have a ticket of their own this spring for the first time in years. But the Prohibitionists worry the Republicans by maintaining their organization, although the Republicans in the Legislature have submitted a prohibition amendment to the Constitution, which is to be voted upon next week, and the Republican State Committee has issued an appeal for "active, united work" and "a full vote," which indicates serious apprehension as to the result. It is evident that the Democratic party of Michigan, demoralized as it has been by the fusion with the Greenbackers, has been greatly strengthened by Mr. Cleveland's course. The Republican Convention met just after the President's veto of the Pauper Pension Bill, and some of the managers thought they could make something out of that action, for they put in the platform a plank declaring that the Republican party adhered to its past record in caring for the soldiers, "and that it condemns all Executive vetoes tending to deprive them of this support whenever and wherever justly due." But it soon became plain that the Republican party could not fight against a pension veto supported by such Republican soldiers as Gen. Chamberlain of Maine, Gen. Cox of Ohio, and "Matt" Quay of Pennsylvania. It may be noted in passing that at the recent State encampment of the Grand Army, a Blaine delegate presented a resolution speaking disrespectfully of the President, whereupon "sharp hisses were given through the hall," and he was promptly suppressed.

Wisconsin elects next week an Associate Justice of the Supreme Court, and both parties acquiesce in the reëlection of the man whose term expires. The Milwaukee *Sentinel* says that "it has grown to be the usage of the people of Wisconsin not to make party nominations for Supreme Court judges, or, when party nominations are made, to defeat them." The same principle is being adopted in local elections. The Racine *Journal* says that the fusion of the Republicans and a part of the Democrats of that city last year upon a municipal ticket composed of candidates from both parties, was followed by excellent results, removing municipal politics from the field of partisanship and giving the city one of the best administrations it has ever had. The Milwaukee people propose to follow this example in filling the Circuit and Superior Court judgeships in that county. The "People's party," so called, which is really a combination of all the worst elements in the community, has put forth a ticket which was nominated by a Convention not more than six or eight of whose members were born in this country, and many of whom are not yet naturalized. These are sample names: Schilling, Blatz, Rudzinski, Czerwinski, Hanizeski, Andrzejewski, Neuka, Esche, Schleifer, Klefisch, Vogt, Lamm, Billerbeck, Chinsky, Grauvogel, Himmelstein, Doerfle, Herr, Meyer, Berg, Flintner, Dietrich, Norden, Maas, Schimmel, Theurig, Choinsky, Genz, Pautz, Schubert, Hornemann, Gmeiner, Koehler, Benzel, and Raduege. Last fall the Republicans and Democrats had separate tickets, and the organization run by Schilling elected the Sheriff, District Attorney, and other officers. This spring the friends of good government, without distinction of party, unite in the selec-

tion of candidates for judges, and everything promises the election of their ticket.

Chicago is approaching another election of Mayor, and one result of the contest is already assured—the retirement of Carter Harrison. This odious demagogue has long controlled the Democratic party and secured four elections to the Mayoralty. This year he again got a nomination from a subservient convention, but the decent Democrats at last revolted, and his overwhelming defeat was so manifestly assured that he has declined to run. Mr. Harrison attributes the revolt against him to the President, and in one sense he is right. Mr. Cleveland, of course, has not used his influence one way or the other in Chicago municipal politics, but his example has lifted the standard of the Democratic party so high that self-respecting Democrats will no longer vote, even under protest, for such a man as Harrison.

The greatest public interest in any spring election attaches to the contest in the smallest State. Rhode Island elections for a long while have been so one-sided that nobody has paid much attention to them. The Republican Machine appeared to have a firm grip upon the little commonwealth. But the ring has grown so overbearing and offensive that a large element of the Republican party has at last declared against it, and there is a hopeful prospect of its overthrow. It is evident that only one thing can save the Republican ticket—a vast corruption fund; and venal as a large proportion of Rhode Island voters notoriously are, it looks as though even this might not prove effectual. Certain it is that many hundreds of Republicans of the highest character will vote against the Republican ticket next week Wednesday, and it can only be elected by replacing their loss with the worst elements of the Democracy.

It will thus be seen that Mugwumpism is growing both in the East and the West. The effect of this development upon the national canvass of 1888 is already perceptible. You cannot persuade a man to vote for the best candidate in a municipal or State election, and then make him believe that in a Presidential election he must vote for the party candidate if he is not the best man. The appetite for Mugwumpism grows by what it feeds on, and the practice of independent voting in municipal and State elections involves the certain defeat of the Republican party next year if it presents a candidate offensive to the independent voters. The acknowledgment by so many Republican newspapers of prominence during the past month that Mr. Blaine's renomination would certainly defeat the Republican party, shows that the power of the Mugwump is at last appreciated.

THE FIELD CODE AT ALBANY.

WHATEVER be the merits or demerits of the Field Code, we will ask our readers whether they can recall anything in the history of legislation quite as scandalous as the manner in which it is sought to impose this much condemned code upon the people of this State. There are many codes in force in different civilized countries, but not one which was forced on the community in defiance of the protests of the leading jurists of the State, and by direct appeals to the ignorance and prejudice of legislators, or pushed with an air of authority by callow journalistic youths who have taken up codification as a "topic." No other civilized state has been seriously asked to make a change in the whole body of its law condemned by the great majority of the bar, and strenuously advocated by nobody but a very aged gentleman who had composed it.

Consider, too, for one moment the means to which the codifier resorts year after year to procure its enactment. We venture to assert that his ways as a lawgiver are absolutely unprecedented. The main argument which he uses with the legislators is that the lawyers who condemn his work—the only men in the community who can judge it intelligently—are actuated solely or mainly by the fear that it will diminish their practice, or, in other words, by purely mercenary motives, as if it could make any difference to a people whose bar was in this condition what kind of laws they had. And he and his newspaper acolytes use this argument while knowing well, as we cannot help believing, that it is the infinite variety of human transactions which causes litigation, or, in other words, that it is over the application of the law, no matter how clear its provisions may be, that disputes arise, and that nothing can ever seriously diminish the number of lawsuits except an exact similarity between facts, which is as unattainable as an exact similarity between faces.

Moreover, the passage of the code in the Legislature is actually pushed by precisely the same arts as any scheme of the city lobby, namely, by appeals to the ignorance and prejudice and party feelings of the legislators. Young Mr. Ives, who is working for it, procured its final passage in the Assembly by arguments which had no more to do with its merits, or with the defects of the common law, than with the High-License Bill—that is to say, he got half-a-dozen totally indifferent members who were lounging round the lobbies to vote for it, in order to oblige him, and they did it in much the same spirit in which they would have taken a drink with him, or helped him to get the name of a village changed. Nor can we neglect a story which is current at Albany, and which, whether true or false, furnishes an excellent illustration of the state of mind in which the Legislature and the lobby approach the question of enacting the code. It is said that ten Senators have formed a "combine," have agreed to hang together, and have given Mr. Field to understand that they will vote for the code for $1,000 apiece. It is even said, and also believed, that the Manhattan Railway Company is being "worked" for the code, and that a Senator or Assemblyman can have "a man" put into the employ of that institution by vigorously assailing the common law. We repeat that we have no means of knowing whether these stories are true or false; but a good many people undoubtedly believe them, and they show the kind of atmosphere in which the code is being debated and likely to be disposed of.

We feel very sure, however, that Mr. Field will not pay for the passage of his code, or at all events will not pay any such sum as this. But, although we dislike to say it of so old a man, he is not ingenuous in his dealings with the Legislature. It is his practice at Albany (and his example has been followed by a good many of those who support him) to quote to the Legislature the favorable things said by various distinguished persons about codification, and then to assume that his particular code is entitled to the benefit of them. This method, of course, imposes on a good many who have not given the subject much consideration. It broke down in an amusing way last week when he triumphantly quoted to the Senate Committee Sheldon Amos and Frederick Pollock, leading English advocates of codification, without being aware that they had both recently pronounced the Field Code a mischievous failure. The production of these particular opinions of course made a somewhat humorous dramatic "situation." Prof. Holland, another leading English codifier, repudiates the code. The tide of knowledge and reason is, in truth, running steadily against this, we trust, last attempt to force this ill-considered change in the law upon the people of this State. Mr. James C. Carter's address to the Committee of the Senate on the 23d was a fresh and extraordinarily forcible presentation of the objections to it, and we recommend it to the perusal of everybody, whether lawyer or layman, who is opposed to reckless and haphazard dealing with great public interests

The last number of the *Political Science Quarterly*, published by the Faculty of Political Science of Columbia College—which we consider much the most promising attempt yet made in this country to found a journal devoted to the philosophy of law and politics—has an exceedingly able discussion of the question of codification by Judge Dillon and another by Mr. Frederick J. Stimson and Prof. Munroe Smith. Judge Dillon describes what he calls "our legal chaos," meaning the difficulty of extracting the law from the mass of reports and statutes in which it is now buried, and declares himself an advocate of codification as defined by Mr. Justice Stephen, who says:

> "A code ought to be based upon the principle that it aims at *nothing more* than the reduction to a definite and systematic shape of the results obtained and sanctioned by the experience of many centuries."

A more epigrammatic way of condemning the Field Code could hardly have been hit on—for that code seeks not only to "smash" the common law, as obsolete rubbish, but to substitute, on many important points, for "the experience of many centuries" the experience of Mr. D. D. Field. Judge Dillon amplifies somewhat Judge Stephen's definition by suggestions of his own, and pronounces the making of such a code "practicable and expedient whenever it can be well and thoroughly done," and says that "the best interests of the community and the profession require that the work, great and difficult, choice and tender as it is, should be undertaken, and that it cannot be much longer delayed." This means, of course, that it has not yet been undertaken by any competent person, which is true.

Prof. Munroe Smith makes some very interesting observations on the facts furnished by Mr. Stimson touching the tendencies of American State legislation. He shows that the encroachment of statute on the common law ceased

in all the older States fifty years ago; that the disposition now in all the older communities is to let alone "private law," that is, that portion of the law which regulates individual activities, or, in other words, to leave it to be moulded as now by the judges. and to embody in codes and statutes "public [*i. e.*, political] law," only—in other words, that portion of the law which concerns the public interest as distinguished from private interest. The distinction is an important one, and has also been dwelt on by Mr. Carter in the address to which we have referred above. The whole article is well worth attentive reading. It concludes with the following judgment on the Field Code:

"The code which has been most fully investigated is that which was prepared for New York, but which has not been adopted in this State. It has twice been passed by the Legislature and vetoed by the Governor; it has twice been rejected by the Legislature. It is again before the Legislature at this moment. Although it has not been adopted by the State for which it was prepared, it has been adopted as the civil code of California.

"This code is not an accurate presentation of our common law. The testimony of the lawyers of California, who are living under it, and the testimony of the lawyers of New York, who are afraid that they may have to live under it, agree upon this point. Nor is it scientifically satisfactory in its general plan or in its details. Its general arrangement is based upon that of the Code Napoléon, an arrangement which is now regarded, in Europe, as antiquated and unsatisfactory. It reproduces some of the worst features of that code, particularly in its abundance of definitions and rules of interpretation.

"That these matters should not be inserted in a code is now a maxim of European codification."

TAXED AND UNTAXED LIQUOR.

We publish in another column a table of statistics showing that in a dozen or more of the larger cities of the country the proportion of liquor-saloons to population varies according to the license fee charged; that as the fee goes up in size, the number of saloons decreases; and that as it diminishes, the number of saloons increases. Since that table was made up, statistics have come to hand showing that in every instance in which prohibition has been tried it has resulted, not in the suppression of the liquor traffic, often not even in a restriction of it, but in allowing it to be carried on free from all tax to the State; that in every instance in which high license has been adopted, it has acted as a restraint upon the traffic, and has largely increased the revenues of the State; and that in no case has such license failed greatly to reduce the number of saloons.

These statistics were collected by an eminent jurist of Michigan, Mr. D. Bethune Duffield, and were presented by him to a recent meeting in Detroit which had been called to give popular protest against a proposition to repeal the liquor-tax law of Michigan and substitute for it a prohibitory law. Mr. Duffield showed first how completely prohibition has failed of its object. In Vermont, after thirty years of prohibition, the United States revenue returns show 446 open saloons. In Iowa, there were, before the prohibitory law was enacted, 3,834 liquor-dealers; in 1886, under prohibition, there were 4,033, and a total manufacture of 5,894,545 gallons of liquor, with no revenue to the State. In Kansas, before the prohibitory law, there were 2,339 liquor-dealers; under the prohibitory law there were, in 1886, 1,850 with no revenue to the State. In Maine, after about thirty years of prohibition, there were, in 1886, 1,262 liquor-dealers, of whom 1,156 were retailers of spirituous liquors, and 100 dealers in malt liquors, a proportion of one liquor-dealer to every 515 of the population. In the city of Bangor there are 140 open saloons, or one for every 120 of the population. In Portland there are 150 saloons, or one to every 225 of the population. Neal Dow, the "father of prohibition," said in an interview published on September 11, 1886, "There is not a city or town in Maine in which the law is not entirely ignored," and "intoxication in this State has not been perceptibly lessened." The State gets no revenue from the traffic.

In Rhode Island the results of the first six months of prohibition, as revealed by carefully prepared statistics, show that there are 1,369 dealers now, against 1,471 under license, and an innumerable number of "clubs" or secret selling places; that the enforcement of the law in the courts has been a total failure in all parts of the State save Newport County, where it has been pretty well enforced by local authorities. There is no revenue to the State.

Now let us see what the results are in States in which taxation of the traffic prevails, beginning with Michigan, for which Mr. Duffield gives some very remarkable figures. After twenty years of prohibition the State had in 1874 6,444 saloons, or one for every 207 inhabitants. In May, 1875, a tax law was passed which required every retail seller of spirituous or mixed liquors to pay an annual tax of $300, every wholesale dealer $500, and every retail or wholesale dealer in malt liquors alone $200. In 1876, one year after the law went into effect, the returns showed that the number of dealers had been reduced from 6,444 to 4,867, a decrease of 1,577. In 1877, the returns showed only 3,996 dealers, a further reduction of 871. In 1882, six years after the law had gone into effect, there were in the State only 3,461 saloons, or one to every 536 of the population. Here was a decrease since 1874 of 2,983 saloons, nearly 50 per cent. All this had been accomplished in spite of the increase of population. If the ratio of saloons to population which existed under the prohibition law had continued under the tax law, the State would have had, in 1882, 8,966 saloons, instead of 3,461, and would have today 10,000 instead of less than 5,000. The revenue to the State under the tax law has been up to date $8,166,921.

In Ohio similar results have been accomplished. The first year's returns under the tax law show that in 70 of the 88 counties 1,019 saloons have been extinguished, and $1,494,000 has been paid into the Treasury in taxes. Gov. Foraker says: "The most reliable data obtainable indicate that the tax law has suppressed a large percentage of the saloons, and that practical prohibition has been secured under the local-option feature of the Dow law in at least 150 municipal corporations of this State."

In Illinois, where the High-License Law went into effect in 1883, the results are no less striking. There were in the State in 1883 about 13,000 saloons, from which the State received a revenue of about $700,000, a license of $52 each. Sixteen months after the law went into effect the number of saloons had been reduced to 9,000, and the revenue derived from that source increased to $4,500,000. In that brief period 4,000 saloons had been wiped out of existence. In Chicago alone over 1,000 disappeared in one year. In Springfield, the capital city of the State, the number of saloons had been reduced a few months later from 157 to 104, while the revenue from that source had risen from $17,000 to $52,000 per annum, or 200 per cent. In Peoria, before the High-License Law went into effect, there were 220 saloons, paying license fees aggregating $22,000. In March of 1885 the number of saloons had been reduced nearly one-half and the revenue therefrom increased to $63,000 a year, or nearly trebled.

It is unnecessary to say a word in support of figures like these. If the prohibition advocates would stop reasoning from their feelings and look at accomplished results, they would all be in favor of high license as the only practical remedy for the evil they are fighting.

SOME WAGNER LETTERS.

"Fifteen Letters by Richard Wagner" is the heading of an article printed in the February and March numbers of the *Rundschau*, and including the full text of the letters. They were addressed to the writer of the article, Frau Eliza Wille, the wife of a Hamburg journalist who had wearied of public strife and settled in a Swiss village, Mariafeld, near Zürich, devoted to agriculture and the education of his children. In the eyes of all who worship musical genius, Frau Wille was a remarkably privileged person. Not only did she entertain Wagner for a whole summer at her house, when he was completing his "Meistersinger" score; she was also one of the first to hear parts of the "Tristan" music, and the Nibelung poems, which Wagner first read at her house. Moreover, she knew Chopin and Liszt. Indeed, as a girl in Paris, she once had occasion to indulge in a frivolous pastime which the muse Terpsichore herself would have envied her—that of dancing to the four-hand performance on the piano of Chopin and Liszt. She relates that she had never heard any one play Chopin's music with such refinement and clearness as his own performance showed. One evening she gave him a poem which she had written on Poland, whereupon he sat down and improvised with such a wonderful wealth of ideas and sentiment that the hostess pressed her hand and said she had never heard Chopin play like that.

Wagner she first met at Dresden in 1843, when "Rienzi" and the "Flying Dutchman" had just been brought out. She was impressed by "the elegant, mobile figure, the head with its great forehead, the keen eye, and the energetic lines about the small and firmly-closed mouth. An artist who sat next to me called my attention to the straight, projecting chin, which, as if chiselled in stone, impressed a special character on the face." Nine years later Wagner was for the first time a guest at Mariafeld. He arrived in company with the poet Herwegh. It was through Herwegh that Wagner was first introduced to the works of his favorite author, Schopenhauer, which Herwegh had brought with him to Mariafeld. Wagner fairly devoured them. "He and Herwegh were astounded at the solution of the world-mystery." They spent much time discussing them, together with such subjects as alliteration and the Edda poems. At a later period, when Wagner was again staying at Mariafeld,

he commonly had a volume of Schopenhauer in hand when he was not at his work. "No one has penetrated more deeply than I into the spirit of this philosopher," he said to Frau Wille. Herr Wille frequently called on Schopenhauer when he was at Frankfort. "Do you remember," Wagner said one day to Frau Wille, "what greeting from Schopenhauer your husband once brought me? 'Tell your friend Wagner that I am obliged for the copy of his Nibelungen which he sent me, but he ought to give up music—he is more of a poetic genius. I, Schopenhauer, shall remain faithful to Rossini and Mozart.' Do you suppose," Wagner added, "that I bore the philosopher a grudge on that account?" There was, indeed, little occasion to heed the opinion of a man who played the flute, and who admired Rossini because he absolutely disregarded the text of his operas.

During his ten years' residence in and near Zürich Wagner did not, according to Frau Wille, share the dreary fate of other exiles. His fame had preceded him, and "every one felt honored to receive a kind word from him." He did not take much part in local musical affairs, but on one occasion he gave a concert at which selections from his own works were produced, and which aroused much enthusiasm among the audience as well as the musicians. One old 'cellist remarked that "when *he* is with us we all seem new men and musicians." On one occasion Wagner had accepted an invitation to act as judge at a vocal contest in Wallis; but at the last moment he changed his mind and declined. "Wagner did not approve of four-part male choruses," Frau Wille remarks; "except for warlike utterances, a chorus without female voices seemed unnatural to him." Such sorrows of exile as Wagner did know in Switzerland came entirely from the unpromising outlook of his affairs at home. True, his early operas were gradually making their way in the German opera-houses, but the leading opera-houses—at Vienna, Berlin, Munich—where alone they could be satisfactorily rendered, were the last to produce them; and the manner in which his own and other operas were commonly rendered always disgusted and discouraged Wagner. The Vienna authorities refused Wagner's offer to write for them a new opera ("Die Meistersinger"), but gave an order instead to Offenbach; while the Berlin Intendant refused even to see Wagner when he called on him! His finances, too, were exceedingly low, and this added to the depression of his spirits while he was at Wille's house. A Russian princess, enamored of his music, had promised her assistance; but when it came to the test she was found wanting. Other letters of unpleasant contents damped his spirits and interrupted his work on "Die Meistersinger."

One day he exclaimed to Frau Wille: "I am differently organized, have sensitive nerves, must have beauty, splendor, and light! The world owes me what I need! I cannot be content with a miserable organist's position, like your Master Bach! Is it really an unheard-of demand if I claim a right to the little bit of luxury which I like—I, who am preparing enjoyment for the world and for thousands!" Some years previously to this outburst, Liszt had remarked to Wille that he knew of no opera-house good enough for Wagner: that he needed a stage, vocalists, an orchestra—in short, everything—according to his own notions. Wille retorted that that would probably cost over a million (francs); whereupon Liszt suddenly exclaimed prophetically, and in French, as usual when he was excited: "Il l'aura! Le million se trouvera." The prediction was fulfilled; and it was while Wagner resided at Mariafield with the Willes that the young King of Bavaria despatched a special messenger to find Wagner and bring him to Munich. But Wagner had left just two days before without explaining why—apparently to make a tour of the German opera-houses.

He first stopped at Stuttgart, whence he wrote to Frau Wille that he had attended a performance at the opera which inspired him "with deadly disgust." In the next letter, dated May 4, 1864, he writes to her about the King: "You know that the young King of Bavaria sent a messenger to find me. To-day I was brought before him. He is, alas, so beautiful and sympathetic, so emotional and delightful, that I am afraid his life must fade away in this common world like a divine dream. He loves me with the depth and ardor of first love; he knows all about me and understands me like my own soul. He wants me to be with him always, to work, to rest, to produce my works; he will give me everything I need: I am to finish my Nibelungen, and he will have them performed as I wish. I am to be my own unrestricted master, not Kapellmeister—nothing but myself and his friend." May 26 is the date of another very long letter, in which occur these passages:

"In the year when my 'Tannhäuser' was first performed (the work with which I entered on my new thorny path), in the month of August, when I was filled with such an exuberance of creative impulse that I sketched 'Lohengrin' and 'Die Meistersinger' at the same time, a mother gave birth to my guardian angel. At the time when I was finishing my 'Tristan' at Lucerne, and was making unspeakable efforts to secure permission to live on German territory (Baden), and finally, in despair, turned to Paris, there to engage in undertakings against which my spirit revolted—at that time the youth of 15 first heard a performance of my 'Lohengrin,' which moved him so deeply that from that date he educated himself by the study of my works and writings in such a manner that he now frankly confesses to his surrounding, as to me, that I was really his sole educator and teacher. He followed up my career and my troubles, my disagreeable Parisian experiences, my misfortunes in Germany, and now his sole wish is to have the power to prove his supreme love for me. The only sore trouble of the youth was to comprehend how to secure from his obtuse surroundings this necessary sympathy for me. Early in March, of this year, I remember the day, I became convinced that any attempt to improve my situation must fail; openly and defenceless I confronted all the abominable indignities inflicted on me, when, quite unexpectedly, the King of Bavaria died, and my compassionate guardian angel—contrary to all fate—mounted the throne. Four weeks later his first care was to send for me. While I was, with your compassionate assistance, draining the cup of misery to the dregs, his messenger was already searching for me at my empty house in Penzing; he had to bring the loving King a lead pencil, a pen, belonging to me. How and when he found me you know already. . . .

"He now resides mostly in a small castle in my neighborhood; in ten minutes the carriage brings me into his presence. Daily he sends for me once or twice, and I always fly as to a beloved. Our intercourse is most delightful. Such a thirst for knowledge, such understanding, such reckless eagerness and enthusiasm, have never been my happy lot."

The King presented him, among other things, with a portrait for which he sat expressly for Wagner. In September Wagner writes again to his friend:

"Now I have a young King who really loves me ecstatically; you cannot conceive what this means. I remember a dream which I had as a youth: I dreamed that Shakspere was living, and that I saw him and spoke to him actually and in person. I have never forgotten the impression which this made on me, and which aroused the desire in me to see Beethoven (who, too, was no longer among the living). Somewhat similar must be the feelings of this amiable young man in having me. He tells me he can hardly believe that I am really his! His letters to me no one can read without astonishment and delight. Liszt remarked that his receptivity, as shown in them, was on the same lofty plane as my productivity. Believe me, it is a miracle!"

One of the main reasons why Wagner soon found himself surrounded by enemies at Munich was the belief that he had an equally great influence on the King in political matters. But this was not the case; for, as Wagner remarked to Wille, the "King looked at the ceiling and began to whistle" whenever Wagner began to talk politics. Nevertheless, how universal this erroneous belief was, is shown by the following extract from the letter just quoted. The reference is to Lassalle:

"The unhappy man came to me (through Bülow), just fourteen days before his death, to beg me to intercede with the King in behalf of the Swiss Ambassador (Dönniges). (For I am considered simply an omnipotent favorite; the other day the relatives of a female poisoner implored my protection!) What do you say to that? I had never before met Lassalle; on this occasion I disliked him heartily. It was a love affair, prompted purely by vanity and false pathos. I recognized in him the type of our prominent men of the future, which I must call the Germanic-Jewish."

Whatever may have been King Ludwig's eccentricities, it is probable that the world would never have seen Wagner's last two or three works had it not been for his encouragement and support; and certainly the general appreciation of Wagner's genius would have been retarded a decade or two. This fact invests the present correspondence with a double interest.

BRADFORD'S INDEX TO CLEMENCIN'S COMMENTARY ON DON QUIXOTE.—I.

YALE COLLEGE, March 26, 1887.

IN the year 1781, about 175 years after the publication of the 'Quixote,' the first commentary thereon saw the light. It was prepared, after long study of the language, literature, and the book itself, by an enthusiastic clergyman of the Church of England, in the quaint old town of Salisbury. The Rev. John Bowle thus filled a large quarto volume of 588 pages with one of the best expositions ever written of a difficult author, which he added to the two volumes of a carefully edited reprint of the original text. With its full indexes, it has supplied an accessible storehouse of Cervantistic information for all lovers of the hero of La Mancha, and has furnished the chief source of suggestion and matter to subsequent miners in the same lode. It is not surprising that that enlightened and hard-worked scholar, Gregorio Mayans y Siscar, said in 1778 to Mr. Dillon, referring to Bowle's forthcoming edition of Cervantes: "I am ashamed for my country to learn of such an enterprise accomplished by a foreigner."

Fifty years more passed by, when at last a Spanish antiquarian of ability, well known by his valuable documentary essay on the life and character of Isabel the Catholic (Madrid, Sancha, 1820), brought to conclusion in 1831 a voluminous second commentary on the 'Don Quixote,' which was thought to be an exhaustive *ne varietur* work, destined to leave the world, according to an expressive native phrase, *con la boca abierta—i. e.*, aghast with wonder and admiration. The first three volumes came forth from the neat presses of Aguado at Madrid in 1833, in a sort of Spanish small-quarto size, when the author fell under the weight of his sixty nine years, just as a more hopeful political future seemed to be dawning on his oppressed country. Able friends, however, quickly came to the rescue of the completed manuscript, and in 1835, 1836, and 1839 the remaining three volumes appeared, fulfilling the author's design. The notes were printed on each page in smaller type under the text, and are so abundant and full as often to leave but a small strip of the latter visible to the eye.

But neither Clemencin nor the editors of his posthumous tomes had thought to crown their labors by subjoining a complete index to the six volumes of annotations. As a consequence, though admired and praised, and bought and pointed to,

they were not *read*, and soon found themselves relegated to the honorable exile of dusty bookshelves, among other inaccessible treasures that find their way into every well-stored collection, more *pro dignitate* than *pro utilitate*. We acquired the work some twenty years ago in Madrid, read it through then, but never could afterwards seem to hit upon a note that we desired to review for private or public use. We have spent from two to three days in anxious "hunting" for a gem we remembered to have met with once, but, alas! without success. We shipped the set over to America with our Spanish library in '78, not caring to part with it, yet never more venturing to consult it.

At length, or rather in the meantime, Mr. Bradford, set on years ago by that great and excellent man, George Ticknor—in days when there was something of a Spanish atmosphere about Boston—went to work, and little by little succeeded in raising the dead Clemencin to newness of life (*con perdón sea dicho*), vitalizing the abandoned carcasses of the worthy volumes, and turning afresh the tide of literary pilgrimage to the old devotion, with a secure pledge of rapid transit into the very heart of the shrine. The dark passages and Avernian responses of the prodigious knight are now served on your desk with the germane references, the fraternal hints, and multitudinous cross-road sign-posts, that innocently disembowel the author without so much as a groan or a victim.

We had occasion lately to wonder what old Clemencin would have to say about Spanish gypsies, of whom Cervantes was a special *pal*. The suggestion, however, did not evoke more emotion than a smile, until we suddenly remembered, and rushed to our shelves for Bradford. Yes, sure enough, there it was under "*Gitanos:* a long note on the history, life, and customs of the gypsies, and the legislation touching them, ii, 473-478"—a saving of days of research, seas of patience, and dictionaries of figurative anathemas, with a fine article dished out for you, reaching from the times of those pious sovereigns who drove out the Moors and Jews, but could not get rid of the gypsies, down to the impious Ferdinand, who completed the desolation by exiling men who had modern ideas.

To this laborious compilation, which long remained in the chrysalis state of a manuscript, the *Nation* called public attention in 1874. Since then, the whole work has been uniformly Hispanicized and published at Madrid, under the patronage of the Academia de la Lengua, in a neat square octavo of some six hundred pages, so that it can stand in worthy harmony with the primeval Commentary as volume vii.* This index reproduces often the substance of the notes under natural catchwords arranged in alphabetic order, with all the excellences and, we must add, defects, of Clemencin. It is a misfortune that the defects were not corrected and the false statements met by the critical light which fifty years have thrown over the text and study of Cervantes. But even as it is, the Index is a monument of painstaking industry, and will ever be invaluable as a pathfinder to the once hopeless labyrinth which the Murcian, Diego Clemencin, left behind in 1834. Henceforth the only limit to the study of this Commentary will be its own insufficiency, resulting in part from the period in which it was prepared, the peculiar want of sympathy between the annotator and his subject, the great advance in our knowledge of the sixteenth century, and of the true etymology and signification of the language.

When the 'Quixote' came forth, the public found the book filled with a string of terms cropping out here and there that equalled the best Sunday "Shelta" of Monipodio's gang in the Triana of Seville. There being no Hidalgo to interpret this "flash jib" of the roads, and the native scholars not knowing what it meant so well as their water-carriers and *mozos de cordel* did, it has been dressed up to suit customers of the dainty sort, and the dictionaries have handed down the empty conjectures, or wisely left them alone. We are now going to take the liberty of pointing out a blemish or two in Clemencin, leaving in the inkstand a gross or more of similar ones, showing the way in which Spanish scholars misinterpret their own words and idioms and even customs.

¿Á qué diablos se pudre?—No wonder Clemencin did not understand this phrase of a class of people he never ventured to look at, for *pudrir* did not make its appearance in the Academy's Dictionaries till 1822, and he probably used the previous one of 1817. Foreign vocabularies, however, had given it for two hundred years before! Shelton translates in 1620: "Assuredly, master mine, quoth Sancho, a small matter makes you angry: why the devill doe you *pine* that I make use of my own goods?" Dominguez shows it means "fret"—*molestarse, inquietarse.*

Alcaná de Toledo.—What Hebrew word signifies a "fair" or a "market" that corresponds in any degree with this form? *Qânah* in Hebrew means to buy; true, but where does the *al* come from? Ah, from the Arabic article, says Covarrubias (1611). Then why not make the whole Arabic, as Dozy does—*al-khânât*, the shops, and *alcaná*, the place in Toledo where the Jews had their bazars?

Alfana.—From a purely imaginary female steed invented by Boiardo (1495), adopted by Ariosto (1516), and introduced into Spain by the early translators of the respective Orlandos, the serious idea of a "*breeding* mare, wilde and strange," found its place in the Italian 'Worlde of Wordes' (Florio, 1598, 1611; Torriano, 1659), which from 1726 the Academics of Madrid were not slow to transform into a "stout, athletic, mettlesome horse"; and this would not have been so compromising, had they not allowed their latest native etymologist to dress up the mythic mare as an Arab, called from *alfaindn*, because of his (her?) "long flowing mane"! Who can this Don *Cuyo* be who hath thus found an etymon from Mecca for a visionary steed?

Amadis.—"Estravaus (*Des* travaux)," why not "*es* travaux," which is the old French for *en les* as still appears in *bachelier ès lettres, maître ès arts*, etc., pronounced *èze*?

Apellidos.—Clemencin's derivations of patronymics in *ez* from the Latin genitive in *i* is about on a par with philological attainments in the Peninsula, where Diez, Mahn, and Dozy are ignored—doubtless because foreigners. We have shown in another place (Gram., p. 16 *n*) that the ending is not Teutonic, as the Germans insist, but simply the ablative plural. Thus Lainez or Laynez =[*de*] *Latinis* of the *Latini* family; Ordoñez = *Fortuniis*, of the *Fortunii*; so Pelagius makes Pelayo and Peláez and Páez, [*de*] *Pelagiis*. The Italian formation is identical, save that, according to the genius of their language, the final *s* is dropped: Galileo de' Galilei(s), Martino de' Martini(s).

Apodos (nicknames, epithets).—The pueblo de la Reloxa (as Cervantes wrote it) might have been Logroño, *the* pueblo of the Province of La Rioja; but we do not believe *cazoleros* to be a false reading for *cazalleros*, and still less that it referred to the noble martyr Dr. Augustin Cazalla (and not Cazalle as given), burned to the stake with all his family in 1559, on the spot where the railway station of Valladolid now stands, for upholding the immortal banner of Protestant principles. One would have supposed that an American Protestant would have boldly maintained the memory and dignity of Dr. Cazalla, especially since the nation that rejoiced in his agony that day has sunken to its present degree of degradation in Europe.

Arábigos (*vocablos*).—It would have been well to say that the Spanish idea that all words beginning with *al* are Arabic, was first stated *ex cathedra* by Nebrija or Lebrija in his Spanish Grammar of 1492. So much were his books read in the schools in the sixteenth century (like Lilly in England) that the nation became saturated with this inexact statement. From the same source came the idea that the *x* (now *j*) was received from the Moors. The *x* was, however, pronounced *sh* in his day, and that was the sound he referred to. There was no Spanish guttural taught in the grammars till that of Doergangk, 1614, so that "Don Quixote" was pronounced by Cervantes as the Germans would pronounce *Kichôte*, and not *Kĭchôtĕ*—nearly as *sh*, a palato-lingual sound, German *ich*, *manch*, *berg*.

Arrús.—Our commentator here delivers a hard hit at Bowle, because he does not understand *voto á Rus*, and adds: "But how should a foreigner comprehend our delicacies?" Of course we have a right to expect now a startling revelation, but, alas! after a reference to Pellicer, who thinks it is—well, nothing in particular, it results that nobody knows—*no se sabe*. Why, it is simply the modern *voto á Briós*, which Spaniards, not comprehending, write *voto á bríos*, as if it were *brioches*, or something good to eat—the older French *par bieu*, modern *parbleu*, a euphemism for *voto á Dios*. Breton often puts into the mouth of his coarser characters *voto á Cribas* (= *á Cristo*). These cunning devices to avoid the comfort of a naughty word are heard every day, in any country, when some one steps on your toes or otherwise deserves an energetic response.

Borla.—This is not the *birrete* (*bonete*), but the tassle attached to the hat, marking the grade, so that a *Doctor de tres borlas* is a doctor in civil law, canonical law, and *in utroque jure*.

Brindis (toast).—Clemencin makes the astounding assertion that this is the only word in the language that has the same form for both numbers. If Mr. Bowle had made such a statement, he might indeed have been excused on the plea of being a "foreigner," but Mr. Bowle would never have exhibited the like ignorance of a language he had studied fourteen years. There is not only *crisis*, and *paréntesis*, which are invariable for number, but *all* atonic endings in *is* and *es* belong to the same category. *Brindis* is the German *bring dir's* (provincial English, *Here's t'ye*).

Buen (al) callar llaman Sancho.—Amador de los Rios, in the complete edition of the works of the Marquis de Santillana (Iñigo Lopez de Mendoza, 1398-1458), gives this proverb wrongly (p. 504), for in the ancient MS, which we have seen, it is properly written sancho, not Sancho. Sbarbi, who published Santillana's collection of "sayed-sawes and adages," as the quaint How ell puts it, gives the right reading: *al buen callar llaman sancho* (p. 71). It is one of the oldest Spanish proverbs and a good specimen of popular etymology. The Latin *sanctus* gave as the organic hispanization *sancho* (consecta [seges] = *cosecha*, crop when *cut*), and the learned form *sancto*, modern *santo*. But as *sancho*, the people's Spanish for *sanctus*, came to collide with the proper name *Sancho* (from Low-Latin *Sancius*), the organic term was replaced by the learned, and *sancho*, holy, a saint, was forgotten. So it reads, "a good keeping your tongue is called saintly"—or, as we say, "Silence is golden." There are scores of examples in Spanish philology where colliding forms diverge, often by assimilation, as in *perro* for *pedro* (from *patrius* [canis] and *Petrus*), because the proper name made regularly

* Indice de las Notas de D. Diego Clemencin en su edicion de 'Don Quijote de la Mancha.' Por Carlos F. Bradford. Madrid.

Pedro too. Spain had many dogs—all "foreign," wherefore she hated them—as *canis gallicus, galgo*, the "French" dog; *canis gothicus, gozque* (gothici), the "Gothic" dog; *canis sabaudus, sabueso*, the "Savoy" dog; *canis bodincus, podenco*, the Po or "Italian" dog; *canis alanus, alano*, the Alani's dog, and *cdravo*, from the Arabic *kelb* (Fuero Viejo de Cast, p. 73 *n*); so they called the *native* dog (*canis*) *patrius*, "our dog" (*Español rancio*), attracting the vowels, according to their wont, into *paitro, petro, pedro*, and then assimilating for the above reason into *perro*.

W. I. KNAPP.

Correspondence.

WOLSELEY ON LEE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have just finished reading Gen. Lord Wolseley's article on Gen. Lee, in *Macmillan's Magazine*, and cannot forbear the expression of my astonishment that such wretched trash could emanate from an officer above the grade of subaltern. The ignorance of facts and the incapacity for military criticism exhibited by our British cousins during the progress of the war of secession were sometimes amusing and sometimes provoking; but that "the only general" of the British army could, twenty-two years after the war, at leisure and deliberately, put forth statements and opinions like those contained in the *Macmillan* article, is simply amazing.

Two sentences will suffice: Lord Wolseley asks, "Was ever an army so hopelessly at the mercy of another as that of McClellan when he began his retreat to Harrison's Landing after the seven days' fighting around Richmond? What commander could wish to have his foe in a 'tighter place' than Burnside was in after his disastrous attack upon Lee at Fredericksburg?"

What does the first sentence quoted mean? Does Lord Wolseley suppose that the retreat to Harrison's Landing began after the seven days' fighting? That retreat was accomplished *during* the seven days' fighting; that retreat *was* the seven days' fighting. So much for Lord Wolseley's conception of the situation. His criticism is equally worthless. Lee had all he could do to dislodge McClellan from his position in front of Richmond and make his retreat to the James necessary. Indeed, he was very fortunate in being able to accomplish so much. His army was on several occasions more at the mercy of McClellan than McClellan's army was on any one occasion at his mercy. Had Porter been properly reinforced on the 27th of June, had Heintzelman supported Sumner on the 29th, the Confederates would have been put in great peril. The nearest Lee came at any time to threatening the existence of the Army of the Potomac was at Glendale, on the 30th. Here a Confederate victory would have involved a serious disaster to McClellan's army, but that victory was not in fact won; the Confederate assaults were thrown off with severe loss, and McClellan's reserves, at the close of the battle, were numerous enough to have taken all the fighting off the hands of the troops that had been engaged. Perhaps Malvern Hill is the point where Lord Wolseley conceives Gen. McClellan's army to have been most hopelessly at the mercy of Gen. Lee!

Lord Wolseley's conception of the situation after the battle of Fredericksburg is not more erroneous, but the error is far less excusable. I venture to assert that the six corps commanders of the Army of the Potomac would have agreed unanimously, on the 14th of December, 1862, to march the best brigade of each division back to Acquia Creek, on the condition that Gen. Lee would attack on that day or any day following. The man who is capable of imagining that the Confederates could have run over the Union army, even after its disastrous repulse at Fredericksburg, is not capable of forming an opinion of value regarding any phase of the American war. In saying this I do not write as a Union soldier, but as an American; and I do not doubt that every Confederate officer present in that battle would agree with me in this.

Lord Wolseley's opinion regarding the movements of the Union and Confederate armies, considered, not strategically but as examples of logistics, is highly amusing. Any one who has read the accounts in the English papers of the efforts of the English military authorities to move a small corps, in light marching order, a few miles, by good roads; give the troops a dinner of cooked food sent down express from London, and get them safely back to camp by nightfall, cannot fail to be entertained by Lord Wolseley's reflections upon the logistics of the American armies, North and South. Repeatedly, during the campaign of '64, bodies of from thirty to fifty thousand men were moved many miles during the night, over the worst of roads, sometimes amid pouring rain, with their hospitals, trains, and artillery, and put into position to deliver or repel an assault by four o'clock in the morning, the whole movement having been ordered and even conceived upon information received after nightfall.

One would not lightly use contemptuous phrases regarding an officer of Lord Wolseley's rank; but the whole body of military criticism contained in this pretentious article cannot be characterized otherwise than as silly, empty, and vain.

FRANCIS A. WALKER.

WOMAN SUFFRAGE IN MASSACHUSETTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The "additional statistics" of "E. L." in your number of March 17 are as misleading as those which Sydney Smith once characterized. Granted that only a few thousand women go every year to the trouble and expense of getting themselves registered to vote for school committees in Massachusetts, the wonder is that even so many do this. Under parallel circumstances, not five hundred men would vote. Col. T. W. Higginson recently told the Woman Suffrage Committee of the Legislature that he had taken an active part in many political movements, but that all his political duties during the entire year did not give him so much trouble as trying to keep his wife's name on the Cambridge voting list, and that he had failed in doing so after all. Every one knows that the nomination of school committee is a minor part of the general system of municipal suffrage, and is shaped and determined in the party caucuses, from which women are excluded. The nominees of these caucuses are afterwards elected on a general party ticket, with no regard whatever to their respective merits. The 1,200 women voters of Boston have more than once brought forward the names of first-class men who have subsequently been taken up by the Democratic party and elected. No woman has ever yet been elected upon the Boston School Board upon a general ticket, unless she has first received the Democratic nomination, and no woman has ever failed of an election when she has been thus nominated. Miss Abby W. May, Miss Lucia Peabody, and Mrs. Emily A. Fifield have been thus chosen, and have done admirable service. But these ladies have been left off because they were too independent to do the behests of party managers, because politicians wanted their places, and because they were not Democratic voters. They have always received the undivided support of all, or almost all, the women voters.

But the important and encouraging fact connected with the school committee vote in Massachusetts is its *quality*. The few thousand women who have annually taken the trouble to get their names registered have done so solely from public spirit, and have been without exception women of superior intelligence and character. They have for ever refuted the prediction that "only bad women will vote." No sane man or woman will claim that the women have done harm or have lowered the standard of politics, either as voters or as school officers. On the contrary, it will be admitted that the more such voters the better. But in order to have more, greater inducement must be offered. Full municipal suffrage, on the same terms as men, as just granted in Kansas, will be the only fair test. When this is granted in Massachusetts, women will vote in large numbers; never till then.

Meanwhile, more than one hundred women are serving on school committees throughout the State—more than five times as many as before women voted. And wherever, as in Woburn, any attempt is made to control the public schools in sectarian interests, women will register and vote. In that town more than six hundred women have done so for several years past, and have saved the schools from being thus perverted.

A few years ago we had a special election in Boston for male citizens on the question whether a system of public parks should be inaugurated. It was far more likely to enlist public interest than the choice of a school committee, since it involved extensive transactions in real estate and an expenditure of millions of dollars. Only one voter in twelve voted for parks; yet the parks carried the day, because only one voter in fourteen took the trouble to vote against them. In the city of Toronto, where school committees have been chosen at a special election, it has just been found necessary to connect it with the general municipal election because only a handful of voters could be induced to come out. (Our School Committee election is a special one, so far as the women are concerned.) Are these facts an argument against manhood suffrage? Not at all. No more are the facts stated by "E. L." an argument against woman suffrage. H. B. B.

DORCHESTER, March 28, 1887.

JOHN COTTON FINALLY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: "Pocomas" has written a second letter in regard to John Cotton, at much greater length and with much more rancor than one would suppose to be altogether necessary in reply to a "column or more of special pleading and irrelevant nonsense," of which he says that I, in my answer to him, have been guilty. But I was glad to see his latest communication, because, however little most that he says bears upon the question really at issue, and however consistently he has misrepresented me throughout, he still does say one thing on account of which his letter is worth answering. The points to be indicated in reply are easily summarized.

(1.) Cases of "Pocomas's" misrepresentation of me. (*a.*) He says that I "gravely state" that I "consider the three letters at the end of the inscription, viz., S. P. D., to be a misprint for S. T. D." "Pocomas" must pardon the brusqueness of my denial. But I did not. (*b.*) He says that I said I thought P. M. stands for M. P., Member of Parliament. Again my reply is, I did not.

(2.) I am sorry to see that "Pocomas" does not understand Latin, although he tries to correct me. For he asks where, in the dedication, provided the letters S. P. D. are for S. T. D., *Sacrosanctæ Theologiæ Doctor*, the verb is to be found. Why,

it is a commonplace that the verb is often omitted in a Latin sentence.

(3.) "Pocomas's" discussion of the meaning of the letters P. M., if he will pardon the reference, like the flowers that bloom in the spring, planted by Mr. Gilbert, is interesting, but has nothing to do with the case. Whether P. M. means 'Pannonius Medicus,' or 'Post Master,' or 'afternoon,' really makes no difference whatever in regard to the question as to which John Cotton is meant. This device of treating the irrelevant as the relevant is a form of the *argumentum ad hominem* which is very serviceable at times, but does not apply here.

(4.) But "Pocomas," as I said, does say one thing which makes his letter really worth answering. He interprets D.D. as *dignissimo domino*. This, no doubt, is very plausible. But then his sentence would be left without a verb; and this is a state of things which, as pointed out under 2, he cannot allow at all. Now, as Jeffrey said, "This will never do." From a laudable desire to prove his point, he says that D.D. means *dignissimo domino*, but forgets that a rule which he has previously laid down should prevent such an interpretation on his part. The real reason for his choice of this interpretation thus clearly appears. He must retreat either to the interpretation *dono dedit* or to *dedicavit*. Better information about verbs in Latin sentences would have left open to him, as it does to everybody, not only the last-cited interpretations, but the *dignissimo domino* besides. *Dominus*, however, as I showed in my letter to the *Advertiser*, was a title frequently given to clergymen. And thus, even if "Pocomas's" suggestion (which he himself has no right to accept) be accepted, it leaves the case about the same as before. And arguments which, by the way, "Pocomas" conveniently ignored, make it still stronger.

I should not have ventured before your readers thus to state my case had I not been so strangely misrepresented, and had I formerly taken the opportunity of replying to my critic through your columns. Readers of my first reply to "Pocomas" and his to me must feel, I fear, that he slashes and thrusts with his sword in a manner not altogether in harmony with the generally accepted rules of polite warfare. Nor are duels fought nowadays with one contestant behind the arras.

"'Pocomas,'" it seems to me, "doth protest too much."—Very respectfully,

W. M. Fullerton.

[We must close this controversy here, but not without expressing our amazement that the statements *a* and *b* are charged against "Pocomas" as "misrepresentations."—Ed. Nation.]

MEANS AND ENDS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In an analysis of our political systems and methods a prominent place would have to be given to the investigating committee. It is a carefully adjusted arrangement by which inquiry is kept at a certain distance behind the facts without any danger of overtaking them. Whenever any exceptional public scandal or manifestation of helplessness comes to light, Congress, or the State Legislature, or the City Council appoints a committee to investigate it. This is generally a partisan body, determined in advance to declare the persons or things investigated either absolutely innocent or inexcusably criminal. If it does investigate at all, it does so by a process so cumbrous and tedious that the public and all concerned become utterly indifferent to the result; and lastly, as it has no punitive power, it can only report its discoveries to the body which created it, and which, being tender-hearted towards offenders (generally for sound reasons), or too little interested in administration to care about reforming it, may be said literally never to take any action in consequence. Hardly anybody, therefore, reads in his newspaper of the appointment of an investigating committee without a smile of contempt.

This cannot be said, however, of Senator Cockrell of Missouri, who, according to the statement of a reporter, proposes to pass the next three months in Washington in getting up information for the select committee of the Senate which is to meet on June 20, and to try and find out "whether it is the Administration or Congress that is responsible for the arrears of work and for the slowness with which the work of the Government is performed." I will venture to offer to the Senator a bit of prediction which it may be interesting to verify. He and the Committee will probably do a great deal of hard work and will gather together a mass of information which they will regard as of the highest practical value, and which will be embodied in a report to the Senate. It will be ordered to be printed, and that is the last word that any mortal on earth will ever hear of it, so that, in fact, the time and labor and expense of the Committee might just as well have been spared. If it is asked why this is so confidently predicted, I will simply refer to the Senate Document Room as a catacomb of similar reports upon every conceivable subject from the beginning of the Government, of which, if it is too much to say that not one was ever acted upon, yet the percentage is so small as hardly to affect the result.

The reason of existence of the Committee, as stated at length by the Senator, is the fact that Congress makes its appropriations and gives its orders without any reference to the condition or organization of the departments, or, in general, to the practicability of carrying them out; while, for precisely that reason, the departments are staggering in hopeless confusion. If Senator Cockrell really wishes to see a practical reform in this respect, there is one way in which he can promote it, and that is by bringing the departments and Congress into public contact; by letting investigation and reform proceed side by side; by letting the heads of departments publicly state, and members of Congress publicly inquire, what changes and modifications legislation and administration may respectively need; in short, by vigorously supporting the Senate report of February 4, 1881, in favor of allowing the Cabinet officers seats, without votes, in both houses, with the right of sharing in debate and the duty of answering questions.

I observe that your correspondent, "R. F.," is distressed in mind at the sectionalism of Congress, and proposes that fifteen members at large from either party should be elected to represent the whole country. May I invite him to the wholesome process of thinking out what his idea involves? In the first place, there is a special constitutional amendment—no slight undertaking, and therefore not to be entered upon without a clear idea of how it would work. Then the members at large must come from somewhere, and therefore be just as local in feeling as any other members; they would have no more power over and no more responsibility for administration than any other members; their presence would in no wise affect the secret-committee system, which is the real source of trouble. As a matter of experience, moreover, "R. F." will find, if he will take the trouble to inquire, that in several cases of city and, I am inclined to think, in some of State governments, this very expedient has been tried of having members at large as a remedy for sectionalism, and always with complete failure.

I venture to suggest to him that there is a much more simple and effective machinery ready at hand for the same end. The President, and, through him, the Cabinet, do represent the whole country. Being intrusted with, and therefore responsible for, the national administration, they have a much greater interest in the success of that than in favoring any locality. By giving to the Cabinet officers a public share in the discussion of legislation, order and system would be obtained, and business brought out of the committee-rooms into public view, and thus the power of the nation be brought to bear against local and private interest. May I not hope to enlist "R. F." among the rapidly multiplying recruits in support of this as a real and practical remedy for the evil which we both deplore? G. B.

Boston, March 26, 1887.

A WORKINGMAN'S THOUGHTS ON LABOR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As a workingman I have been amused at the many theories put forward as the cause and the remedy for the present unsatisfactory social condition of the working classes. The most common remedy for the troubles of the workman is that he must rise above it, and thus not be a workman. But, as far as can be seen, there will always be a working class; so that this remedy will not do away with the troubles of a class, but only of the individual. What the workingman wants is steady employment, with reasonable freedom of thought and action, and such pay as will allow him to provide the necessaries of life for himself and family, and do it without excessive toil. In common with most workingmen, I felt that there was something wrong in our present condition, and examined the different theories put forward for our betterment, but have rejected all of them as impracticable. I then looked around me, and thought that if all the energy that is devoted to the production of luxuries was directed to the production of bread and other necessaries, these articles would be so cheap and common that not a single person would want for them. To cheapen the necessaries of life, then, ought to be the aim of the working classes. How can we cheapen them? By taking the tax off of them.

Take that most necessary article, bread; it is indirectly taxed on the farm, on the railroad, and in the elevator, and through every machine and article necessary to its production. It is the same with the cotton shirt of the workingman. It is taxed through the cotton-mill, railroad, and store. Thus we see the wheat that is so cheap to the farmer of the West is dear enough to the cotton operative in the East, and the cotton cloth, so cheap to the operatives, is dear enough to the farmer of the West. In this manner taxes hinder the natural working of exchange, and throw many out of employment by hindering profitable production.

We ought to do away with the taxes on the machinery of production, and make the rule that when a man invests a dollar in production, such money cannot be taxed. It is not the owner of the cotton-mill that pays the tax, but the person that consumes the cotton cloth. Taxes could be raised by dues on consumption, with the heaviest taxes on the greatest and most harmful luxuries. It seems to me that, with such a system of government, a single worthy workingman would not want for the necessaries while a single acre of land remained uncultivated or luxuries were indulged in by any class of the community.

Much has been done in the past by improving the intelligence and morals of the working class,

but it can be easily seen that a man with a family living on nine dollars a week must suffer even if he has the intelligence of a statesman, the economy of a miser, and the morals of a saint. A country can only support so many people; if a large part of its energy is directed to the support of bread-wasting luxuries, the lower classes of that people must suffer for the necessaries. Then let us not tax capital, the tool of labor, or the necessaries of life, while there is a single luxury on which the tax can be saddled.—Yours,

E. A.

East Boston, Mass.

THE WEST VIRGINIA SENATOR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In West Virginia, after the Legislature failed to elect a United States Senator, the Governor appointed Mr. Lucas. An extra session of the Legislature has been ordered, but the design seems to be to prevent an election of Senator. Is the Democratic Executive of that State conscious of the very grave difficulties in the way of admitting to his seat an appointee selected under such circumstances? Or will the Democratic majority take the chance of having their State represented by a single Senator? Without considering whether a *vacancy* presupposes an *incumbency*, the practice of the Senate has, it seems to me, absolutely determined that the power of the Governor to appoint does not arise if a Legislature qualified to elect fails or refuses to elect.

The question arises upon the proper construction of the third section of the first article of the Constitution, which is: "The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, chosen by the Legislatures thereof for six years." Then, after providing for classification and expiration so as to elect one-third every second year, this section proceeds: "And if vacancies happen, by resignation or otherwise, during the recess of the Legislature of any State, the Executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the Legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies."

Whatever may have been the practice of the Senate upon this question before 1825, it has been uniformly held since the Lanman case that a failure by the Legislature to make a choice of a Senator does *not* constitute the contingency in which the Governor may appoint a Senator. In other words, the Senate, in 1825, upon full consideration, deliberately determined that it was not within the constitutional power of a Governor to fill a seat for a full term by appointment; or, as the late Senator David Davis put it, in April, 1879, upon the question of admitting Mr. Bell of New Hampshire, the true interpretation of this section of the Constitution is: When the Legislature has an opportunity of providing a Senator and fails, the Governor cannot appoint.

This construction has been accepted by public men of all parties, and had been the uniform rule down to the year 1879, when, by the admission of Mr. Charles H. Bell of New Hampshire, it is claimed by some that the rule in the Lanman case was changed. This contention is not well founded, as a careful examination of the Bell case will at once make clear. Upon the admission of Mr. Bell the Senate divided, and not upon party lines, Mr. Bayard and Mr. Jones voting with the majority, and Mr. Carpenter, Mr. Conkling, and the present President of the Senate, voting with the minority. There were, of course, two reports. The minority report, signed by Senators Hoar, Angus Cameron, and Ingalls, favored the admission and was finally adopted.

We presume that certain parts of this report, taken along with the contention of Senator Carpenter and others who opposed Mr. Bell's admission—that the New Hampshire Legislature which declined to elect had the constitutional power to elect—furnish ground for the claim that the Senate's action in this case reversed the rule established in 1825.

The minority report does say: "A vacancy happens and only happens when the Legislature fails to make due election, or the person chosen declines the appointment, or where the office once filled is vacant by death, resignation, or otherwise." Further on, however, and in explanation of the foregoing, the minority says: "Whether it so happens that the person once chosen is unable to remain in office, or it so happens that the Legislature *cannot* meet and choose, the contingency of a vacancy in the office has occurred."

Here was the exact point upon which the admission of Mr. Bell turned. The majority of the Senate thought, with the minority of the Elections Committee, that the Legislature of New Hampshire, which had failed to elect, did not have the constitutional power to elect, and therefore they distinguished that case from the Lanman case.

Mr. Bell was appointed under these circumstances: Mr. Wadleigh's term as Senator from New Hampshire was to expire on the 3d of March, 1879. A Legislature chosen in 1878 was to have its first session in June, 1879. By reason of a change in the Constitution of New Hampshire, there was in that State a Legislature whose term of office began in June, 1878, to terminate in May, 1879, which Legislature was in recess when Mr. Wadleigh's term expired. The Legislature last chosen before the expiration of a Senatorial term must elect a successor—by United States statute regulating the manner of election. On the 13th of March, 1879, the Governor appointed Mr. Bell. The minority of the Committee claimed that the old Legislature could not, for the statute just referred to, elect, because the new body was the one last chosen, and that this one could not elect because it had no authority, as a Legislature, under the State Constitution, until June, 1879.

It readily appears, therefore, that this action of the Senate in admitting Mr. Bell could not, by any fair rule of construction, be regarded as reversing the rule in the Lanman case. In fact, from the argument of the Senators who favored the admission of Mr. Bell, it is plain that they recognized the rule in the Lanman case as valid, subsisting, and binding. Mr. Rollins, arguing for the minority report, said:

"As we understand the Lanman case, Mr. Bell's application here does not conflict with it at all. It may be summed up in a few words: In that case a Legislature competent to elect had met and failed to elect a Senator. In this case no Legislature met prior to this appointment that was competent to elect. The Senate of the United States has so decided." (*Globe*, April 7, 1879.)

Further on in the argument Mr. Garland referred to an old case—the Kensey Johns case from Delaware—where a vacancy occurred by resignation in September of one year, then in January following a Legislature met and adjourned without choosing a successor in March, and, after adjournment, the Governor appointed, but the appointee was denied admission by a vote of 20 to 7. Thereupon Senator Angus Cameron, one of the minority, interrupting the speaker, said that the minority agreed to the principle enunciated in the Kensey Johns case, explicitly admitting the doctrine that if the Legislature had an opportunity to elect and failed, the Governor had no constitutional power to appoint.

In fine, all through the discussion on the admission of Mr. Bell, it was conceded on all hands that the authority of the Lanman case was decisive upon any case presenting a like state of facts.

W. H. Effinger.

Portland, Oregon, March 21, 1887.

"BLIZZARD."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The third part of the Philological Society's Dictionary, just received, devotes considerable space to the word *blizzard*, but omits all reference to an early, perhaps the earliest, meaning. Along the Atlantic Coast, among the gunners who often hunt in parties stationed near together behind blinds, waiting for the flocks of migratory birds, the word *blizzard* means a general discharge of all the guns, nearly but not quite together—a rattling volley, differing from a broadside in not being quite simultaneous. This use of the word is familiar to every 'longshore man from Sandy Hook to Currituck, and goes back at least forty years, as my own memory attests. This is undoubtedly the sense in which Col. Crockett used the word in the passage which the editors of the New Dictionary find so puzzling: "A gentleman at dinner asked me for a toast, and, supposing he meant to have some fun at my expense, I concluded to go ahead and give him and his likes a blizzard."

The 'longshore men of forty years ago were all sailors, and many of them had served in the navy. That they may have learned the word there is rendered probable by the rather notable accuracy with which they always distinguished between a blizzard and a broadside. This points to a nautical origin of the word, though it made no progress in general use till it struck the Western imagination as a term for that convulsion of the elements for which "snow-storm," with whatever descriptive epithet, was no adequate name, and the keen ear of the newspaper reporter caught it and gave it currency as "reportorial" English.

Blizzards and broadsides have gone out of fashion in the navy, together with seventy-four-gun frigates, but there may be still an old salt among your readers who passed his early days in a three-decker, who may be able to give us more light on the early use of the word.

J. T. M.

Philadelphia, March 24, 1887.

[Our readers may be referred to the discussion of this subject, at the time the new sense of blizzard came into vogue (in the winter of 1880 81), in the *Nation*, vol. xxxii, pp. 184, 208, 220, 260. The weight of evidence was in favor of the explanation given above, and the most plausible etymology connected blizzard with *blaze* (away). Bartlett, in his 'Dictionary of Americanisms,' cited Crockett as above, and rendered blizzard by 'poser,' but he was evidently drawing on his inner consciousness.—Ed. Nation.]

ANGLO-SAXON PIRATING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have just seen an English despatch about Mr. Ruskin's copyright profits, in which it is said that "America lives on its pirated editions." It is usual for Englishmen thus to express themselves on this subject. Does it not seem to you that it is time that the fact should be recognized in England that *there is not an American author worth "pirating" whose works are not reprinted by English publishers*, and that the books are not seldom altered in very disagreeable ways from the form given them by their writers?

Whatever you may think, it seems to me that Englishmen should be ashamed of making such disingenuous remarks about Americans.

Arthur Gilman.

Cambridge, March 25, 1887.

TRANSFORMATION OF SURNAMES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondents have given a number of amusing instances of the transformation of surnames; the last being the degradation of Papillon into Mr. Fly. Some of the most singular ones have occurred among our mixed and cosmopolitan population. A man's name often changes as he moves from the French quarter, below Canal Street, to the American quarter, above Canal Street.

Some years ago a German took up his abode in the French quarter whose name was Fritz Feuerstein. His Gallic neighbors could not frame their tongue to pronounce it aright, so they called him Monsieur Pierre-de-Feu, and this soon degenerated into simple Monsieur Pierre. Moving into the American side, he became Mr. Stone. Again he moved into the French quarter and sought to reëstablish his old name of Feuerstein, and they reëstablished the name of Pierre-de-Feu, which, on a residence among Americans, became Mr. Flint. Another residence among the creoles, in a new neighborhood, produced Monsieur Pierre-de-Fusil, and, going in advanced age to end his days above Canal Street among the Americans of English parentage, his name became Peter Gun.—Very respectfully, B. R. Forman.

New Orleans, March 23, 1887.

Notes.

A versatile writer and scholar, Prof. Josiah Royce of Harvard, has written a novel of Californian life, called 'The Feud of Oakfield Creek,' to be published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. They also announce 'Daffodils,' poems by Mrs. A. D. T. Whitney; 'A Club of One: Passages from the Note-Book of a Man who might have been Sociable'; and 'His Star in the East, a Study in the Early Aryan Religions,' by the Rev. Leighton Parks.

Lee & Shepard will publish 'Natural Law in the Business World,' by Henry Wood; 'Bridge Disasters in America: Their Cause and the Remedy,' by Prof. George L. Vose, President of the Boston Society of Civil Engineers; 'Later Lyrics,' by Mrs. Julia Ward Howe; 'Buds for the Bridal Wreath,' by the Rev. Wm. P. Tilden; and 'The Hidden Way across the Threshold,' by Dr. J. C. Street.

'The Church and the Faith: A Philosophical History of the Catholic Church,' by the Rev. W. B. Bolmer, is in the press of E. & J. B. Young & Co.

'These Degenerate Days,' a poem already printed in the daily press by the Rev. M. J. Savage, in response to Mr. Lowell's "Credidimus Jovem Regnare" in the February *Atlantic*, will be made into a 16mo volume, and issued by Geo. H. Ellis.

D. C. Heath & Co. promise for May 1 'The Earth in Space: a Manual of Astronomical Geography,' by Edward P. Jackson.

'The Volunteer Soldier in America,' a posthumous work of the late Gen. Logan, is to be published by subscription by R. S. Peale & Co., Chicago. It will contain a biographical memoir.

Mr. H. Morse Stephen's 'History of the French Revolution,' lately reviewed by us on the appearance of the first volume, is well advanced. The second volume is in the press, and the third ready to be brought out.

It must suffice at present that we acknowledge receipt of Part 3 of the Philological Society's 'New English Dictionary' (Macmillan). For reasons already given, it offers unusual interest to students of the origin and development of the language, and a careful examination must precede our customary report upon the progress of this enduring work. The closing word is Bozzom.

Macmillan & Co. send us the twenty-fourth issue of their 'Statesman's Year-book,' for 1887. On page 668 one will find that the editor has taken cognizance of the recent change in the law of the Presidential succession. His list of "non-official publications" concerning this country would bear freshening. He has not kept pace with Von Holst's histories. McPherson's annual 'Hand-book of Politics' is ignored. Woodrow Wilson's 'Congressional Government' deserves mention, and so eminently does Schouler's 'History of the United States.' Among the official publications, Dr. Wharton's new 'Digest of the International Law of the United States' should hereafter be included.

Macmillan & Co. have published in their "Foreign School Classics" an edition of the first part of "Faust," edited by Jane Lee, lecturer in German literature, Newnham College, Cambridge. There is no satisfactory edition of "Faust" with English notes presenting the highest and most recent criticism, and this work has unusual merits, yet is open to one serious criticism. It is, in the main, a translation and skilful adaptation of Schröer's German edition of "Faust," without any proper recognition of the sources from which the notes have been derived. Many of the comments are exact translations from Schröer, containing not only his explanations, but his philological comments and numerous citations and comparisons from other German authors. It is true that Von Loeper and Düntzer are laid under contribution, and at the end of the notes there is a list of books which the author "has used in preparing this edition;" but such acknowledgment is inadequate. There are introductory chapters on Goethe's life, the "Faust" legend, and Goethe's "Faust," and an appendix containing an outline of the second part.

'Cassell's Complete Pocket Guide to Europe' bears a new imprint, but has been long and favorably known as one of the publications of J. R. Osgood & Co. Its handy form, large type, frequent maps (not folding), and flexible binding are its meritorious points. A table of climatic health resorts and a special travellers' telegraphic code are the chief original features of the contents. On p. 484 the word "Osgood's" has perhaps been overlooked. Under Vienna one would have expected mention of the Grand Hotel.

Barrow's 'Sermons on Evil-Speaking,' a third instalment of Pepys's Diary, and Shakspere's "Tempest," are the latest continuations of Morley's "National Library" (Cassell).

The 'Shelley Primer,' by H. S. Salt (London: Reeves & Turner), aims to supply in a small space the facts most necessary to the study of the poet's works. It consists of a very slight biographical sketch, an abstract of Shelley's opinions, an account of the works severally and of the circumstances of their composition, and some other matter. It is not a conspicuous success. There are loose statements here and there in regard to facts, and the analysis of the poems and the opinions of Shelley are lacking in insight and comprehensiveness. It would certainly have been much better to have said nothing of his "influence in literature and thought" than to have said so little so aimlessly. The principal value of the Primer consists in its bringing together, in a way convenient for quick reference, the facts that belong to each work taken by itself.

Mr. Austin Dobson's 'At the Sign of the Lyre' appeared in America nearly a year before it was published in London, and so did Mr. Lang's 'Books and Bookmen,' just published in London by Longmans, Green & Co. Mr. Lang has followed Mr. Dobson's example in not reprinting in England all the pieces which appeared in the American edition. The papers on "Book-Binding" and "Bookmen at Rome" give place to essays on "Lady Book-Lovers" and "Old French Title-Pages"—a delightful essay with rubricated facsimiles. In general, however, the printing of the English edition is inferior to that of the American (done by the Riverside Press).

A good idea of the nature and extent of the facilities offered for research at the Physiological Laboratory of the Harvard Medical School may be gained from the octavo volume ("for private circulation") of over 200 pages, with many illustrations, embracing twenty-two papers by eight individuals. Several are wholly or in part the direct product of the Professor of Physiology, Dr. H. P. Bowditch, whose admirable paper, "What is Nerve Force?" the vice-presidential address in the Biological Section of the American Association for Advancement of Science last summer, is included.

The Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association in Washington a year ago (February 23-26, 1886) have but just been published in Circular No. 2, 1886, of the Bureau of Education. The leading papers of interest were on mixed education of the races, with a special bearing against the Chinese; on negro education; and on the Blair Bill, to which the papers read were decidedly favorable—but happily without insuring its success.

More profitable, in our opinion, than anything in the foregoing document, is a paper read by President Dreher of Roanoke College, Va., before the Department of Higher Instruction of the National Educational Association at Topeka, Kan., on July 16, 1886—also only recently put in print. Its title was "Colleges North and Colleges South." The author, a Southern man, frankly considers the educational defects of his section, as shown by its multiplicity of "universities" and "colleges," out of all proportion to population and material resources; the confusion of courses and standards, as well as of names; the absurd degree-giving; the competition of institutions really of different grades; the frequent attempt to maintain a State university, with all the needful preparatory schools, following an occasional Northern example, etc., etc. Incidentally, President Dreher argues that the scheme of instruction of the University of Virginia—the school-and-lecture system—has furnished an unfortunate model to other institutions at the South. As this system has lately been under discussion in these columns, we may refer our readers to Prof. Garnett's exposition of it in the *Andover Review* for April, 1886—one of the papers called out by Prof. Palmer's advocacy of the Harvard elective system.

The March *Academy* (Syracuse, N. Y.) prints, with editorial comment, Prof. Poland's report in January to the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools, on behalf of the still youthful "Commission of Colleges in New England on Admission Examinations." This body has been created experimentally to bring about uniformity of preparation and requirements for admission to college—uniformity, that is, "in the minimum requirement," as Mr. Bacon points out. Its functions are purely advisory, and not binding, and its achievements will be watched with curiosity and no little interest and hopefulness.

The October-December number of the *American Journal of Archæology* closes the second volume. The opening paper, on some unpublished white *lekythoi* from Attica, is accompanied by plates. Dr. Alfred Emerson follows with a first article on the "Portraiture of Alexander the Great," which does not reach the critical and comparative stage. Prof. Frothingham's "Notes on Christian Mosaics" relate this time to the portico of the Lateran Basilica. The other de-

partments of the *Journal* are worthily filled, as usual.

In the April number of the *Magazine of American History* are concluded two series of papers of much interest—one, by Charles H. Peck, on John Van Buren; the other, by Benjamin E. Martin, on the early American press, called in this final instalment "Transition Period of the American Press." The latter series has been copiously and effectively illustrated with portraits and facsimiles, as (in the present instance) in the case of Wm. Coleman, founder of the New York *Evening Post*.

Prof. A. S. Packard, founder of the *American Naturalist*, has retired from the management of this journal in favor of Dr. J. S. Kingsley, of Malden, Mass. Prof J. H. Comstock, of Cornell, will have charge of the department of Entomology.

Architects will welcome another illustrated paper on the "Half-Timber Houses in the Weald of Kent and Neighborhood," by Reginald T. Blomfield, in the *Portfolio* for March (Macmillan). Mr. Walter Armstrong begins a series, also illustrated, on "Scottish Painters." The two etchings of the number are the grand staircase in Burgos Cathedral, and "The Rising Sun" of Claude copied in photogravure.

The poverty of a certain branch of decorative art in this country may fairly be inferred from the fact that the *Art Amateur* called in 134 designs for a new cover, and found 10 worthy of honorable mention, but none worthy of the premium ($100).

Mr. Sidney S. Rider's *Book Notes* (Providence), having reached the end of its fourth volume with the issue of March 28, is discontinued, or at least suspended indefinitely. We copy this announcement with regret, for the little sheet, though a bookseller's advertising medium, has been more than that: it has been an independent organ of literary and historical criticism well worthy of the index with which it has been carefully provided. Mr. Rider has spoken his mind with equal and particularly refreshing frankness on the subject of the tariff, of which he is a hearty hater, and is consequently tabooed as much as if he were a free-trade resident of Philadelphia. In his valedictory he properly recognizes the recent beneficent transformation of the Providence *Journal*—which, indeed, partly takes away the occupation of the *Book Notes*.

The opening article in the *Antiquary* for March, "The Public Crosses of Nottingham," is of importance as illustrating the municipal vandalism which has destroyed, or allowed to perish, so many relics of antiquity. The series on "London Theatres" reaches No. 6, viz.: "The Cockpit, Drury Lane," "a playhouse in touch with the present time." As it is "one in history with the Globe, the idea of continuity becomes startling. Walking beneath the colonnade of Drury Lane Theatre to-day, we feel ourselves in contact with the beginning of London theatres." Of "Celebrated Birthplaces" we have that of Sir Isaac Newton at Woolsthorpe, with two woodcuts. Of considerable interest is "Beginners in Business, 1607," giving copious extracts from 'The Merchant's Avizo,' a book designed to give assistance and direction to youthful adventurers. Under the innocent-sounding title, "The First Mayor of London," Mr. J. H. Round continues his assaults upon Mr. Freeman's accuracy—Mr. Freeman having lent the authority of his name to the book assailed, Loftie's 'London.' This book, it seems, makes out a genealogy for the famous Henry Fitz Ailwin which Mr. Round shows to be impossible and incredible, representing him (who died in 1212) to have been the grandson of the Portreeve Leofstan in the time of Edward the Confessor.

The greater part of the March Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society is taken up with Mr. H. J. Makinder's paper "On the Scope and Methods of Geography," with the discussion which followed it. The speaker began by combating the view that physical and political geography are separate subjects, to be studied by different methods, the one an appendix of geology, the other of history. He defined geography as the "science of distribution," which concerns itself not merely with the facts, but with the causes and connections of the various distributions. Studied after this method, which he illustrated by showing how geological and meteorological causes were all-important factors in accounting for the greatness of London, as well as for the fact that Delhi was the capital of old and Calcutta of New India, geography would prove a bridge across the abyss which separates the natural sciences and humanity, and would tend to restore the equilibrium to our culture. In the discussion which followed, some of the most eminent geographers in England took part, among others, Sir Frederic Goldsmid, Messrs. Francis Galton, Douglas W. Freshfield, and Prof. H. G. Seeley. The most lucid speech, however, was that of Mr. James Bryce, who heartily supported the position taken in the paper. With great felicity of expression he sketched a course of study which he contended would not only develop a philosophical habit of mind and cultivate the imagination, but would add vastly to the delight and interest with which men would travel in different parts of the world. There was, with many slight differences of detail and definition, a general unanimity in all the speakers, and it is evident that in England geography will be taught henceforth largely after the new method. Mr. J. T. Last contributes an account of his recent journey to Angoni land to the south of Lake Nyassa, which, with the usual notes, completes the number.

Westermann & Co. send us two more numbers of the abridged 'Allgemeine Weltgeschichte,' viz.: 66–67, 68–69. Dr. Philippson has the floor, describing the counter-Reformation in Middle and Eastern Europe. The illustrations are exceptionally curious and instructive, embracing an old print showing the unfinished St. Peter's, another of the siege of Venice by the Turks in 1529, the death-warrant of Mary Queen of Scots signed by Elizabeth, a document of Martin Luther's in his own hand, many portraits, etc., etc. From the same firm we have Nos. 61–72 of the *Allgemeine Naturkunde*, with man still the theme of Dr. Johannes Ranke, to the end of his second volume. Existing savage and barbarous races are fully discussed and beautifully illustrated from the most authentic sources (mainly photographic), and prehistoric man is likewise set forth in all the manifestations of utensils, weapons, structures, and artistic achievement which have survived to us.

The fifth and sixth volumes, in one, of Pierre Margry's 'Mémoires et Documents pour servir à l'histoire des origines françaises des pays d'outremer' have just appeared (Paris: Maisonneuve; New York: Christern). It deals with the first chain of posts from the Great Lakes to the Gulf (1683–1725).

A volume which may be read by Americans with some interest has just been published under the title, 'De Paris au Niagara: journal de voyage d'une délégation' (Paris: Duprat; Boston: Schoenhof). It is a collection of the articles on the United States sent by M. Charles Bigot to the *Revue Bleue* at the time of the dedication of the Bartholdi statue. The journal is readable, and interesting as being the impressions of an intelligent foreigner upon this country. With a few exceptions of little consequence, it is unusually accurate, perhaps because the writer wisely confined himself to the surface of things; but that surface is very fairly described, without picturesqueness or suggestiveness, indeed, either in style or thought, but always with good-nature and liveliness, and with a great readiness to admire all that was new.

Among recent announcements of French books now in preparation are: 'Nos hommes d'état,' by Jules Simon, and 'Discours et Conférances,' by Ernest Renan.

Among the latest French school-books published in Paris is Franklin's 'Autobiography' (in English), with a biographical sketch, an analysis, and notes in French by M. P. Fiévet (Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern). We have already noted the appearance of an annotated selection from Longfellow's poems as a French school-book.

The veteran lexicographer, Dr. Daniel Sanders, begins on April 1 the issue of a monthly *Zeitschrift für Deutsche Sprache*, whose aim will be to promote a deeper knowledge and love of the mother tongue. The place of publication is Hamburg (J. F. Richter).

As the lectures of the Concord School of Philosophy for the current year will be concerned with "Aristotle and His Philosophy in Its Relation to Modern Thought," Mr. Thomas Davidson proposes to direct a course partly preparatory and partly supplementary at St. Cloud, Orange Mountain, N. J., during three weeks from June 20. The region is delightful for residence at that season, and easily accessible daily from New York.

—There will be a natural misgiving in the minds of some persons on turning to the Thackeray correspondence in the April *Scribner's*. One remembers the great novelist's express prohibition forbidding the admittance of the public to his private life, and also the disappointment that has been brought in late years by breaking such seals. But these letters soon dispel the first inevitable doubt. They are a literary treasure. As one reads, it seems as if Thackeray had come to life again and were delighting us with a new work from his hand. Here is the familiar wit and tenderness and simplicity, the knowledge of our preposterous human nature and the eye for its worldly manifestations, and the author himself in his most intimate and charming moods, reflecting and brightening the inconstant comedy of the scenes that interested him. The letters are addressed to the Brookfields, a family with whom he was on the closest terms of friendship. The first block of them dates from 1847 to 1849; they are written from his lodgings, the club, or on journeys to Spa and Paris, or from the country. They are long, familiar letters, for the most part, and the drawings with which he illustrated them bring them very close to the reader. They are full of references to his own works and to the characters which had most hold on his imagination. There is no space to quote from them, and there is too much that would call for quotation. The original of Amelia is said to be composite: "You know, you are only a piece of Amelia: my mother is another half; my poor little wife—*y est pour beaucoup*." But the charm is not in any such information, or in any of the sayings, the scenes depicted so sharply and quickly, or the personal adventures, but is diffused through the whole. There is not a word that one would wish unpublished. It is like meeting an old friend after many years and finding him unchanged. One cannot but be sensible how his reality and heart dwarf the fiction of the later and less modest day. If the series continues as it has begun, English literature has a new classic. The close of Mr. Washburne's papers on the Commune has a most interesting account of the last days of the Archbishop of Paris and his murder.

—*Harper's* takes up the subject of Chattanooga in the series of papers upon American cities. The "New South" naturally enters into the story, but it does not monopolize it, as one might expect. The "Gateway of the Alleghanies" has a history reaching far back of the last decade, and is now in the hands of the third great race that has possessed it. The writer touches on the prehistoric narrative, and devotes a good deal of space to John Sevier and Joseph Brown, who conducted the long, fierce struggle with the Chickamaugas, and to the first settlement. The war period, slightly described, and the planting of the mining and manufacturing interests, under the lead of Gen. Wilder, and the consequent extraordinary growth of the city, complete the sketch. It is a most striking chapter of American development. The remarkable differences observable in the history of the founding of our American cities, too commonly believed to be one self same and twice-told story, make a most instructive feature of these most useful papers. Another monograph of great interest is Theodore Child's comprehensive summary of all things relating to the Comédie-Française—its history, government, theatre arrangements, etc. Ralph Meeker's travel-sketch of southern Russia is noticeable for the kindlier and more favorable view it takes of the civilization, or at least of the inhabitants, in that region, whose "barbarism" he declares overstated. Mr. Warner begins a series of Mexican notes in a vein that does not promise any flattery. He likens the metaphorical "atmosphere" to that of Egypt, which he says is "lying." He warns us against the people in very comprehensive terms: "whoever makes a treaty with them is likely to be confused by the result; whoever invests money in Mexico, either in public works or in private enterprise, does so at his risk," etc. Evidently, autocracy masking as a "Republic" has no charms for him.

—Among the many curious manufactured Greek sentences to be found in Dr. Goodell's 'The Greek in English' (Henry Holt & Co.), we find the following: "The fellow wants to be wise and to write books." Let us acquit Dr. Goodell in advance of any such selfish intention. His object is to make the Greek element in English more living than it is. Other manuals, such as the old 'Scholar's Companion,' had tried before to arrange the Greek elements in English around certain centres, but Dr. Goodell thinks that "the words in their Greek form, and with some fragment of their Greek associations, must become somewhat familiar before one can be sensible of that grasp of their English derivatives which will enable one to use these derivatives fearlessly and correctly"; and to this end he has "grouped the material about a grammatical outline, as thorough memorizing of a few inflections will save time and labor in the end," and will (as he intimates) seduce those who would never have studied Greek at all without the book into further pursuit of the study. Of course the Anglo-Saxon scholar says the same thing, the same thing may be claimed for Latin, for French; and in order to use our highly composite language "fearlessly and correctly" we should have to learn half-a-dozen languages, or at least the outlines of their grammars. For our part, we have never noticed a lack of courage on the part of any English-writing person in the use of words of Greek origin. In fact, greater timidity would have been the more needful lesson; and as the Greek element of English is largely technical, the want of correctness in the application of it is not conspicuous. It is only when people undertake to enrich the English language with new Greek compounds that scholars begin to wince, and Dr. Goodell does not undertake to carry his student up to the point of sensitiveness at which he will be aggrieved or outraged by the performances of scientific men in this line.

—The Greek words in English are, it is true, for the most part dead vocables, and must be so to the vast majority of those who use the language; but let us not deceive ourselves. There is a certain advantage in dead words, if they are only properly mummified and do not breed false analogies. If every Greek word in English, if every Latin word, were alive to us, we should be over-conscious of the mixed metaphors of our every-day writing, and the confusion of images would be worse confounded. Push the words still further back to their etymology, and we are still worse off. The Vulgate "sine offendiculo conscientiam" becomes in English "a conscience void of offence." Put back the color, and we should have what is not void of offence, "viduam offendiculo." So we are somewhat sceptical about the value of bringing back to life the Greek words, real and factitious, that are comfortably embalmed in the English tongue, and we are more than sceptical about the method of making these words alive by constructing a number of Greek sentences—or rather sentences made up of Greek words, in which all that gives Greek its charm is lacking. Whatever good, in spite of its manifold blunders in detail, the well-meant little book may do, we are afraid that the Greek scholar will not take much delight in it, and that the words of the author will be found sadly prophetic: "The Muses do not wish to hear the songs of the she-goat (Chimæra)."

—Prof. Wilhelm Vietor's 'Elemente der Phonetik und Orthoepie des Deutschen, Englischen und Französischen' has reached a second edition in two years. This is striking proof of the extent to which the study of phonetics prevails, and of the depth to which it is pursued; for the book deals with the voice as it appears under a hundred-million magnifying microscope of extra power, to use one of Mr. Weller's expressions, and it accumulates on every point the whole wealth of professorial learning. A book of this kind reminds one of the Middle Ages, the era of the schoolmen, when the way to find out anything was thought to be to read what everybody had written about it. It is much more provoking than satisfactory. You want to study an English sound, but you get lost in a thicket of theories, and begin to doubt whether any two of the theorists are talking about the same sound, and whether any of them really knows the common English sound. A profound old German writes to you for years instructing you how you ought to work your organs to give the precise *nuances* and colorings to your English *o* or *e:* you meet him and find that he cannot make an *o* or *e* which any native will recognize. No wonder their books are full of contradictory opinions. We ought to have some mechanical means of recording and repeating vocal sounds, to have reliable, accurate phonographs, so that each scientific phonetist can be sure what sounds others talk about.

—A practical danger to our English speech is emerging from these microscopic records. Each phonetist attempts an exact record of his own unsophisticated pronunciation, of the way he talks in natural conversation when he is not thinking about it. Foreigners naturally, and even Americans, take the records of London phonetists to be standard English. The south English peculiarities which have heretofore figured as "cockneyisms," the dropping of *h* and *r*, the obscuring and dropping of unaccented vowels, the insertion of *r* as in *idea(r)*, and the like abominations are beginning to be caught up, and set forth as the true English, by scientific authorities of Germany and Scandinavia, and taught by their followers in the Continental schools. The personal records of the Londoners, which are of the greatest value to science, are thus perverted to the corruption of standard English, and threaten to separate the English-speaking people into different nations. Dr. Vietor is one of the best of the phonetists. The new edition of his book is in great part rewritten, but only for better form and for the addition of new matter. It is now the most complete and most convenient manual of the kind.

—Paul Féval, who has just died, was one of the most prolific of the writers of novels who followed closely in time, and somewhat in manner, the inexhaustible Alexandre Dumas. He was the author of more than a hundred volumes, of which the most known is 'Madame Gil Blas.' As a playwright he was less successful, although one play, 'Le Bossu,' the dramatization of his story of the same name, was the occasion of a long and bitter quarrel with M. Sardou. In 1876 Paul Féval, nearly ruined by the Ottoman loans, and almost unknown to the new generation of readers, gave himself up fervently to his religious convictions. His conversion was announced and extolled by the Catholic press, *avec fracas*, says the calm and impartial *Journal des Débats*. This created a certain stir about his name. He wrote a few more novels in accordance with his new convictions, and published revised and very much changed versions of his former sensational productions. He was for a while president of the Société des Gens de Lettres. He was seventy years old at the time of his death.

SKEATS'S PIERS PLOWMAN.

The Vision of William concerning Piers the Plowman, in three parallel texts, together with *Richard the Redeless*, by William Langland. Edited from numerous manuscripts, with preface, notes, and a glossary, by the Rev. Walter W. Skeat. Vol. I., Text. Vol. II., Preface, Notes, and Glossary. Oxford: At the Clarendon Press. New York: Macmillan. 1886.

FOUR times during the sixteenth century the 'Vision of Piers Plowman' was printed; three times during the present century it has been edited as well as printed. It was theology that first led to the withdrawal of the work from the inaccessibility of manuscript; the same result is now due in large measure to philology. In this fact some may see the difference in the point of view of the two periods. The great religious revolution of the sixteenth century caused the reformers to search diligently for anything and everything in the literature of the past that could be deemed hostile to the creed of the Church of Rome, or that represented the conduct of its members in an unfavorable light. The view that could recognize in Chaucer a religious enthusiast was not likely to let Langland pass unobserved. His work could never have been regarded by any one who read it dispassionately as the production of a man who looked upon the Pope as Antichrist. Still, it did contain many fierce attacks upon abuses then widely prevalent in the various ecclesiastical organizations. It had, in particular, predicted the destruction of the monasteries, and the course of events had given to this lucky forecast almost the character of an inspired prophecy. Besides, the poem throughout was marked by a lofty spiritual tone which verged towards the extreme of asceticism. These things were sufficient for it to find favor with the men who were engaged in the Protestant movement of the sixteenth century.

It was accordingly religious partisanship and not literary appreciation that brought about the first printing of the poem. This was the work of Robert Crowley, and the motive of his undertaking it he avowed plainly in his preface;

"In whose time," he wrote, speaking of the reign of Edward III., "it pleased God to open the eyes of many to see His truth, giving them boldness of heart to open their mouths and cry out against the works of darkness as did John Wycliffe, who also in those days translated the Holy Bible into the English tongue, and this writer, who, in reporting certain visions and dreams that he feigned himself to have dreamed, doth most Christianly instruct the weak and sharply rebuke the obstinate blind. There is no manner of vice that reigneth in any estate of men, which this writer hath not godly, learnedly, and wittily rebuked."

Of the work as then printed, three separate impressions exist, all belonging to this same year, 1550. In 1561 the poem was again printed by Owen Rogers, who also included in the same volume "Piers Plowman's Creed," the production of a later hand.

This sufficed to satisfy the demand. More than two centuries and a half passed by before another edition was called for; or rather it came then without being called. This edition was brought out in 1813 under the superintendence of the Rev. Thomas Dunham Whitaker, better known as a student of local history than of language. The work was got up in magnificent style, so far as print and paper were concerned. At the bottom of each page was a paraphrase explanatory of the text. The text itself was printed in black-letter, which seems to have been long regarded, not as a kind of type, but as a period in the history of the English tongue. The editor did the best he knew how, but unhappily he knew but little. The work, however, which was published by subscription, was too expensive to do either much good or much harm, and, for all that it accomplished, the 'Vision of Piers Plowman' remained even to scholars almost as much a sealed book as ever.

The next edition was that of Thomas Wright, which appeared originally in 1842, and was reprinted with some slight revision in 1856. There is probably no doubt as to the qualifications which the editor possessed for the task: there is most certainly none as to the manner in which it was done. It is time that a little plain speaking was used about Mr. Wright's method of performing his duties as editor to the numerous volumes to which his name is attached in that capacity. A task of such a kind is from its very nature self-imposed, and ought never to be undertaken by any one who does not purpose to discharge it as well as he can. No man ever shirked his duties as an editor more persistently than Wright. He was a man of wide learning, and from previously acquired knowledge he could add a great deal of value to illustrate what he took in hand. There he stopped. He apparently never put himself to the slightest trouble to solve any difficulty which presented itself. If the point was not clear to him at the outset, it was never made any clearer by the attention he paid to its elucidation. As a consequence, he has never said the last word on any subject. He has never edited a work which does not or will not need to be re-edited carefully. The present one was no exception to the general rule.

Prof. Skeat, following the usual custom in England in regard to Mr. Wright, has paid what is termed a generous tribute to his predecessor's labors. If his predecessor had done his duty, his own edition would hardly have been a necessity. But, though giving all honor to Mr. Wright, he has been particularly careful not to follow in his footsteps. It was twenty years ago that Mr. Skeat printed a tract embodying parallel extracts from twenty-nine manuscripts of 'Piers Plowman.' During the intervening years the three versions of the poem with notes and glossary have been published at intervals by the Early English Text Society. In the two volumes before us the results of all the investigations have been brought together and presented in a complete, though sometimes condensed, shape. Mr. Skeat had been the first to demonstrate that the work really existed in three forms, the differences of which were due to the author himself. Here, for convenience of comparison, they are printed side by side. The earliest text, called the Vernon, from the name of the manuscript containing it, is much the shortest. The second text was the one printed by Crowley and edited by Wright, and the third was the one edited by Whitaker. These three occupy the first volume. To them also is added the alliterative poem of 'Richard the Redeless,' attributed by the editor to the author of 'Piers Plowman.' In the first volume, therefore, is to be found everything that can be desired by him who cares for the text alone; for not only are the three versions given, but the important variants of the different manuscripts are recorded at the foot of every page.

The second volume begins with a series of preliminary dissertations, extending to nearly a hundred pages, which are included under the general name of preface. They embrace the discussion of every point connected with the various manuscripts and the various printed editions, with the history of the poem and the life of its author, so far as the facts can be discerned in the twilight of knowledge in which the period itself is enveloped. Then follow several hundred pages of annotation, and these in turn are followed by a complete glossary. It is impossible to speak too highly of the way in which this part of the work has been performed. No point has been overlooked; no unusual word has been neglected; no difficult passage has been passed over in silence, after the established custom of commentators. In a world full of slipshod work, of pretension and non-performance, it is gratifying to come across a task of peculiar difficulty done so honestly and withal so intelligently as has been the editing of this poem.

Not that we always agree with Prof. Skeat's interpretations. The meaning given to *by* in the note upon the account of the proceedings of the pardoner described in the prologue seems to us wholly unwarranted. The idea of the poet is plainly to represent the objectionable practices complained of as being done by the connivance of the parish priest, and without the sanction or knowledge of the Bishop. The latter grants his permission for the accomplishment of a certain purpose, which is perverted into a purpose of quite different character. So, also, the remark (vol. ii., p. 48) about the distinction between *ye* and *thou* being carefully observed is stated altogether too strongly, at least as regards Chaucer and the author of 'William of Palerne.' Still, these are points involving too much detail to be discussed here; nor would the criticism, even if admitted to be just, detract in the slightest from the merits of a work upon which so much wide-reaching and intelligent labor has been expended. Unless new material is discovered, this edition may be regarded as the standard edition for all time.

The poem is worth all the toil and trouble that its production in its present complete form has involved. To put Langland on a level with Chaucer could only be done by him in whom the zeal of the antiquary has overborne the literary sense belonging to the man of cultivated taste. But the 'Vision of Piers Plowman' will always have an attraction of its own to the student of English language and literature, and to the student of English history in all its phases. It is interesting both on account of its external structure and of its internal spirit. It is much the most important of the later representatives of that alliterative system of versification which originally prevailed among all the nations that were united by the bond of common Teutonic kinship. It is much more important still for the view it gives of the social and political condition of the times in which it appeared. A special interest must attach to it, furthermore, on account of the revelation it furnishes of the character of the author. For he is not simply an individual; he is the type of a class. He is a genuine spiritual ancestor of the men who have always been prominent in English social life and political history—the men sometimes of narrow souls but always of intense convictions and lofty motives—the men who love God profoundly and even more profoundly hate his enemies, with whom they are occasionally disposed to confound their own—the men who in all the long series of struggles upon moral questions have never been tempted to sacrifice the right for the sake of the expedient. The 'Vision of Piers Plowman' is an unconscious self-portrayal of a Puritan of the Puritans before the name of Puritan was heard in English history. For the light it casts upon the times and the man, it will always remain a work of peculiar importance; and students of language, of literature, of social problems, of religious thought will all alike be under permanent obligations to Prof. Skeat for the adequate and admirable manner in which he has accomplished a task that has involved the research, and to no small extent the drudgery, of years.

RECENT FRENCH BOOKS.

Among recent French works of literary criticism the place of honor belongs to that of M. Désiré Nisard, the *doyen d'âge* of French literary critics. His 'Nouveaux mélanges d'histoire et de littérature' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof) may be the last words of the critic who startled the literary world of France in 1833 by his 'Manifeste contre la littérature facile.' And now, before taking his leave, he sends a few more shafts into the enemy's camp to show that, whatever new theories may have been developed, he still stands on the same classic ground. Especially interesting in this connection is the article, "Les Post-scriptum de Sainte-Beuve," written as it is by the greatest master of classic criticism in judgment on the creator of the modern school, a school diametrically opposed to his own. Sainte-Beuve at various times had had occasion to speak of M. Nisard's method, with high praise for his eminent qualities, but generally with many reservations. In the latest editions of his works he had made still greater restrictions, which might have been developed and expressed with much more precision had not M. Nisard had the good fortune to survive the author of the 'Lundis.' And now M. Nisard, in his best academic style, has the last words, words of stately praise, about his former rival, whom he treats with all the eulogistic condescension of an aristarch who feels that, in spite of modern revolutions in letters, he represents an infallible past of classic culture and correctness. He, therefore, with some complacency, presents the revisions and corrections which are to be found in scattered notes to late editions of the 'Lundis' in regard to Chateaubriand, Lamennais, Béranger, Alfred de Vigny, Lamartine, and others. The irreverential treatment of Boileau in 1826 is sharply contrasted with the "réparation" made in the *Causerie* of the 27th of December, 1852, with which date M. Nisard opens the period of postscriptums and "recantations." And it is to this last Sainte-Beuve alone that the honor is given of having been a critic "selon la tradition." M. Nisard even says that if, out of all the fragments of literary doctrines scattered throughout the 'Causeries,' there were made a code of æsthetics (a word that Sainte-Beuve never liked), it would be "une esthétique classique libérale." Thus he makes of the founder

of historical criticism a Boileau of the nineteenth century. He sees in both the same literary belief, but whereas in the "Legislator of Parnassus" it was fixed and, as it were, closed, in the critic with broadened views and deeper knowledge, it is "ondoyante et ouverte." Boileau would certainly have objected to these words as vigorously as Sainte-Beuve would have rejected the complacency of his rival who thus draws him over into his own school.

The three defects, or, as he mitigates his expression with a certain magnanimity of malicious kindliness, "qualités à contre-temps," which M. Nisard finds in Sainte-Beuve's earlier criticisms are an overflow of enthusiasm; a poetic turn of mind; a heart too prompt to admire those whom he had to judge. Certainly the first and third of these are not the defects of the younger generation of critics of whom MM. Brunetière and Jules Lemaitre are the most in view. In the third volume of the series entitled "Histoire et Littérature" (Paris: Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof) M. Brunetière exhibits the same unrelenting spirit towards certain tendencies of the literature of the Third Republic to which he gave expression in his five previous volumes of collected essays. There are, however, notably in the long articles on the works of MM. Taine and Sorel upon the French Revolution, pages which indicate that he may be on the point of modifying, if not his opinions, at least the severity of his censure. The last historical works of the Duc d'Aumale and of the Duc de Broglie are reviewed with generously given praise. But in general M. Brunetière prefers subjects upon which he can express opinions contrary to those that are finding favor at the present moment. Thus, M. Deschanel's 'Le Théâtre de Voltaire' has called up much adverse criticism upon the tragedies of that author. Whereupon the critic of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* exclaims: "And I, too, since everybody is talking about them, . . . have something to say about the plays of Voltaire"; and he finds much good to say about them, at the expense, of course, of Hugo and of Dumas and of "ce que nous applaudissons aujourd'hui sur nos scènes." Again, it is not the fashion at present to praise Lamartine, while Victor Hugo has received the apotheosis that we all know of. But M. Brunetière has an eulogium upon the former poet, immediately followed by an article upon Hugo in which, with great rhetorical precaution, more blame is dealt out than praise. The review of M. Raoul Frary's book calls up "La Question du latin," which for France is what the college Greek question is here. M. Brunetière speaks with eloquence and much feeling. Conservative as he is, it is not difficult to divine which side he takes. In fact, this may be done whatever subject he treats. He never separates his political bias from his literary appreciations. But, however he may offend those who disagree with him, however paradoxical at times he may seem, he stands, as the official critic of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, in the very front rank of French critics, a man of ability, power, and decided opinions.

M. Jules Lemaitre continues the papers which brought him into sudden fame, "Les Contemporains" (Paris: Lecène & Oudin; Boston: Schoenhof). The young critic seems determined to embrace in his gallery contemporary literary and artistic celebrities widely differing in character, from Le Père Monsabré to Sarah Bernhardt, from the serene poet Leconte de Lisle to the more than *gaulois* Armand Sylvestre, from the fluidly unctuous and almost unseizable Renan of the "Abbesse de Jouarre" to the plainly outspoken and familiar Francisque Sarcey. And while he can be severe at times, he can find much to like and to praise in almost all. There is one conspicuous exception, however, M. Georges Ohnet, whom he has now sworn never to speak of again: "je n'en parlerai jamais plus, je le jure." This was after giving an account of the first representation of "La Comtesse Sarah," in the *Journal des Débats* on the 17th of January last; but it must be added that he did speak of him again, more severely than ever, in his very next *feuilleton*. It exasperates him to see Ohnet's novels reach such a fabulous number of editions, and he makes himself the organ of the secret voice that whispers in the ear of the successful novelist and playwright: "Tu est banal, banal, banal." Poverty of style, insipidity, conventionality, *bourgeois* snobbishness, are the highest qualities of which the voice speaks. "On te traduit dans toutes les langues, on te joue sur tous les théâtres, et ton nom est fameux même à Chicago." M. Lemaitre's ideas may be vague about Chicago and the amount of fame M. Ohnet may enjoy there, but they are never vague when he speaks of Daudet, or Anatole France, or Ferdinand Fabre.

One of the best articles is that on M. J.-J. Weiss, his predecessor as the theatrical critic of the *Débats*, whom M. Lemaitre, with notable differences, somewhat resembles. Of both might be said what he says of Weiss: "He freshens received opinions and makes them his by the extraordinary vivacity of his impression." To both would apply the phrase, *Criticus scriptor additus scriptori*; for M. Lemaitre is, more than any other of the numerous critics who treat of contemporary writers, a safe guide. He is generous and broad in the praise he gives; very fine, almost subtile in the nice appreciation of the methods of his brother critics: never pedantic, never too wise and sure of himself. His chief fault, one the reader easily forgives, is that his brightness almost seems like *gaminerie* at times. But there is more seriousness in him than his very modern and free use of language would lead one to attribute to him; for, whatever subject he treats, he is always vivacious, always apparently regardless—perhaps designedly so—of the somewhat hackneyed forms that modern criticism uses to say unpleasant or severe things. He does not always call a spade a spade, for that would be commonplace and might be brutal or coarse; but he is awed into respect by no name, however great, nor exasperated into abuse by any writing, however undeserving, always excepting the novels and plays of M. Georges Ohnet.

The third series of "Les Contemporains" (Paris: Lecène & Oudin) was published only a few weeks ago, and has just reached us. It contains fourteen 'Études et Portraits littéraires' which M. Lemaitre has contributed during the past year to the *Revue Bleue*, closing with the paper which appeared as lately as the number for February 12. This is the article upon M. Paul Bourget, in which the critic shows in such strong relief those qualities of the author which give him his value and his place apart in contemporary literature. When we read this paper, or those on the brothers De Goncourt, or Pierre Loti, or Jules de Glouvet, or Rabusson, or Feuillet, it seems as if M. Lemaitre was at his very best in treating of the authors of the *roman contemporain* in all its surprising diversity. But when he writes of Parisian *chroniqueurs*, Wolff and Blavet, Rochefort and Henry Fouquier, or of poets like Soulary or Jean Richepin, we feel in every fibre of malice there is in us such a sympathy with the critic, such an enjoyment of every fine sarcastic thrust, every delicate touch of the critical blade, that we are ready to say that here alone is he in the fullest exercise of all his best abilities. But it is only when we re-read one of his most serious papers that we feel the full power and range of his marvellously varied gifts as a writer and critic. Take the exquisite chapter on Gaston Paris and his 'Poésie au moyen âge,' for instance, with its charming introduction upon modern erudition and *érudits*, and its fine appreciation both of the scholar and of his subject; or the paper upon the Grand Condé as he is shown in the last volumes of the Duc d'Aumale, which begins, "It must be an agreeable thing to be a prince," and, after two pages of development, "But it must be, too, a very disagreeable thing to be a prince"—in all of which neither Condé nor the Duc d'Aumale is mentioned, but in every line of which the life of the hero and the work of his historian are profoundly commented upon: a fitting introduction to a chapter of historical criticism which has been called by G. Monod, in the *Revue Historique*, "un chef-d'œuvre à la fois d'esprit et de bon sens."

M. A. Claveau does not wish to be carried away by the waves of naturalism, impressionism, or any other of the literary *isms*, and so he writes his protests in 'Contre le Flot' (Paris: Ollendorff; Boston: Schoenhof). He deals out much indignation, sarcasm, and disdain. He amuses when he talks of the ever-rising wave of neologism, which makes it difficult even for a Frenchman to read with full understanding the latest novel or the latest play, and impossible for any one to understand all the words of some writers now in vogue. He takes the critics to task because they show too much complacency in dealing with the authors who pose before the public. He belabors the authors themselves for the brutality, the indecency, the general immorality of the works they produce. Nor is the public itself spared for tolerating and encouraging such a state of things. But it is not the great public, the *bourgeois* who roused Flaubert's antipathy, that M. Claveau has in view. It is the narrow public of dilettanti, of artists, of critics, of the *coteries*, on which he lays the blame. As to the *grand public*, all it wants, he tells us, is good books, pure books. The great success of the future, he thinks, will be for the writer "qui refera tout bêtement Paul et Virginie. C'est simple comme bonjour, c'est le pont aux ânes. Essayez plutôt." And thus he touches on many questions and occasionally reviews a recent book, like Zola's 'Germinal' or Maupassant's 'Bel-Ami,' or a work of Richepin. It is in such reviews that he is at his best. The rest is vague and unsatisfactory.

M. Robert de Bonnières is one of the most brilliant of the young generation of Parisian journalists. Under the signature of "Janus" he contributed to the *Figaro*, between 1880 and 1884, a series of portraits and criticisms from among which two volumes have already been published and a third is announced as in preparation, under the general title "Mémoires d'aujourd'hui" (Paris: Ollendorff; Boston: Schoenhof). Nothing more sparkling, more amusing can be imagined than the two series already published of these literary and political portraits. The first, collected in 1883, is almost wholly political; the second, published in 1885, is entirely literary. The latter are generally the most amusing and interesting on account of their subjects, but both series are equally well done, and they have a certain refinement, even when most insolently cutting, that makes them always pleasant reading. One of the most irreverential articles is devoted to M. Edmond Scherer, who had had the boldness to make some strictures upon the style of Molière, causing great indignation on the part of many, M. Robert de Bonnières among the number, who, with more cleverness and wit than fairness, writes of the critic of the *Temps* as if he were only a tedious and pretentious theological and political author, an incorrect writer of heavy Swiss-French, entirely lacking in taste and discrimination; and he concludes: "L'ennui, le lourd ennui, l'ennui fade, dont il a pétri toute

son œuvre est à étouffer un honnête homme. . . . Ne lisez jamais M. Scherer!" From this it may be seen that M. de Bonnières is not tender as a critic. He has all the severity of a young writer, but also all the liveliness, and when he admires or respects a person his admiration and respect are expressed with a delightful frankness. It must be remembered that these volumes are not deliberate critical work, but articles in a great daily newspaper, dashed off at the moment and full of the moment's interest and brilliancy.

Between the publication of the two series of the "Mémoires d'aujourd'hui," the first novel of M. de Bonnières, 'Les Monach,' appeared in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, and was published in a volume in the winter of 1884-85 (Paris: Ollendorff). This was a remarkable picture of society in Paris in the *grand monde*, and in a corner of another world into which novelists have not penetrated—that of a Jewish family of millionaires, ambitious of entering the most exclusive circles, and successful to a certain extent. The story is not always agreeable, but it is always interesting and never hackneyed. The book was one of the literary successes of recent years—a very different thing from a great financial success, which always depends upon something besides literary merit, though happily not always excluding it. In the meantime a visit to Egypt and to India gave the young author the occasion for some charming letters written on the way, and for his second novel, 'Le Baiser de Maïna' (Paris: Ollendorff; Boston: Schoenhof), published early in 1886. This is an Indian romance of love, of which the author says that it is "the faithful image of the vision which he has had of India at Benares." As "a picture of Brahminic India as it appears to-day under the English domination," the work is only what might be expected; but, neglecting the English functionaries and all connected with them, the story itself is agreeable, and the native characters and scenes are full of animation and interest. As a *conte bleu d'un pays bleu*, 'Le Baiser de Maïna' is an entertaining and poetic story.

'Jeanne Avril,' the last work of M. de Bonnières, appeared in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* in November and December last, and has since then been published in a volume (Paris: Ollendorff; Boston: Schoenhof). Like his first novel, it is a very promising book. It seems impossible that a writer who observes so profoundly, and describes what he sees so expressively and even powerfully, should not produce a novel of real value, not merely of great promise, which is all that can be said of either 'Les Monach' or 'Jeanne Avril'; but even this is enough to place M. de Bonnières in a rank far superior to that occupied by some of the most successful writers of fiction, though as yet far below the great masters of imaginative art.

POMEROY'S INTERNATIONAL LAW.

Lectures on International Law in Time of Peace. By John Norton Pomeroy, author of 'An Introduction to the Constitutional Law of the United States,' 'An Introduction to Municipal Law,' etc. Edited by Theodore Salisbury Woolsey, Professor of International Law in the Yale Law School. 8vo, pp. 481. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1886.

We welcome this volume of Lectures, which were delivered some twenty years ago, not only for its merits, but also as a sign that the American press is again becoming active in a department with which it was once quite familiar, that of Public International Law. Although our country had won an honorable reputation in this field, its energy, at least on a large scale, had (for whatever reasons) much fallen off. We have not even been able or careful to keep our laurels fresh. Leaving out of the account special and partial investigations of more or less moment, too much of the broader harvest of American thought and study has passed over to the guardianship of foreigners. Kent's 'Lectures' and President Woolsey's 'Introduction' have indeed been well tended at home by editor or author, although in the latter case we could wish that the author might revoke the farewell preface in his fifth edition, and give us by his own or a related hand the benefit of the gleanings of the last eight years; but Wheaton's 'History of the Law of Nations' has now to be sought only in its original French, and peculiar circumstances have driven from our market the American editions, annotated severally by two well-known publicists, of his 'Elements of International Law.' That standard work comes to us now most directly under English editorship. In like manner, Halleck's volume on 'International Law,' in its unabridged form, emigrated some time ago, and doubled itself through the labors of an English barrister. Mr. W. B. Lawrence, whose valuable 'Commentaire' on Wheaton's two works is very much more than a republication of its author's former notes, and too scantily describes its scope by its title, was issued in Europe in French; but Mr. R. H. Dana, with less anxious care, left his much-esteemed notes on the 'Elements' to await, at least in their essence, the complete treatise he had planned. This enterprise he did not live to carry out. The science and study of international law could not have suffered a greater loss. In this wreck or flight of home products, we have not even borrowed what we had ceased to make. It is, we believe, safe to say that, since the republication (more than thirty years ago) of the first edition of Phillimore's 'Commentaries,' scarcely one, if one, of the more recent important works on public international law issued in Europe has been reproduced in this country, either in its original language or in a translation. In this case, at least, American thought has not thriven on the non-importation of foreign ideas. We were nearly ceasing, except on narrow lines, to give or take. In this state of things, for which we need not try to account, we may well hail the appearance, within a few months of each other, of the 'Lectures' before us, and of those of Mr. Schuyler on 'American Diplomacy.' To these we may add Dr. Wharton's valuable Digest, which has already been noticed in our columns.

Professor Pomeroy's lectures, though only a moiety of his proposed contribution to the exposition of public international law, form a natural, if unfinished, sequel to his well-known writings on the 'Constitutional Law of the United States' and 'Municipal Law.' Had the author been spared to complete his plan by the addition of the war side of his subject, he might perhaps have preferred to pack all of his work, instead of one-half of it, into a single volume. The copious treatment that is fair to a hearer, who must catch ideas once for all as he can, is less essential to a reader, who can stop and think. This is a posthumous publication, and the lapse of twenty years, even when it does not touch the core of ideas, may somewhat affect their relative or casual significance, particularly if the topics in hand have a more or less historical bearing. It is here especially that an editor's office comes into play. These lectures are edited by Professor Woolsey, whose position and experience have made him quite at home in the field to which they belong. We are grateful to him for what he has done, and only wish that he had been less modest. We could have welcomed, for example, more abundant aid from him in regard to history and bibliography. He has rendered valuable service by what he has written on the "Right of Embassy," which fills up a blank caused by the loss of a part of Professor Pomeroy's manuscript.

Professor Woolsey says in his preface:

"Although twenty years have passed since these lectures were written, it is with no apology that they are now given to the profession. Prof. Pomeroy's opinions on the burning questions of the time—the recognition of Southern belligerency, State repudiation of debt, the naturalization difficulty—and on what are, so to speak, test questions in international law, such as those relating to its nature, foundation, and defects, to prescription, and so on, were so much in advance of the time when they were written, that even now public sentiment and public law are scarcely abreast of them." And, again: "The author delights . . . in clear definition, and orderly arrangement, and exact classification, and the search for the sources and logical results of principles which cannot change. His treatise, thus viewed, will be found a profound and original study of the sources and fundamental principles of International Law rather than a mere compendium of the accepted rules for the guidance of nations in their daily, peaceful intercourse."

We have no wish, and we certainly do not undertake, to question these high claims in general. The editor has here, as it seems to us, noted some of the salient merits of these lectures. A remark or two, however, may be allowed. In regard, for instance, to the doctrine of international prescription, our author, who totally rejects it, and puts very forcibly the objections to it, was perhaps too strongly moved by the triumphs of the sentiment of nationality, a natural foe of prescription, in the European crisis of 1866. United Germany and United Italy carry him, indeed, beyond the pale of history into the realm of prophecy. He is warmed into saying (with rather ungrammatical zeal) that international prescription "never has and never can exist." He may be right; but the converts in the last twenty years to this strong view, at least among writing publicists, appear to be few. Recent science seems to be hardly yet "abreast" of the author at this point. We may refer here in particular to Hall's excellent note on nationality ('International Law,' part ii, chapter ii), which, of course, was later in time than these lectures. Nor was Dr. Pomeroy able to cite those late writers who, on one or another point, have failed to be quite "convinced" by Mr. Marcy's reasoning in the Koszta case. (By the way, Tousig's case was not that of "a man of American naturalization," but of one who had only declared his intention to become such.) It might have been worth while, also, to quote (even if disapprovingly) what "Historicus" (Vernon-Harcourt) said in 1861 of the Hülsemann affair, namely, that "by the general opinion of Europe this transaction was severely reprobated." In the list of important treaties (p. 34), that of 1819, popularly known as the Florida treaty, should have been inserted. Dr. Pomeroy's description of the Constitution of the Swiss Confederation was singularly behindhand when it was written, and is more behindhand now. The modest space occupied on the map by the only existing European federal republic (a republic, too, whose political and constitutional history has striking points of similarity or analogy with our own) is no gauge of its historical or political measure. If mentioned at all, it deserved to be accurately mentioned. Again, the "Tindal" who is followed by a blank in the list of authorities, is the once famous deistical writer, Matthew Tindal, who, before he became noted in that character, had issued four "Discourses" on certain questions of public interest, and is said to have sat more than once in the Court of Delegates (the predecessor of the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council) under William III. The author's pertinent quotation from Tindal comes through Phillimore. We are not seeking to emphasize the slight errors or omissions that must inevitably creep into the first edition of a posthumous work, and would

only add that dates have not always been exactly given. A word, however, on two points of style. To mention is to reprobate the use of *transpire* in the sense of 'happen,' pure and simple; and "the United States *has*" strikes us as odd from the pen of a close student of the Articles of Confederation and of the Constitution of the United States, both of which, through the pronominal adjective "their," discountenance such a construction.

RECENT NOVELS.

A Millionaire of Rough and Ready, and Devil's Ford. By Bret Harte. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Golden Justice. By William Henry Bishop. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

By Woman's Wit: A Novel. By Mrs. Alexander. Henry Holt & Co. [Leisure Hour Series.]

Borderland. A Country Town Chronicle. By Jessie Fothergill. Henry Holt & Co. [Leisure Hour Series.]

MOST of Bret Harte's stories have, in a measure, the advantage which Mr. Lowell says "the flavor of the soil" gives to writings in a foreign tongue. The picture of a mining-camp—with its strange atmosphere of adventure, romance, and freedom—always appeals to one's interest in what is novel and distant, and never seems to grow stale and common though ever so frequently drawn. The life of miners, their occasional wonderful success, their frequent failures, their fascinated patience, their gambler's superstition, have almost become stock properties in Mr. Harte's tales. It seems as if he had but to shift the scene a little, thrust forward one or two new characters, and he has a fresh story made to hand. The queer thing about stories which give this impression on the one hand is, that, on the other hand, they seem and really are fresh. They are pleasant and entertaining, too, always, and are now and then vivified by a touch of true dramatic power. The real fault to be found with Mr. Harte's work is not its exaggeration or lack of simplicity, but that it consists so much of touches. He apparently dislikes the minor and tedious part of story-writing, and often leaves the machinery of his plot working very loosely. There are plenty of indications of power and insight in the story of Slinn and Alvin Mulrady, which ends almost as abruptly as did Sancho's tale of the goatherd when his master lost track of the number of goats; but, to judge it from a literary standpoint, it is incomplete and unfinished.

Mr. Bishop develops a story with the greatest care and circumspection; he leaves no point, however insignificant it may be, unexplained, no turn of chance or fortune unaccounted for. So careful is he, indeed, to bring every incident of his story within the bounds of possibility that his explanations sometimes seem redundant and obstructive. This may appear the more necessary in a story such as 'The Golden Justice,' wherein several coincidences are so strange and unlikely that deference to the limit of credulity requires a very close and careful fitting of the several parts. But then it is held by no less an authority than Mr. Howells himself that a reality which seems unreal is unfit for fiction. There would, however, be no question, one supposes, in a case where the writer's skill can give to unusual things that color and semblance of actuality without which a recital of the most every-day occurrences would sound bare and lifeless. The dictum might reasonably be accepted merely as a piece of friendly advice, cautioning one to avoid the trouble and worry of attempting too much; and, so considered, might with profit be taken to heart by Mr. Bishop. The idea of the Golden Justice containing the confession of David Lane is so bizarre that one's mind, in spite of the element of tragedy in the background, can hardly recognize with due seriousness its important function in the story; and one's attention is so diverted from the real excellences of Mr. Bishop's work by the Gaboriau-like coincidences that, when the confession of David Lane is blown by the whirlwind to the very feet of Paul Barclay—of all men in the world—one is inclined to call it mere juggling with permutations. The ethical truth embodied in the story of David Lane is lost sight of in following the ingenious threads by which his troubles are shown to have arisen from his crime.

Mrs. Alexander has added still another to the already long list of commonplace readable novels which she has written. 'By Woman's Wit,' while not coming up to 'The Wooing O't' in interest, is neither above nor below the general average of Mrs. Alexander's work. She weaves and unravels the tangled web of a diamond robbery with a due amount of lively incidents, love, and jealousy to prevent her readers—most of whom find Thackeray dull and go to sleep over Scott—from being bored.

The author of 'Borderland,' who also can write a respectably long list of titles after her name, is not so successful as Mrs. Alexander in maintaining the reader's interest. Yet 'Borderland' is marked by certain good qualities which are entirely lacking in the more popular writer's works. Chief among these is a tone of seriousness which goes far toward lifting the story out of the category of sensational novels.

A Short History of Parliament. By B. C. Skottowe, M.A. Harper & Bros. 1887.

To distinguish between a history of the British Constitution and a history of the British Parliament is not a very easy matter. That Constitution being so purely an abstraction that it lacks even the embodiment of paper and ink, it is necessary to search for it in institutions of a more tangible character. We find some portions of it still adhering to the throne, but it is almost all to be looked for in Parliament; in the body of precedents, rules, customs, and sentiments in accordance with which Parliamentary action proceeds. Without denying that it would be possible to construct a history of Parliament that should not be a constitutional history, we should yet maintain that such a history would be a very meagre affair. It would be like relating the history of a man by exhibiting the successive suits of clothes that he wore: we should learn much of his habits and circumstances, but we should know little of his life.

Mr. Skottowe's book is quite properly, therefore, a constitutional history, and it is a very good one. Ordinary readers who find Prof. Stubbs's style impenetrable, can hardly do better than to take at least their first lessons in the great story of the rise of our liberties from Mr. Skottowe. They may thus get an impetus that will carry them over the stiffer reading that will still remain to be done. For the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, indeed, very few persons would require a fuller account of the development of constitutional government than they will find in this book, and they will nowhere find one that is more readable. There seems, however, to be one serious gap in the narrative: the important period between the declaration of war by Parliament against the King and the Restoration certainly deserves more attention than it here receives.

It is Mr. Skottowe's object, he informs us, to impart a certain amount of life to the dry bones which are strewn in the way of the constitutional student, and to combine instruction with a certain amount of amusement. There are, unquestionably, abundant materials for such a purpose, and the author displays in the main very good judgment in his selection. Some good things, of course, must be left out, but we should have been glad if the author had not felt it necessary, in the chapter on "Men and Debates," to omit all reference to Sheridan. Macaulay, too, ought to have received a little attention. The chapter on "The Inner Life of Parliament" contains much that is curious and entertaining. The spirit of mischief seems to have possessed porters at an early day. They established their rights substantially in 1771, but as they were not officially recognized until 1834, when the new Houses of Parliament were built, they conducted themselves with great license:

"Under the influence of party feeling, they would ruthlessly cut down the most beautiful oratory of Burke, Fox, or Sheridan into a few bald lines; pure malice sometimes induced them to place ridiculous ineptitudes in the mouths of distinguished men, solely with the view of making them ridiculous. Mr. Wilberforce, on one occasion, read out and bitterly complained of an extract from a newspaper in which he was reported to have recommended the cultivation of potatoes in the following terms: 'Potatoes make men healthy, vigorous, active; but, what is still more in their favor, they make men tall. More especially was he led to say so as being rather under the common size, and he must lament that his guardians had not fostered him under that genial vegetable.' The passage was naturally received with peals of laughter, though the evil was only too apparent."

Mr. Skottowe calls attention to one fact that is not generally known: by the Act of Union, the creation of new Scotch peerages was prohibited. The old ones are therefore gradually becoming extinct, or practically absorbed in the English peerage by grants of English patents. Hence many Scotch peers in the House of Lords owe their seats to some obscure English title. The Duke of Argyll sits as Baron Sundridge, and the Duke of Buccleuch as Earl of Doncaster. As neither Scotch peers nor their eldest sons can sit in the House of Commons, and only sixteen can be members of the House of Lords, most of them are entirely debarred from political life.

The Campaign of Fredericksburg. By a Line Officer. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co. New York: Scribner & Welford.

THIS little book, though written by a British officer from a professional standpoint, and designed for professional use as "a study for officers of volunteers," is not technical, and is altogether one of the clearest and best critiques of the campaign of November-December, 1862, in Virginia that we have seen. The plans of both commanders and the movements of both armies are briefly but clearly set forth, the errors both of omission and commission are fairly discussed, and frequent parallels are pointed out in ancient and modern military history. No layman can rise from its perusal without a good comprehension of that famous battle and of the operations that preceded and followed it. The value of the book is greatly increased by admirable maps, which are a model of simplicity and elegance.

The wretched handling of the Army of the Potomac in this campaign, Burnside's weakness and incapacity, Franklin's feebleness, and the general want of coöperation and of confidence, are well described, as is, too, the splendid valor that wasted itself in fruitless assaults on Marye's Hill. Lee's skilful strategy and the excellent disposition of his forces for battle are distinctly shown, and are brought into strong contrast with those of his adversary; but the Confederate commander is severely criticised for not attacking Burnside before he recrossed the river, and thus converting a bloody repulse into an overwhelming defeat. The author thinks Lee was held back by insufficient reasons, and he dis-

cusses these in detail. Most of them probably weighed but slightly with Lee. The real obstacle to a successful attack, in Lee's judgment, was the Federal artillery on the Stafford Heights, which commanded the plain where the Federal army was, and the river crossings, so completely as to render assault with a smaller force, upon well-posted and veteran troops, hopeless. There was nothing in the gallant attacks on Marye's Hill, continued until nightfall, or in Meade's vigorous push against Jackson on the other flank, to justify the conclusion that the Federal army was demoralized and would not have made a vigorous resistance to assault; and Lee believed that assaulting columns would be torn to pieces by the artillery north of the river which he could not neutralize. This same question came up again next spring, when Hooker threw Sedgwick across at the same place, to cover his own operations at Chancellorsville. The propriety of attacking Sedgwick was a matter of earnest consideration between Jackson and Lee, and, after a careful reconnoissance by the former, it was agreed by both that such a movement promised no good result. Our author thinks Lee was in error, and that, like Hannibal at the Trebia, he ought to have destroyed Burnside. This may be so, but it is very doubtful. It is certain that both Lee and Jackson, the two ablest Confederate commanders, twice judged such an attempt impossible.

Reminiscences of a Country Journalist. By Thomas Frost. Scribner & Welford.

MR. FROST has followed many occupations besides that of a country journalist, as is known to those who have read his previous volume of autobiography, to which the present one is supplementary. He began printer, and became one of that large and obscure staff of men who supply matter for cheap periodicals and keep the publishers' presses going; to adopt a phrase from his original calling, it would not be unfair to describe him as a tramp writer. Fiction was but one of his fields, and in it he made his first successes; he also tried the drama, but with no other result than a sharp and frequently expressed feeling of indignation towards the readers of plays for the theatre. His various volumes, made up from other books, however, had good fortune and found both publishers and readers. He also wrote in connection with the press, and held editorial positions. The career of such a writer is rather of interest as an example than in itself. It was marked by great industry and versatility, and yet more by its uncertainty, while the sidelights thrown upon the ways of editors and publishers in those departments of literature which Mr. Frost cultivated, are dreary enough to warn any young author from his profession. He says his gains from journalism never exceeded £100 a year, and from journalism and literature combined never exceeded £200, "an amount which I received, in fact, for only one year, when I edited a periodical, wrote leaders and leaderettes for two newspapers, and was an occasional contributor to two or three other publications." In another place he remarks, "Of every half-dozen manuscripts which I have sent to the editors of magazines only one has been accepted, while three have been returned, and two neither returned nor accepted." Yet he was a practised, and often a successful writer, and, as we have said, the author of a large number of compiled books which had a sale.

These reminiscences are not altogether of his own affairs, but, being written in a very rambling way, allow innumerable episodes to give variety to the story without interrupting its very lazy course. Thus, at the beginning there are some delightful glimpses of the rural life of Croydon, before London stretched out and absorbed its woods and green lanes and scattered its gypsies; and from chapter to chapter one comes upon anecdotes of English life and character of strong, unconscious realism. One is worth relating as an indication of how the world moves. It is told of Mr. Bean, the founder of the Liverpool *Albion*. Canning always desired to have an opportunity to correct the report of his speeches, and Mr. Bean would bring proofs to him at Liverpool, where he visited Col. Bolton. "Mrs. Bolton," our writer says, "had a great contempt for 'newspaper men,' and evinced it when Bean called upon Canning, at her house in Duke Street, by invariably desiring the servant to bring a chair from the kitchen for his use while he was engaged with the statesman. Bean is said to have felt the insult very deeply," Mr. Frost goes on, "but it does not appear that he ever resented it." There are many recollections of English journalists in the volume, and in particular of the Yorkshire Chartist writers, but all these are ill-digested and generally of trivial consequence. The circus performers, too, of whom Mr. Frost once wrote a book, come in for some mention, and are quoted as professing great contempt for Dickens's pictures of circus life. So, truly, one meets in this book many people of many minds, and perhaps not very well worth knowing; but the author himself, who is a candid man, is not the least entertaining of his characters. He is sixty-five years old, and, after a life of hard work, has nothing to show for it in the funds; he professes himself satisfied with having "done something, according to the measure of my capacities and opportunities, to keep society moving ever onward to a higher and better phase." Without regard to this philanthropic aim, he maintained his own independence of character and his self respect through the trials and temptations of a precarious career; and one recognizes in him the old virtues of pluck and grit, as well as other qualities of "the true-born Englishman."

The Letters of Cassiodorus: being a Condensed Translation of the Variæ Epistolæ of Magnus Aurelius Cassiodorus, Senator, with an Introduction, by Thomas Hodgkin, Fellow of University College, London, etc. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 8vo, pp. 560.

MR. HODGKIN describes his condensed translation of the Letters of Cassiodorus as belonging "to that class of work which Prof. Max Müller happily characterized when he entitled two of his volumes 'Chips from a German Workshop.'" The chips in the present basket accumulated in the course of the preparation of the last two volumes of 'Italy and her Invaders' (reviewed in the *Nation* of May 13, 1886). The notes thus collected were intended to form the basis of a chapter in his history. The materials, however, he says, "were so manifold, so perplexing, so full of curious and unexpected detail, that I quite despaired of ever succeeding in the attempt to group them into one harmonious and artistic picture. Frankly, therefore, renouncing a task which is beyond my powers, I offer my notes for the perusal of the few readers who may care to study the mutual relations of the Roman and the Teutonic mind upon one another in the sixth century, and I ask these to accept the artist's assurance, 'The curtain is the picture.'"

The reader of these letters will obtain from them a knowledge of society and government in Italy during the first half of the sixth century such as few epochs of ancient history can present. The letters of Cicero and of Pliny suggest themselves at once to the mind, as similar in kind and very superior in quality; for their letters are not so insufferably rhetorical as those of Cassiodorus, and, moreover, they deal very largely with private concerns, which Cassiodorus hardly touches upon. These letters are almost entirely official, are very formal, and, even after Mr. Hodgkin has reduced their bulk by about one-half, are for the most part very long-winded and tiresome. But, such as they are, they are indispensable to any one who would study this period at first hand, and invaluable for the light they throw upon that most obscure event—the Germanic occupation of the Roman Empire.

Invaluable as they are, the reader of these letters is surprised at the small amount of direct information derived from them in regard to the organization of the government and the relations of the Romans to the Goths. Cassiodorus had in the highest degree the capacity—which belongs, we suppose, as well to his profession as to his age—of using a great many words and saying a very little. Even books vi and vii, which contain formulæ for the several offices of the Empire, consist mainly of vague declamation, and give very little knowledge of the duties attached to these offices, except by way of incidental mention.

In certain other matters we receive a great deal of information, such as it is; and here is found a considerable part of the interest, if not of the value, of the book. The writer could not let go an opportunity of imparting his varied and curious information; much of it very curious, but not all reliable. Thus, on the occasion of condemning a criminal, he writes to the Prætorian Præfect as follows (book iii, letter 47): "He shall be banished to the Vulcanian [Lipari] Islands, there to live away from the paternal hearth, but ever in the midst of burning, like the Salamander, which is a small and subtile beast, of kin to the slippery worm, clothed with a yellow color. The substance of volcanoes, which is perpetually destroyed, is by the inextricable power of Nature perpetually renewed. The Vulcanian Islands are named from Vulcan, the god of fire, and burst into eruption on the day when Hannibal took poison at the court of Prusias. It is especially wonderful that a mountain kindling into such a multitude of flames should yet be half hidden by the waves of the sea." There are a number of other similar essays, on the chameleon (p. 284), on the gout (p. 440) and consumption (p. 468), on elephants (p. 442), on paper (p. 483), on the water at Ravenna, which appears to have been as bad then as now (p. 286).

Perhaps as interesting a piece of special information as any is found in letter 4 of book ix, in regard to the family which, at its own request, had been relieved of the rank of *curialis*. "Remitted to the ranks of [mere] Possessores, they will now be liable to the same demands which formerly [as members of the Curiæ] they made upon others." Five books out of twelve consist of letters written in the name of Theodoric, and bear constant testimony to his justice and humanity.

The Castellated and Domestic Architecture of Scotland, from the Twelfth to the Eighteenth Century. By David MacGibbon and Thomas Ross, Architects. Vol. I. Edinburgh: David Douglas. 1887. 8vo, pp. xvi, 584.

MESSRS. MACGIBBON AND ROSS'S book is a very welcome one. The only other we know which in any considerable degree covers the same subject is Billings's 'Baronial and Ecclesiastical Antiquities of Scotland.' But, though that is as excellent in its kind as all his work is, its fine plates show the examples only in their picturesque aspects. The paucity of views, the absence of plans and details, make the volumes very inadequate for professional use; the text, which is mainly historical and antiquarian, gives no full descriptions, and makes no attempt at compara-

tive study. This book, on the other hand, is thoroughly professional. The subject is one in which only a Scotch antiquarian could bring the authors to book on questions of detail; but their work is done with method and intelligence, with every appearance of accuracy and of thorough familiarity with the subject.

The first volume, now presented, contains about a hundred examples of Scottish castles and residences, chronologically classed, described in detail, and illustrated with great fulness, from the earliest that remain down to the middle of the sixteenth century. It is prefaced by a good summary of the parallel development of military architecture in France and England. The division into periods or the classification that accompanies it may strike one as a little arbitrary—perhaps any positive division in a series of so gradual development would appear so; yet in tracing out the examples of such a development it is essential to pause at intervals to survey the field. It is always a question in systematic study of architecture whether, in buildings which include the structures of different periods, the description of their parts shall be assigned each to its own period, or whether the full discussion of a building shall be given with the period to which its most important features belong. There is temptation to follow the first method for the sake of logical cohesion; but in a book which, like this, is of the nature of a hand-book, the authors have done well, we think, to follow the second plan. Many books of like scope have been nearly ruined for consultation by the dispersion of their examples in fragments.

Scotland's chronic hostility to England and preference for Continental alliances made her a meeting-ground for various influences in architectural style as well as in politics. While she could not help taking lessons in building from the neighbor at her elbow, her segregation from her, or the obstinacy that led to it, shows curiously in her persistence in certain fashions of building, and in the slowness of her progress, as well as in the appearance at various intervals of symptoms of foreign influences—Scandinavian, French, and even Spanish. We find in the examples here given illustrations of Scotch conservatism in certain architectural forms which are adhered to with striking pertinacity — for instance, the belated round arch, the stepped gable, the square (or rather oblong) keep. It is seen equally in the avoidance of certain other forms, for instance, the tower of horse-shoe plan, common in Roman fortification and in mediæval castles and enceintes in France, or the round tower with a salient angle or keel, of which there is a solitary example in Borthwick Castle. The comparative poverty of the Scottish nobles, their somewhat backward civilization, and the relative fixity of military architecture, which is always slower to change than ecclesiastical, make this conservatism more apparent in the castles than in the churches of their country. Messrs. MacGibbon and Ross trace the course of architecture of the latter in a clear-headed fashion, with a moderation of statement and an absence of fads which is very agreeable, and not always found in antiquarian writers. These five or six hundred pages and almost as many illustrations bear witness to a great amount of laborious research.

The abundant illustrations are reproductions of pen-drawings, of which the most pirited bear the initials D. M. G. Of course these lack the picturesque beauty, often somewhat forced, of Billings's plates, and their smaller scale makes them less graphic in detail, but their professional character appears in their straightforward clearness as well as in their choice and fulness. A comparison of them with those of Billings where they represent the same subject is creditable to the substantial accuracy of both, though one finds occasionally a variation in proportions, and once in a while a discrepancy of more significance, as where, in a tower-room of Dirleton Castle, Billings represents the vaulting with ribs which our authors, no doubt with truth, omit. Indeed, juxtaposition of both of these authorities with Dollman's detailed and apparently accurate drawings, in the examples which all three of them have illustrated, while it displays an essential agreement, is also now and then a witness to the difficulty which every investigator meets in architectural research as in all other departments of human testimony—the difficulty of getting at absolute truth in small particulars from a variety of authorities. Comparison with Billings's plates, moreover, shows us painfully in many cases the progress of dilapidation since his day, and sometimes of alteration, reminding us that this new record, well made and made once for all, has not been undertaken too soon. We hope that the completion of it will not wait long.

Grundriss der romanischen Philologie, unter Mitwirkung von fünfundzwanzig Fachgenossen herausgegeben von Gustav Gröber, Professor in Strassburg. Strassburg: Karl J. Trübner. 8vo.

Prof. Gröber's series is calculated to embrace six good-sized volumes, and undertakes to sketch in detail the Romance languages, their historic evolution and method of study, more exhaustively and comprehensively than has ever been attempted before. Since it is impossible that one man should possess such an enormous mass of well-digested learning, and write it down with his own hands, the editor has judiciously selected twenty-five competent coworkers in the various branches. To himself Gröber reserved the composition of the introduction and other articles of more generic import, together with a special article on French and another on Latin literature. Literature is, of course, in a Cyclopædia of Philology, as important a matter as the languages themselves; and Gröber has accordingly devised a separate article for each of the eight principal Romance languages. The wide scientific scope taken by Gröber's series further appears from the following treatises intended to be incorporated into the body of the work: An article on elements adopted from foreign languages; another upon the influence of indigenous languages, as Iberic, Celtic, Ancient Italic, on Romance languages; one on the use of Latin in Romance-speaking countries (by W. Meyer). A history of civilization among the Romance nations will be furnished by A. Schultz; their political history is to be dealt with by Scheffer-Boichorst. Even the history of plastic art and music is not omitted, and will conclude the last volume, though poetry is treated of in earlier and separate chapters together with stylistic art.

The propædeutic and methodic portion of the series lies complete before us in the first number, and permits a favorable augury for the whole. Linguistic inquiry is kept altogether separate from philologic research, and the method of the latter has been outlined by Prof. A. Tobler of Berlin. As for the sources of Romance philology, the oral are kept distinct from the literary preserved in script. W. Schum, who has discoursed upon the latter, also presents a full and detailed system of palæography, evidently based on the author's own experience. On page 149 Gröber mentions as the end and scope of Romance philology "scientific research concerning Romance speech, of which the origin has, in the lapse of centuries, become incomprehensible." The countries lying beyond the limits of Romance speech, as Northern Europe, have contributed powerfully to the study of these languages, and Germany more than others, for her scholars first applied the comparative method of Bopp to these and all other tongues, whether of literary or illiterate nations. It is touching to read the well-deserved homage paid by the editor to the immortal merits of W. Schlegel and Diez (pp. 90 91). On the other hand, it is exhilarating, with our present ideas of linguistics, to follow up the first attempts in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries to derive certain French terms from Greek, as was done by Budé, Du Bois, Périon, and others, and to notice how gradually an improvement took place in this line through the writings of Pasquier, De Caseneuve, Chastelain, and especially of the celebrated Ménage, the father of modern French etymology.

The earlier portion of the second number (pp. 283-414) is devoted to seven treatises upon the languages spoken in various European countries prior to the advent or formation of the Romance tongues now prevalent. The extent to which these earlier languages have influenced the latter is also made the object of careful investigation. In his article upon the Celtic dialects of Gaul, E. Windisch states his opinion that in middle and northern France the Celtic lost its hold between the third and the fifth centuries after Christ, while Aquitania and "the Narbonensis province" had been thoroughly Romanized at a much earlier period. G. Gerland, Professor of Ethnology in Strassburg, confirms the result of former investigators, that the Basques of our days are the direct descendants of the Iberi at the beginning of our era, and that they formerly held a much larger territory than they do now. In his article on the ancient languages of Italy, W. Deecke counts the Etruscan among the Italic languages, and hence regards it as cognate with Latin, Umbrian, and Oscan. M. Gaster discusses the non-Latin elements in the Rumanic (or Wallachian) vocabulary, and F. Kluge does the same for the Germanic terms found in the Romanic languages.

With another section of the book begins the discussion of the grammatic elements of the languages in question. This section is introduced by their scientific classification at the hands of the editor. Of the three dialects of Rumanic, only one is thoroughly studied by H. Tiktin, for the two others have never furnished enough materials to make full study possible. In the Alpine ridge Rhetoromanic is spoken in more than twenty narrowly circumscribed dialectic forms, but only four of them have developed into something that can be called a literary language; these are exhaustively treated, though only in their grammatical aspect, by Th. Gartner. The second number breaks off abruptly in the midst of the interesting article on the Italian language, and it is expected that the third number will form the completion of the first volume.

We look forward with great interest to the continuation of this useful series, which is printed in rather small Roman type, though handsomely, and contains all the literary quotations needful to those who desire to undertake studies subsidiary to the information contained in the 'Grundriss,' as the editor modestly calls his cyclopædia.

Histoire de l'Art dans la Flandre, l'Artois, et le Hainaut avant le xve siècle. Par M. le chanoine Dehaisnes. Lille. 1886. 3 vols., 4to.

It is much to be wished that the reverend author of this valuable treatise had included Brabant in the provinces to the history of whose arts he has devoted so many years of his life. As it is, however, he has produced a work of the first importance, which must certainly take its place upon the shelves that are fortunate enough to carry the Comte de Laborde's 'Ducs de Bourgogne' and

Weale's 'Beffroi.' The second and third volumes are filled with a prodigious collection of previously unpublished documents, and extracts from documents of all kinds which can be made to throw light on the obscure history of the mediæval arts. In the first volume the bearing of the documents is indicated in a readable history. This deals first with the dark ages, which were not so very dark, after all, until the Norse invasions of the ninth century came and involved Gallo-Roman, Merovingian, and Carlovingian monuments in a common ruin. The slow struggles towards a revival are next traced with wonderful painstaking, and then the great burst of art which flashed upon all the feudal countries of Europe about the beginning of the twelfth century, and which deserves to be called *the* Renaissance far more than that southern product of four centuries later. When the twelfth and thirteenth centuries arrive, the author is forced to break up his subject and deal with it piece by piece, following the artistic developments in the different towns, Bruges, Ghent, Douai, Lille, Valenciennes, Cambrai, and the rest, one by one. At Bruges and Ypres, civic architecture is the matter of chief importance; at Tournai and Cambrai, cathedrals and abbeys naturally attract most attention. The archives of Douai fortunately contain a long and most interesting series of ancient testamentary documents, through study of which M. Dehaisnes has been enabled to take his readers into the very houses and closets of the well-to-do burghers, and to show us the tapestries, the jewels, the gold and silver work, the carved furniture, the illuminated prayer-books, and other works of art which they contained. Nor are these volumes devoid of new matters of interest in connection with individual artists, whether they be men already famous, such as Villard de Honnecourt and Melchior Broederlam, or great but till now almost wholly forgotten workers like Andrieu Beauneveu of Valenciennes, sculptor, painter, and miniaturist of the first rank in the latter half of the fourteenth century. The lover of ancient tapestry will find a mass of information about the early history of the art—two new documents relating to the first high-warp weavers of Arras being of special importance. Some half dozen chapters deal with the influence upon art exercised by the noble houses of the day—an influence which does not always seem to have been for good. The volume concludes with a couple of chapters, containing an important general review of the whole ground covered by the work.

The volumes are well printed, and the first contains some fifteen Dujardin plates. The e are several indices of a very complete character, and there is a glossary of words not included in Ducange and the usual authorities.

George Ide Chace, LL.D. A Memorial, edited by James O. Murray. Cambridge: Printed at the Riverside Press. 1886.

THE quarto form and general appearance of this "memorial" are unnecessarily suggestive of that obituary character which discourages the general reader from making the acquaintance of a book that is so marked. For it is not as if the life and character and influence and standing of Prof. Chace were not such as to amply justify a brief biography and a selection from his philosophical discourses; nor as if these had not an interest and value for a good many readers not included in the sphere of his college influence and work. He was born in Lancaster, Mass., in 1808, on a big farm from whose soil he drew a love of nature and of out door life. An accident, which housed him for a time, made him a student, and secured for him a college course at Brown University. Graduating in 1830, he was made tutor there in 1831, and for forty-one years, without a break, he remained in the service of his Alma Mater. In 1834 he was made Professor of Chemistry. In 1836 geology and physiology were added to his chair. On the death of President Sears in 1866, he was made President *ad interim*, and would undoubtedly have been made President in full had not the tradition of the college demanded a clerical head. To make it easier for another to step into his rightful place, he exchanged his scientific chair for that of moral and intellectual philosophy; the moral and philosophical and theological implications of science having long had for him a great attraction. The change, nevertheless, was not agreeable, and was only undertaken out of loyalty to his college and veneration for Dr. Caswell, who, on his elevation to the Presidency, could not undertake the labor of instruction usually associated with it. Prof. Chace did the work assigned to him creditably and efficiently for five years, and then went abroad for a protracted period of travel, "preferring to close his professional career while he was in full strength and vigor." That he was no Dryasdust is shown by his election as an Alderman of Providence in 1878 and again in 1879, and also by his work on the State Board of Charities and Corrections, which continued for nine years, and was terminated voluntarily only two years before his death in 1885.

The biographical sketch is very largely made up of reminiscences by Dr. Geo. P. Fisher and others, who were either his pupils or his fellow-teachers in the University. The impression we derive is of a faithful, earnest, and laborious man, with little originality of thought or presentation, but with an enthusiasm that was contagious and a style of writing and speaking that was incisive and impressive. His limitation was most striking on the side of German philosophical thought. Thus, in his development of Locke, he stopped short with Reid and Stewart. His confidence in the theistic argument from design suggests that Kant was wholly strange to him. Six of his lectures and essays are given—the most elaborate, "A Discourse on Francis Wayland," for whom his admiration was great, but with whom he sometimes took issue widely and clearly. A list of his contributions to the *Bibliotheca Sacra* and other reviews is a valuable addition to the book.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Dr. C. C. Waste-Land Wanderings. Harper & Brothers.
Alexander, C. B. Notes on the New York Law of Life Insurance. Baker, Voorhis & Co. $2.50.
Argyll, Duke of. Scotland as it Was and as it Is. 2 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $8.
Baird, Lieut. W. Index to General Orders Amendatory of the U. S. Army Regulations. Washington: James J. Chapman.
Beecher, H. W. Prayers from Plymouth Pulpit. A. C. Armstrong & Son.
Bigelow, J. The Complete Works of Benjamin Franklin. Vol. II. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $6.
Blackmore, R. D. Springhaven: A Tale of the War. Harper & Brothers.
Brodrick, Hon. G. C. A History of the University of Oxford. A. D. F. Randolph. 80 cents.
Brown, G. W. Baltimore and the 19th of April, 1861: A Study of the War. Baltimore: N. Murray.
Caddy, Mrs. Florence. Through the Fields with Linnæus: A Chapter in Swedish History. In 2 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Cassell's Complete Pocket Guide to Europe. Revised and enlarged. Cassell & Co. $1.50.
Célière, P. The Startling Exploits of Dr. J. B. Quès. Harper & Brothers.
Cherbuliez, Victor. La Bête. F. W. Christern.
Cheyne, Prof. T. K. Job and Solomon; or, The Wisdom of the Old Testament. Thomas Whittaker. $2.25.
Conklin's Handy Manual of Useful Information. Chicago: Geo. W. Ogilvie.
Davis, Prof. G. B. Outlines of International Law, with an Account of its Origin and Sources and of its Historical Development. Harper & Brothers.
Dos Passos, J. R. The interstate Commerce Act: An Analysis of its Provisions. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Ebers, G. The Brice of the Nile: A Romance. 2 vols. William S. Gottsberger.
Edler, K. E. Baldine, and Other Tales. Harper & Brothers.
Elmes, W. Treatise on the Law of the Customs. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Geffroy, A. Madame de Maintenon, d'après sa correspondance authentique. 2 vols. Paris: Hachette. Boston: Schoenhof.
Grover, A. J. Romanism the Danger Ahead. Chicago: Craig & Barlow.
Hardy, T. The Woodlanders: A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Hawels, Rev. H. R. The Picture of Paul (the Disciple). T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Herbert, George. Three Latin Poems. Translated by Dr. George D. Wildes. A. D. F. Randolph. 35 cents.
Billyard, M. B. The New South. Baltimore: The Manufacturers' Record Co.
Hitchcock, Dr. H. American State Constitutions: A Study of their Growth. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Hyde, Annie L. Our Father: Illustrations of the Lord's Prayer from Saints of Every Name and of All Time. A. D. F. Randolph. $1.
Journal des Goncourt. Mémoires de la vie littéraire. Premier volume, 1851-1861. Paris: Charpentier. Boston: Schoenhof.
Keltie, J. S. The Statesman's Year-Book. Statistical and Historical Annual of the States of the Civilized World for 1887. Macmillan & Co. $3.
La Critique de Francillon. Paris: Librairie des Bibliophiles; New York: Lupratt & Co.
Lanman, C. Biographical Annals of the Civil Government of the United States. 2d ed. Illustrated. Revised, enlarged, and completed to date by Joseph M. Morrison. J. M. Morrison.
Larned, Augusta. Village Photographs. Henry Holt & Co. $1.75.
Laveleye, E. de. The Balkan Peninsula. Translated by Mrs. Thorpe. With a Map. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $4.50
Magee, Bishop W. C. The Atonement. Cassell & Co.
Marshall, Prof. A. M. A Junior Course of Practical Zoology. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.50.
Maude, J. E. The Foundations of Ethics. Edited by Prof. William James. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50.
McKim, Dr. R. H. Bread in the Desert, and Other Sermons. Thomas Whittaker. $1.50.
Mendenhall, T. C. A Century of Electricity. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Mirbeau, Octave. Le Calvaire. Boston: Schoenhof
Moberly, Rev. C. E. The Early Tudors: Henry VII., Henry VIII. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Morgan, A. Digesta Shakespeareana: Being a Topical Index of Printed Matter relating to William Shakespeare, or the Shakespearean Plays and Poems. Brentano Brothers. $2.
Murray, J. A. H. A New English Dictionary, on Historical Principles; Founded Mainly on the Materials Collected by the Philological Society. Part III. Batter—Boz. Macmillan & Co. $3.25.
Parsons, Prof. R. Cebes' Tablet. Boston: Ginn & Co. 80 cents.
Prime, Dr. W. C. Holy Cross: A History of the Invention, Preservation, and Disappearance of the Wood Known as the True Cross. A. D. F. Randolph. $1.25.
Rawlinson, Prof. G. The Story of Ancient Egypt. With the Collaboration of Arthur Gilman. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Rawlinson, Rev. G. Biblical Topography. James Pott & Co.
Ricker, G. H. Elements of English. Chicago: The Inter-State Publishing Co. 30 cents.
Roberts, E. H. New York: The Planting and Growth of the Empire State. [American Commonwealths.] 2 vols. $2.50.
Row, Rev. C. A. A Manual of Christian Evidences. Thomas Whittaker. 75 cents.
Russell, W. C. The Golden Hope: A Romance of the Deep. Harper's Franklin Square Library.
Sears, G. W. Forest Runes. *Forest and Stream* Publishing Co.
Stern, J. United States Calendar for Full 200 Years. Also a Commercial Calendar for the Use of Courts, Counting-Rooms, etc. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 50 cents.
Stevenson, R. L. The Merry Men, and Other Tales and Fables. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 15 cents.
Stokes, Dr. A. C. Microscopy for Beginners; or, Common Objects from the Ponds and Pitches. Illustrated. Harper & Brothers.
Storer, Prof. F. H. Agriculture in Some of its Relations with Chemistry. 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Story, W. W. Roba di Roma. New ed. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.
Thackeray, W. M. The Irish Sketch-Book. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
The Christ and the Fathers; or, the Reformers of the Roman Empire. London: Williams & Norgate.
The Critic: A Weekly Review of Literature and the Arts. Vol. vi. (New Series.) July-December, 1886. New York.
The Fawcetts and Gavords: A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
The Forum. Vol. ii. The Forum Publishing Co.
The Kernel and the Husk. Letters on Spiritual Christianity. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $1.50.
The Matrimonial Agent of Potsdam. A Humoro-Social Romance. Thomas R. Knox & Co.
The Musical Herald: A Monthly Magazine, devoted to the Art Universal. Boston: Musical Herald Co.
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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 283

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS 286

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:
- Some of the President's Hindrances 288
- Government on Business Principles 288
- Ineffective Demagogy 289
- Senator Dawes on the Crisis 289
- Secondary and Higher Education in Sweden 290

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:
- Bradford's Index to Clemencin's Commentary on Don Quixote.—II 292
- The Peace of Europe 292

CORRESPONDENCE:
- Anglo-Saxon Pirating 293
- Transformation of Surnames 294

NOTES 294

REVIEWS:
- Fyffe's Modern Europe 297
- Recent Poetry 298
- Recent Novels 299
- Siam 301
- Village Photographs 301
- The Diversions of a Book-Worm 302
- Walks and Talks in the Geological Field 302
- The Bishops in the Tower 302
- Young People's History of Ireland 302
- The Dogaressa 302
- Last Evening with Allston 302

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 303

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Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1886	1,426,049 46
Total Marine Premiums	$5,235,299 99
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1886, to 31st December, 1886	$3,817,699 86
Losses paid during the same period	$2,206,588 68
Returns of Premiums and Expenses	$841,378 15

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 7, 1887.

The Week.

THE recent municipal elections in Philadelphia, in Cincinnati, in Chicago, and Milwaukee are all excellent illustrations of what can be done towards taking municipal government out of politics, as the phrase is, when the public is once fully awakened as to the necessity of it. From what has happened in the cities we have named, it seems as if we should owe this deliverance to the Socialistic element in the voting population. In Philadelphia, decent and intelligent men united at the last election to elect a good man by a large majority, for the purpose of trying the experiment of a really responsible Mayor under the new charter. In Chicago, also, the fear of seeing a gang of cut-throats and incendiaries put in power has led to the overthrow of the local demagogue and the installation in the mayoralty of a man of sense and character. In Milwaukee the contest turned on the election of judicial officers, and the Anarchist element is very strong, and the movement, to use the words of one leading citizen, "to throw politics to the dogs," in municipal affairs, is of very recent date; but it has proved effective in this instance. In Cincinnati the Labor party was not very formidable, as its managers seemed to be rational and clean-handed men, whose aims were not alarming. But its presence in the field sufficed to drive out of municipal politics the corrupt gang who have long figured in that city as the "Democratic party."

The fact that in both Philadelphia and Chicago the successful candidates were Republicans, of course gives an opportunity to the regular party organs like the New York *Tribune* to treat the result as a triumph for the Republican party; but nobody anywhere, and least of all on the scene of action, will be deceived by this. What we are witnessing is really the slow but sure perception by industrious people who own something and mean to support themselves by their labor, of the real nature of municipal government, and the extreme folly of sacrificing the comfort and even the safety of their own homes for wholly extraneous considerations. They begin to perceive, for instance, the immense humbug of voting against a candidate for Mayor because he is a free-trader and is supported by free-traders—as if mayors of cities could raise or lower the tariff—at the risk of putting in power people who believe in neither property nor police, nor law nor courts, and who look on those who save money out of their incomes as public enemies. They begin to see, too, that American cities have become too weighty an element in the social peace and business prosperity of the country, to be allowed any longer to be used as a football by politicians.

The passage of the High-License Bill by the New York Senate by a nearly solid Republican vote, all the Democrats voting against it, makes the Republican record on this most important measure complete and unassailable. Only two Republican Senators sided with the Democrats, Coggeshall, the notorious jobber from Utica, and "Jake" Worth, another notorious jobber from Brooklyn. These two belong to precisely the same class of Republicans as do "Charlie" Smith of New York and "Johnny" Reitz of Brooklyn, the two Republican Assemblymen who voted against the bill. They are Republicans only for business reasons. They trade and deal themselves into office, and, once in, they trade and deal in all cases for their personal benefit and against the public interests. Whenever they are brought squarely to book, they are found to be on the side of the liquor power or some other of the evil influences in politics. What the Governor will do with the bill, remains to be seen. Nobody has asked him to veto it save the liquor-dealers, and Tammany and Irving Halls, which are the representatives of the liquor-dealers in politics. Not a single respectable newspaper of any party in this city ventures to lift its voice in opposition to the bill.

The widespread determination to place effective restraints upon the liquor traffic is freshly illustrated in the passage through the Massachusetts House, by a vote of two to one, of a bill, in which the Senate is expected to concur, limiting the number of licenses which may be granted in any place to one for every 500 people; an amendment to allow Boston one for every 250 of population being rejected, 132 to 66. Boston now has one saloon to 158 inhabitants, so that the proposed law would reduce the number in that city by more than two-thirds. Lawrence beats Boston with one saloon for every 141 people, while there are places of only a few thousand inhabitants apiece which now have a saloon for every 175 or 200 people. The steady growth of temperance through voluntary action, which is as noteworthy as the development of legal measures to restrict drunkenness, is also freshly illustrated in Massachusetts. The staff officers of the first brigade of the State militia have unanimously voted not to carry any intoxicating drinks of any kinds to camp this year, and not to permit the drinking of such liquors in their tents during the encampment.

It would be difficult to decide which side of the wrangle between Gov. Hill and the Republican majority in the Senate is the more partisan and disgraceful. The Senators have for four years or more pursued the absolutely indefensible course of "hanging up" appointments, because to confirm them would be to put Republicans out of desirable offices. They are, in fact, if not usurping the Governor's power of appointment, completely nullifying his exercise of it. They are doing this mainly to keep in office Tom Platt's Quarantine ring of officials, whose terms expired four and five years ago, and who are holding their positions because no successors have been confirmed. If they give way and confirm appointments for other offices, they will have no excuse for holding their party solidly against confirming nominations for new Quarantine officials; so they make and keep a caucus decision to refuse to confirm any nominations. It is an abuse of their confirming powers so gross that not a Republican newspaper in the State ventures to attempt any defence of them. The Governor, on his side, knowing that no matter what nominations he makes they will not be confirmed, is improving the opportunity to make himself "solid" with the Labor agitators by sending in names of men who have no fitness for the office to which they are nominated, and no claim to it save that Walking Delegates of the Quinn type have asked for their appointment. It is a humiliating spectacle which the people of the first State in the Union are thus called upon to contemplate—a Democratic Governor and a Republican Senate using public office as if it were a game of dice.

The ignorant youths who puff the Field Code in the newspapers talk as if, after the code was adopted, their venerable employer was going to live on indefinitely and superintend its emendation, and see that no sacrilegious or ignorant hands were laid on it. They forget that he must in the order of nature shortly leave us, and that after he has gone the work of revision is sure to begin, not at the hands of jurists, but at the hands of the Legislature, which, having for the first time in Anglo-Saxon history, got hold of the whole law embodied in a statute, would undoubtedly proceed to treat it like other statutes—or, in other words, to tinker it at every session. Bills "to amend the Civil Code," in aid of jobs, in aid of private claims, disputes, and interests of all sorts, would appear in showers every winter at Albany, and they would be introduced in greatest numbers by the worst men. In fact, a civil code in the form of a statute in this State would be the greatest field ever opened in this country to legislative "strikers," for the simple reason that in no other State are the interests which the law defines and protects so vast, varied, and complicated, and so sensitive to legislative disturbance. Of course we should have to rely on the lawyers to give warning of the effects of these changes in the Code. In nine cases out of ten they would not be at first perceptible to the layman's eye. We should also have to rely on the lawyers to expose and resist them, but nothing is more certain than that this would soon prove a vain reliance. Lawyers, like other people, grow weary of rendering thankless and bootless service. They would in this case grow weary all the sooner, because a large body of them would find their account in the disorder and uncertainty which the annual "revision" or "emendation" would produce, and would reconcile themselves to what they profited by, as many do already to the corruption of legislative bodies.

The bar of New Jersey has never received a greater shock than the one which Gov. Green has given it in refusing to reappoint Chancellor Runyon, and in elevating to the Chancellorship a Jersey City lawyer who in experience, reputation, and ability is ranked by scores of lawyers in all parts of the State. Under the legal system of New Jersey the Chancellor is undoubtedly the most important officer in the State, not even excepting that of Governor. His authority over corporations and estates is far reaching, and, as the Presiding Judge of the Court of Errors and Appeals, he has to pass upon the arguments of the leading members of the State bar. Every interest is therefore to be congratulated when a man can be found for the position who is universally recognized as fulfilling all its requirements. Such a man was Chancellor Runyon. Members of the bar felt it an honor to appear before him. The justness of his decisions was not questioned, and his great learning and keen aptitude for despatch enabled him always to keep up with the business of his court. It would have been considered an outrage to displace such a man because he was not of the same political party as the Governor. How much more startling, then, is the outrage when the great jurist, belonging to the Governor's political party, is displaced because he is not in sympathy with the Governor's particular faction! It does not do to say, in a case like this, that the successor, even if young and inexperienced (it is said that he has never had but one case before the Court of Errors), is honest and bright, and "will learn." The simple fact is that a great wrong has been done to vast public interests, and a wrong that should not be forgotten when opportunity comes to condemn it at the polls.

It is a gratifying coincidence that at the very time when Tennessee displays the good effects of the rejection of the scheme of Federal aid for education, by more than doubling the amount of the State appropriation for the public schools as soon as Congress had adjourned, Louisiana exhibits the advantages of the rejection of another scheme of Federal aid to the States. Before the war the Mississippi River States used to keep up an effective system of levees for protection against the spring floods. After the war Louisiana, Arkansas, and Mississippi set up the plea that they were too poor to maintain the levees, and that the nation must come to the rescue. For years attempts were made to commit the Federal Government to this policy by inserting in the annual River and Harbor Bill appropriations for levees. Fortunately they failed, and at length, instead of folding their arms and complaining that they were "impoverished by the war," the people interested set to work on their own account. State Boards of Commissioners were created in districts lying along the river, which proceeded to levy a tax on every bale of cotton raised within the district, the proceeds to be used in building and repairing levees. This tax has just been declared constitutional by the Supreme Court, and the policy will be extended. The districts issue bonds for the purpose, and interest and principal are paid out of the cotton tax levied for that purpose. The New Orleans *Times-Democrat* says that "in this way a sum sufficiently large can be realized to assure the construction of a perfect system of levees in the Fifth Louisiana District," and the same thing is, of course, true as to other districts. Thus the States will get a good levee system, as they are getting a good school system, by their own efforts, without the demoralizing consequences which would have followed had the schemes which presented them as mendicants not fortunately failed.

A Western State and Territory have just escaped, through the veto of the Executive, a curse from which Louisiana suffers. The Arizona Legislature passed an act legalizing a gaming corporation whose business was to be the distribution of prizes by a game of chance, to be conducted under the supervision and guarantee of the Territory; the bribe being the offer of part of the profits for the public-school fund and the erection of public buildings. But Gov. Zulick vindicated President Cleveland's selection of him by returning the bill with a veto which killed it, on the ground that he was "unwilling to aid in the legalization of a gambling scheme, by which the earnings of men, women, and even children can be seduced to investment in lottery tickets, to build up the fortunes of a few interested stockholders at the expense of public morals, under the pretext of replenishing the public-school fund; preferring that our public schools, in the future as in the past, should be maintained by the free, honest offerings of the people, rather than our children should be educated from the overflowing profits of a system of legalized gambling, which in my judgment is subversive of every sense of political morality." The Nevada Legislature at its recent session gave fresh proof of the folly of making a State out of a little mining camp by passing an act for the formation of a corporation modelled after the Louisiana Lottery [Company; but Gov. Stevenson defeated the scheme by interposing his veto, on the ground that the bill was in conflict with the Constitution.

It is to be hoped that some compromise of the debt of Virginia may result from the conference proposed by the Legislature between a commission for the State and a commission representing the foreign bondholders. If, however, the intention of the State commissioners is to give up nothing on their side, but merely to demonstrate to the creditors that the debt cannot be paid, they must have more than Southern hopefulness to expect success. It would certainly be impossible to convince any disinterested expert that the State cannot pay the debt. Let Virginia fund it at a low rate of interest to run for a long term, and she can bear it perfectly well. It is of little use to make complaint about poverty in the Southern States at this time. Their material resources are too great, have been too widely advertised, and have too deeply impressed Northern men and Englishmen to leave a chance for removing that impression. Maine raised last year just about the same amount of taxes as Virginia, and the rate per 100 was exactly the same. Yet if you were to tell a Virginian that Maine was as rich as the old Dominion, he would treat you with contempt. Virginia *is* undoubtedly a hundred fold richer than Maine in natural resources, but those resources are almost totally undeveloped. She is in a position, therefore, to find it of peculiar advantage to fund her debt for a long term, knowing that she will be richer each year, so that the longer the term of the debt, if it lowers the interest, the better. But to expect creditors to fund under the Riddleberger Act at this stage of the case is a most extraordinary exhibition of hopefulness in a very hopeful race. It is doubtful whether the Legislature has any figures to offer that the creditors are not perfectly well acquainted with, and certainly no State officer knows any more about the resources of the State than many an expert making investments for foreigners there. The conference, which is to take place not later than April 12, will be awaited with great interest.

The rumor that the Republican managers contemplate making Mahone Chairman of their National Committee in next year's campaign seems hardly credible, and yet it would be only the logical carrying out of the Massachusetts theory that what the party needs is management, and not principles. Mahone is probably the best—which is the same thing as to say the worst—manager in the country, and his Chairmanship of the Republican National Committee would be a natural outcome of a system which proposes to revive the party by clubs and "organization."

The "Labor" news of the day gives us some amusing glimpses of the kind of world it will be when we are all ruled by master workmen and walking delegates. A delegation from District Assembly 49 has been at Albany, we are told, urging the appointment of a certain Hanley as Commissioner of Labor Statistics. Hanley, it appears, was a grocer who failed in business in Jersey City and then took up the cause of Labor. He was sent on a mission to the Southwest strikers last year. After his return he took care of furniture for Bernard Maguire. When he is travelling for Labor he is called "Martin A. Austin"; but when he is a candidate for office as a statistician, he is called "Martin B. Hanley." In the Bureau of Statistics, he would doubtless upset the old capitalistic adage, that "figures do not lie," and make them lie handsomely for Labor and Hanley, or Labor and Austin. We regret to say that Timothy Quinn, alias "Putnam," who headed the 'longshoremen's strike, after having driven a hack in winter and an ice-cart in summer, has fallen from power, and is now in a private station. He is open to offers from hack proprietors and ice companies, and can be seen at Pythagoras Hall, where he is still, when not otherwise employed, making a stand against capital. Give him a call.

Labor gave a benefit performance on Sunday night in the Windsor Theatre, the proceeds of which are to be devoted to workingmen

who are in want because of the failure of the longshoremen's strike. There were about 800 persons present, and the programme was long and edifying. Quinn—not the ex-ice-cart driver and ex-hackman, but the other Quinn, who is Master Workman of District 49—made a speech in which he said that the press alone was responsible for the failure of the strike, and was reponsible also for the "continuation of the differences between capital and labor." He was also of the opinion that the "press must alter its position towards organized labor in America." Then Mr. Powderly remarked that, humble though he might be, he regarded his position as head of the Knights as "second to none on earth," and believed District 49 to be the "grandest of organizations to-day," though he was willing to admit that any one going to the District's meetings and expecting to find angels there, would be disappointed. After this intellectual portion of the programme the "Old Oaken Bucket" and "Song for the Weary" were sung by a double quartet, and then some sketch artists appeared and drew portraits of Blaine, Butler, and Powderly. These were subsequently sold at auction, when Powderly fetched $3, Blaine 75 cents, and Butler 25 cents. This part of the proceedings was carefully edited out of the *Sun's* report.

The recent resignation of Judge Samuel Treat of St. Louis and the death of Judge Samuel H. Treat of Springfield, Ill., create two new vacancies on the Federal bench to be filled by a Democratic President. The Treats, oddly enough, considering the close approach to absolute identity in names, were judges of the District Court in adjoining districts, Samuel having served on this bench for 30 years and Samuel H. for 32 years, the latter having been also for 16 years a State Judge before his promotion to the Federal court. Samuel H. was appointed by Franklin Pierce on March 3, 1855, and Samuel by Pierce just two years afterwards, on the last day of the latter's term, March 3, 1857. Two of Buchanan's appointees, R. R. Nelson of Minnesota (June 1, 1858), and Matthew P. Deady of Oregon (March 9, 1859); another of Pierce's, James M. Love of Iowa (February 21, 1856), and even one of Millard Fillmore's, Ogden Hoffman of California (February 27, 1851), are still on the District bench. Except these few remaining relics of Democratic appointments to the Federal bench before the war, every present member of the United States Supreme Court (nine in number), the Circuit (nine), and all but five of the District Courts (fifty-eight), hold the commissions of Republican Presidents, although it is true that one, Field, of the Supreme bench, has turned Democrat since his appointment by Lincoln. As five of the nine Supreme Court judges are past sixty-seven years of age, one of them being in his seventy-fifth year, and as several of the members of the two lower courts are suffering from age or infirmity, it is probable that, in the course of nature, a number of vacancies must occur within a comparatively short period, to add to the five on the District bench which have been filled since March, 1885, and the two new ones just created.

The Boston *Advertiser* actually makes the Rev. Joseph Cook the subject of a leading article, in which it resents bitterly and with solemnity his declaration that he is not personally acquainted with any of the present editors of that journal, and defends its own dictum that Cook had been "flat, stale, and coarse" in a lecture of his on Henry Ward Beecher. The continued tendency of the Boston mind to occupy itself with Cook and to take his scientific, literary, and religious charlatanry seriously, is one of the oddest intellectual phenomena of the day. The Boston correspondent of the Hartford *Courant*, a very intelligent observer, says that the public of that city is at last getting weary of him. The elaborate editorial self-defence of the *Advertiser* looks, however, as if he were taking too hopeful a view of the situation, and as if Cook still weighed on people's minds.

It would redound to the credit of the country and to the benefit of the Irish if the resolutions which State Legislatures are passing, protesting against the Irish coercion bills, were draughted by men of sense and education. Waiving the question of propriety—which on such an occasion many people will think a small matter—it remains highly desirable that American expressions of disapprobation of British legislation should be expressed in such a manner as not to excite the ridicule and contempt of the persons to whom they are addressed.

There is not much importance in the division on the Coercion Bill in the House of Commons on Friday. It is a very unusual thing to oppose the first reading of a bill, but the Opposition has done it in this case simply in pursuance of the policy of resistance *à outrance* which had been determined on, when Parliament met, as regarded all attempts at coercive legislation for Ireland. It is usually on the second reading that an opposed bill has to fight for its life before it goes into the Committee of the Whole. Consequently it is probable that some Unionists voted with the Government who will hesitate about doing so on the second reading, partly because they see no good reason for departing from the old usage in this case, and partly because they dislike to ford streams before they come to them. Many of them are doubtless hoping that before the moment comes when they will finally have to place themselves on record for or against coercion, something will happen to deliver them from their dilemma—the bill will be modified, or the Ministry will retreat, or the new Land Bill will come well to the front, and take the sting out of the Crimes Bill, and so on. Consequently, there is a strong chance that the Ministry will not have the majority for the second reading they have had for the first, or a large enough one to save the bill from serious if not fatal mutilation in the Committee, when it will be attacked clause by clause. The situation is, in fact, for halting Unionists one of great perplexity. The bill is a much worse one than the Tories first talked of. It has been received with unexpected indignation by the Liberal press, and particularly the provincial press, and it is feebly presented and supported in the House of Commons. Neither Chamberlain nor Hartington can defend it with fire or vigor; Goschen has long ceased to be considered a Liberal at all; and Smith and Balfour have little debating value.

Of the worthlessness for any purpose of a measure of this kind introduced under the closure, and opposed as this one is likely to be, there can hardly be a question in the mind of any intelligent and impartial observer. All previous coercion bills for Ireland have had all England and Scotland behind them, and were supported by, if not a majority, a considerable portion of the Irish members Even with this moral and political backing, however, they have generally been only half executed, and have never secured either peace or order any more than content. The notion that one like this, which half the English and nearly the whole of the Scotch members are opposing with fierce indignation under the leadership of the greatest English statesman, and against which the most powerful portion of the English press is thundering, can ever be carried into effect, or can, in fact, result in anything but an increase of disorder, and frightful conflicts between the people and the police, is almost ridiculous. The mere opposition it will meet with in the Commons and the country will kill it for all practical purposes.

The latest turn in the manœuvres of the men who control Mexican affairs, and who are seeking some constitutional means of giving President Diaz another term, is the proposal to amend the Constitution so as to allow re-election. The advocates of the prorogation scheme, to which we recently referred, are still in the field, the Legislature of Oaxaca, Diaz's State, having followed up the action of Puebla by an emphatic endorsement of the plan to prolong the Presidential term; but the plainly retroactive nature of such a measure has crippled it from the start. Meanwhile, the bolder and more thorough plan of striking out of the Constitution the prohibition of electing for successive terms has been finding enthusiastic promoters, one prominent Deputy having publicly announced his adhesion to the idea, and his intention to move the needed amendment at the April session of Congress. The startling inconsistency of allowing Gen. Diaz to do in 1888 what he plunged the country into civil war to prevent Lerdo from doing in 1876, is something of an obstacle to the proposal, but it would be eminently Mexican to regard it as only trivial. The President himself has given no public intimation of his wishes, and is doubtless willing to let popular opinion express itself upon the various projects. If he could peacefully secure the succession to Romero Rubio, his father-in-law and present Secretary of the Interior, it is probable that he would prefer that way out of the difficulty. In any case it is certain that the coming session of Congress will have this question of the next Presidency under serious if not exciting discussion.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, March 30, to TUESDAY, April 5, 1887, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

MR. CHARLES S. FAIRCHILD, who was Acting-Secretary of the Treasury during Mr. Manning's absence from his post, was appointed to succeed Mr. Manning on March 31, and Mr. I. H. Maynard, who was Second Comptroller of the Treasury, succeeded Mr. Fairchild as Assistant Secretary.

The President has appointed Martin V. Montgomery of Michigan, who has been Commissioner of Patents, to be Associate Justice of the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia to succeed Justice McArthur, retired.

The act of the last Congress granting land in severalty to Indians was first put into effect on March 31, when the President ordered the allotment of land under this law to the Indians on the Warm Spring Reservation in Oregon.

The Secretary of the Navy on April 1 opened the plans which had been submitted for an armed cruiser and a powerful battle-ship, and found that designs had been offered by the Thames Iron-Ship Building and the Barrow Ship-Building Companies of England, A. H. Grandjean of France, Capt. N. S. Clayton of New Zealand, Lieut. W. I. Chambers, T. D. Wilson (Chief of Bureau of Construction), and S. H. Pook of the United States Navy, N. L. Tonns of New York city, and F. L. Norton of Washington. Fifteen thousand dollars will be paid for every design that is accepted.

The new Government dry-docks, the construction of which was authorized by the last Congress, will be built at the Brooklyn and Norfolk Navy-yards.

The members of the Inter-State Commerce Commission went to Washington on April 1 and took the oath of office. Committees from several Southern cities have made statements to the Commission that such a change of freight rates as it is supposed will have to be made by roads leading from the South northward will do great injury to Southern manufacturers, most of whose products are now transported at "special" rates. The great railroad lines have made and published new schedules of freight and passenger rates, to take effect on April 5, in accordance with the provisions of the law which forbid special rates and free passes. Mr. Cooley has been chosen chairman of the Commission.

A decision was handed down April 5 by the Supreme Court of the United States, which declares that no unconstitutional or illegal discrimination is made against the national banks by the tax system of this State.

In the United States Circuit Court at Boston an opinion has been given denying the motion of the Bell Telephone Company, in the case of the Government against it, to plead the results of previous litigation, in addition to being allowed to demur to the whole bill. This will enable the Government's suit, which was ruled out of court in Ohio, to proceed.

In a decision handed down by the Supreme Court of Connecticut on April 1, the law prohibiting threats of injury to property was construed to include the boycott. The accused persons were convicted of conspiracy to boycott the proprietors of the New Haven *Courier* because they would not discharge non-union printers. It is held in the decision that "the purpose of conspiracy, or the means by which it was to be accomplished, or both, were not only unlawful, but, as some authorities express it, 'was in some degree criminal.'"

An election was held in Michigan April 4 on an amendment to the Constitution to prohibit the sale of liquor, which was defeated by a majority of about 5,000. Two Judges of the Supreme Court, James V. Campbell and Charles D. Long, and two Regents of the University, R. W. Butterfield and Charles Hebard, all Republicans, were elected, by majorities ranging from 8,000 to 12,000. On the same day municipal elections were held in the cities and towns of Ohio. In Cincinnati Armor Smith, Republican, was elected Mayor. He received 17,963 votes; Stevenson, the Labor candidate, 17,367; Matson, Democrat, 11,951. At Columbus Philip Bruck, Democrat, was elected by 1,134 plurality. For the four preceding years the Mayor has been a Republican. A Republican Mayor was elected in Toledo. In Cleveland a Democratic Mayor succeeds a Republican. In Chicago, on April 5, John A. Roche, Republican, was elected Mayor. The Democrats had no candidate, and the Labor candidate received 23,410 votes out of 74,768. In Wisconsin H. W. Orton, Democrat, was elected Judge of the Supreme Court. Municipal elections were held in Kansas on the same day, when the new law allowing women to vote for municipal officers went into effect. In some towns the female vote was large, in others insignificant. The noteworthy features of these April election returns are the large vote polled by the Labor party in Cincinnati, the narrow defeat of prohibition in Michigan, and the breach of old party lines shown by the returns in many towns in Ohio.

Gov. Beaver of Pennsylvania has issued a proclamation fixing April 22 as Arbor Day, and he has requested the people generally, and school children in particular, to plant trees.

Ten members of the Virginia Legislature have been appointed as Commissioners on the part of the State to meet the representatives of the foreign holders of the State's bonds to agree upon a plan of settlement of the debt.

The new liquor law in Maine has gone into effect, and it is the most radical effort that has been made to suppress the sale of liquor. It provides that any person selling any intoxicating liquor in the State contrary to law shall be fined $50 and costs, and in addition thereto imprisoned thirty days for the first offence, and, in default of payment, imprisoned thirty days additional; and for each subsequent offence he shall be fined $200 and costs and imprisoned six months, with six months' additional in default of payment. Any clerk or agent who aids or assists in violating the law in any manner is held alike guilty with the principal. A common seller is subject to a fine of $100 and thirty days' imprisonment. On a second and every subsequent conviction the penalty is a fine of $200 and costs and four months' imprisonment. If a man is found intoxicated in the street he is to be fined not more than $10 or imprisoned thirty days for the first offence, and for each subsequent offence for thirty days.

The Legislature of Texas has passed a bill to carry into effect a section of the State Constitution prohibiting the consolidation of parallel or competing railroads. It fixes a penalty of $1,000 to $4,000 fine and imprisonment of managers or agents of companies that violate the law.

Great suffering, caused by drought, is again reported from Atascosa County, Texas. A petition for aid sent to the Legislature sets forth that more than 100 persons are at the point of starvation, and that their neighbors are so destitute as not to be able longer to relieve them.

One of the Chinese festivals fell on last Sunday, and great numbers of Chinamen in San Francisco placed meat offerings and burned joss-sticks on the graves. It is estimated that as many as 2,000 corpses will be exhumed and sent back to China this spring from San Francisco—a custom that they hold to firmly, except in the case of converts to Christianity.

The Hotel del Monte, at Monterey, Cal., was burned on the night of April 1. Three hundred people lost their clothes and baggage. The hotel belonged to the Southern Pacific Railway Company, and was one of the handsomest at any seaside resort in the United States.

The Missouri Pacific Railroad Company has decided to build a manufacturing village on the outskirts of St. Louis after the plan of Pullman, near Chicago. Its shops will be located there, and homes for workmen will be built near by and owned by the company.

An association of iron founders in St. Louis (employers) has made "an injury to one the concern of all." The moulds of a firm whose men have struck have been distributed among the foundries of the other members of the association, who will thus enable the suffering firm to fill its orders.

Messrs. George William Curtis, Carl Schurz, Wayne McVeagh, Charles J. Bonaparte, Charles R. Codman, Charles C. Adams, and William Potts, who were appointed by the National Civil-Service Reform League a special committee to prepare a report on "the present condition of the reform movement and the relations to it of the national, State, and municipal administrations," published their report on March 30. They say: "Tried by the standard of absolute fidelity to the reform as it is understood by this League, it is not to be denied that this Administration has left much to be desired." But they find that "the Administration, under enormous disadvantages and perplexities, has accomplished much for the reform of the civil service"; that "the old 'spoils system' has been seriously shaken," and that "the Administration has practically demonstrated that a clean partisan sweep of the civil service is not demanded by the intelligence of the country, and is not necessary for honest, efficient, and satisfactory government."

There is soon to be a drilling contest by militia companies from all parts of the Union at Washington. Because three companies of colored men have entered the contest the Montgomery (Ala.) Grays have withdrawn.

An express train on the Boston and Albany Railroad made a trip on March 30, lighted by electricity and heated by steam, and it was the first complete train so equipped which has ever been successfully run.

The subscription by citizens of Brooklyn to build a monument to Henry Ward Beecher has reached the sum of $7,000.

The sixty-second annual exhibition of the National Academy of Design in this city was opened to the public April 4, and will remain open until May 14. Of the 1,200 pictures offered, 503 were hung.

The books, statuary, bric-à-brac, and the like, which belonged to the late A. T. Stewart, fetched $49,422 at auction. This, added to the sum for which his pictures were sold, makes a total of $563,172—a smaller amount than was paid for these objects.

Mr. H. H. Hunnewell, a citizen of Wellesley, Mass., has presented the town with a hall, a park of ten acres, and a public library, with 6,000 volumes, the value of all which is estimated to be $250,000. Mr. William Bucknell of Philadelphia on his seventy-sixth birthday, March 31, gave to Bucknell University, at Lewisburg, $50,000. He has now given $142,000 to this institution.

The Rev. Dr. James Curran, formerly assistant to the Rev. Dr. McGlynn, the Catholic priest who has been deposed for the part he took in the Henry George campaign in this city, has been disciplined by the Archbishop of New York for sitting on the platform when Dr. McGlynn delivered a lecture on his deposition and the communal ownership of land.

John G. Saxe, the humorous poet, who for several years had been inactive, died at Albany March 31, aged seventy-one. On March 30 Thomas C. Reynolds, who had been Lieutenant-Governor of Missouri, committed suicide in St. Louis. John W. Harris, one of the oldest and most successful lawyers in Texas, died in Galveston April 1 at the age of seventy-nine. He was the first Attorney-General of the State. Joseph H. Bradley died at Washington on April 3, aged eighty-four. He was a son of the First Assistant Postmaster-General under the Administrations from Washington down to Jackson, and was for many years a well-known lawyer. Miss Catharine L. Wolfe of this city died April 4. She

was very rich, and she gave much of her time and much money to works of charity, mainly through the Protestant Episcopal Church. It was she who paid the expenses of an expedition to Babylon, under the Rev. Dr. Ward, to promote researches in Biblical archæology. Her picture gallery is one of the most noteworthy in New York.

FOREIGN.

Immediately after the announcement of the Irish Coercion Bill the excitement began, which culminated at its passage on the first reading on April 1. On one side Mr. Morley, addressing the Liberal-Radical Union, called some of its features "grotesque and malignant," and they showed, he said, that the Government had no insight into the national sentiment of the Irish people. The responsibility for the tremendous plunge would rest upon a section of the Liberal party—a section which would henceforth be called the Coercionist-Radical party. He denied that the National League terrorized or coerced the people, and declared that the proposed suppression of the League would multiply the number of secret societies, and would deprive the tenant of his safeguard against the landlord. On the other side, Lord Hartington, at a meeting of the Liberal-Union members, declared that the Government had made the bill a question of confidence, and if the Liberal Unionists failed to support it, the result would be the advent of Mr. Gladstone to power.

On April 1, when the House sat for eleven hours, and rose at three o'clock the next morning, closure was applied to the Coercion Bill by a vote of 361 to 253, and it passed its first reading. The scene was one of the most extraordinary excitement ever known in modern Westminster. The turbulence began during the brief interval between the announcement of closure and the motion for the first formal putting of the motion. When it was put Mr. Gladstone walked in a stately fashion down the floor of the House to give his vote against it, and the Liberal and Irish members rose to their feet as one man and broke into wild cheers, and waved their hats with enthusiasm, and followed him. As they moved slowly towards the door, cries arose of "The rights of minorities," "Down with coercion," "We'll fight to the death," "Down with the Speaker." The result of the division having been formally declared, the Liberal and the Irish members, led by Mr. Gladstone, quitted the House in protest against the procedure. As they passed out they again indulged in loud cries, such as "A star chamber conspiracy," "Down with the Speaker." The Speaker, amid the terrible uproar, was powerless in his efforts to preserve order.

In an interview with the London correspondent of the *Evening Post* the day after the passage of the Coercion Bill, Mr. Gladstone said of the Conservatives: "They have thrust upon the Speaker a partisan function, and thus have dealt a blow at the Chair the gravity of which it is impossible to exaggerate." "It is not coercion I am thinking about, not dissolution, not home rule even," he added, "but the Chair, the Chair. Let them fight us. I have always said let them beat us. That is well. But above all things let them respect the Chair. But they have not. They have forced partisanship upon him. Besides this, nothing could exceed the contemptuous disregard of the Government for all forms of precedence and parliamentary procedure."

The principal speech against the Coercion Bill was made by Mr. Parnell, which has been pronounced one of the most vigorous he has ever delivered. Mr. Gladstone, who also spoke briefly, declared that he had never known a bill so completely torn to rags as Mr. Parnell had torn this one. Mr. Parnell declared that the bill meant a reign of judicial murders. It meant that all hopes of better times, which seemed dawning upon Ireland, would disappear; that a system of subornation of witnesses and wholesale perjury before partisan juries was to prevail, sending innocent persons to the scaffold and a convict's cell. What was the only state of society that could rise under this reign of terror? Secret societies would spring up, fostered by the sufferings of an oppressed nation, and those who had been persistent in counselling the people to observe patience and moderation might counsel in vain. But he would still counsel them to submit to injustice rather than retaliate or do anything that might drive Mr. Gladstone from their side, or increase his difficulties or place him in a false position with the Liberals. Their battle was now won in Ireland.

In almost every town in the kingdom meetings have been called to denounce the bill. Resolutions of protest from hundreds of places in England as well as Ireland have been adopted and published.

In the House of Lords Earl Cadogan, Lord Privy Seal, almost simultaneously with the presentation of the Coercion Bill, presented a land-bill which passed its first reading, providing for the purchase of Irish holdings, that is, for the abolition of the system of dual ownership created by the act of 1881. The lease holders whose leases expired prior to 1881, numbering 160,000, are to be admitted to the benefits of the act of 1881 in the same manner as those whose leases expired in that year. This bill is regarded by the Opposition as an effort to soften the Coercion Bill, and as an insincere proposal. It contains some measures for which Mr. Parnell has contended, but it is now bitterly opposed by the Liberals. The comment of the *Daily News*, which speaks for the Opposition, is that the bill "convicts the Ministry of the grossest inconsistency" because "it entirely dispenses with the necessity for coercion, or rather it would if the necessity existed"; and the *News* adds: "Mr. Balfour argues that an illegal combination prevents tenants in Ireland from paying their rents. Lord Cadogan formally admits that tenants are evicted for not paying impossible rents."

The second reading of the Coercion Bill was formally moved in the House of Commons April 5 by Mr. Balfour. Sir Bernhard Samuelson, Gladstonian, moved an amendment to the effect that "the bill would, if passed, increase the disorder in Ireland and endanger the Union and the Empire, and therefore should be rejected." The debate will be continued for some time.

A colonial conference, attended by representatives from all the most important British colonies, began its sessions in London on April 4, to discuss a wide range of subjects pertaining to colonial government and its relations to the home Government.

A new Italian Cabinet is at last announced, the ingoing members of which are Signor Depretis, Minister of Foreign Affairs, Signor Crispi Minister of the Interior, Signor Viale Minister of War, Signor Zanardelli Minister of Justice, and Signor Saracco Minister of Public Works.

While the Spanish Chamber of Deputies was in session April 2, a parchment case containing gunpowder, with a fuse attached, was found in the doorway of the President's bureau. An explosion later in the day broke the windows of the office of the Minister of Finance. Admission to the Parliament buildings has been denied to all journalists, native and foreign.

The last effort to kill the Czar—on March 29—was made by an officer of the army, who shot at him while he was taking exercise in the park of the palace at Gatchina. It is reported that a number of officers have been arrested for complicity in the plot. Three persons who were concerned in the previous effort to kill him have been hanged. The Russian Government has appropriated £25,000 to be used in unravelling the Nihilist conspiracy in Russia, and £12,500 for the same purpose in foreign countries.

A rich merchant of St. Petersburg was recently killed because he refused to contribute 80,000 rubles to the Nihilists' fund. Other rich Russians have received letters threatening them with immediate death if they do not give money to carry on the Nihilist warfare.

The Russian Government has declined to take part in the Exhibition to be held at Paris in 1889, and forbidden its subjects to send exhibits.

The Governments of Germany and Austria will imitate the action of the Government of Russia in declining to take part in the Paris Exhibition of 1889. The newspaper organs of these Governments insist that it would be an act of impropriety and an act of danger to the monarchies of Europe to do anything tending to glorify revolution.

Prince Bismarck was seventy-two years old on April 1. He received the congratulations of the Emperor and congratulatory telegrams from all parts of the empire and from many persons of distinction in other countries.

There has been a revival of sharp talk between German and French journals. The French press demanded that a German officer who obtained secret information in Paris be recalled. Thereto the Berlin *Post* replied on April 2 that if such a request were made by the French Government it could be answered only by the recall of the German Minister to France. The same paper accuses the French of having an organization of spies in Germany.

Prince Bismarck's newspaper organ, commenting on the conduct of Señor Mencarini, the Spanish Consul at Hong Kong, who at a recent banquet in that city toasted the prosperity of France, and expressed a hope that she would have a brilliant *revanche*, says: "Germany will not fail to make to Spain proper and weighty comment on the occurrence. Spain must not permit her diplomats to forget with culpable frivolity what is due to their position."

More indications have been given of Germany's determination to rule Alsace-Lorraine with great rigor. M. Antoine, a member of the Reichstag from Metz, was expelled from the province on April 1. He will be allowed to retain his seat in the Reichstag, but he must go to Berlin by way of Belgium or Switzerland, and not through France. Bismarck is reported to have said in a recent conversation: "We intend that the provinces (Alsace and Lorraine) shall remain incorporated with Germany. Their fortresses are a strong bulwark against France, and for us they have the advantage of removing by several days' march the starting point for an aggressive movement against us from France." Orders have been given by the German authorities to destroy the French flags preserved in the provincial townhalls.

The Belgian Chamber of Deputies has passed a bill permitting the Free Congo State to issue a lottery loan to the amount of 150,000,000f.

Mr. Henry M. Stanley wrote under date of March 9 from Cape Town that he had gone forward to rescue Emin Bey, whose supply of ivory, it is reported, was thought to be of no less than £60,000 value.

Trains on the Northern Division of the Intercolonial Railway in New Brunswick were hemmed in by snow for a week until April 1. Fifteen hundred passengers were snowed in on the tracks, and 1,500 workmen were engaged to dig a way out. In places the snow was thirty feet deep.

The Mexican Congress convened April 1. President Diaz, in his message, says that Mexico's relations with foreign Powers are of the most friendly character, and that with the United States there is no question pending which is likely to disturb the existing good understanding. As to the boundaries on the north, he insists that the Mexican Senate follow the example of the American Senate in extending the term for carrying the treaty regarding that matter into effect. The general tone of the message is satisfactory to the banking and financial interests. The assurance given of the ability of the Government to continue to meet all its obligations inspires fresh confidence.

SOME OF THE PRESIDENT'S HINDRANCES.

THE report of the Committee of the Civil-Service Reform League on the condition and progress of the movement under the present Administration has, we believe, impressed most people as exceedingly fair and impartial. It gives the Administration full credit for the good it has done, and makes full allowance for the obstacles in the way of doing better which it has inevitably encountered, some of which are doubtless much more formidable than Mr. Cleveland anticipated when he wrote his famous letter to Mr. G. W. Curtis and others. He has found that raising the standard of purity and efficiency was a much more difficult task in some States than in others, owing sometimes to the character of the party leaders, and sometimes to pre-existing political conditions which left any attempt at reform without local support. It was, in fact, not possibie for either Mr. Cleveland or anybody else to find out how the Democratic party stood towards civil service reform, without the actual experiment of a reforming Democratic Administration. During the ten years before 1884 large numbers of Democrats had persuaded themselves, and persuaded others, that they were in favor of the reform, without knowing very well what the reform was, or without picturing it to themselves as anything but the expulsion from office of all worthless Republicans, who constituted, as they flattered themselves, the great bulk of the office-holders. Nobody who has not had some personal experience of it can well realize what ignorance prevailed among political men, especially in the Democratic party, about the details of what was called "civil-service reform" down to the incoming of the present Administration. Few of them had ever taken the trouble to inform themselves about it, and a large number of those who did know something about it had not taken it seriously or looked on it as anything more than the fad of a body of Republicans, whose votes might be had for the Democratic candidate by humoring them judiciously.

Senator Gorman of Maryland probably stood in this latter category. He was a most useful and energetic man during the canvass, and, in fact, by the time it was over had probably laid the victorious candidate under weightier obligations than any other worker. That he had ever given civil-service reform any serious attention prior to the election, or had the least expectation of seeing it put into practice by Mr. Cleveland, may well be doubted. No sign of it had been discoverable in the management of the party in his own State, or in fact in the management of any party. When he found that the victory was won, therefore, he set about dividing the spoils, probably in as much innocence and as much ignorance of any reason why he should treat offices as public trusts, as any husbandman in the garnering of a crop which he had sown in toil; and, for the reasons we have above stated, he was a very difficult man for a Democratic President to gainsay.

Senator Gorman has, in fact, been shedding a flood of light on the situation in rather an amusing way, in an interview printed in the Baltimore *Sun*, and containing his view of the report of the Committee of the National League. To him the reason why the signers of the report have censured his doings in Maryland is simply that they are "intense Republicans," and favor "a centralized Government" and a permanent tenure in the civil service. The reason why he likes to make frequent changes in the civil service is not, as some people suppose, because he wishes to reward his henchmen, but because he is "opposed to centralization," and in favor of "government by the people" (of course, through Gorman) "in the broadest sense." "He thinks," he says, "that good government can only be secured through the people" (*i. e.*, in Maryland, Gorman) "having the right and the opportunity to change their public servants high and low at all times within their [Gorman's] discretion." The Committee has denounced some of the appointments made in Maryland by "the people," alias Gorman; but the reason of this is, that they did not know "that he knew it to be necessary to select men who did not profess to be saints to ferret out the rascals whom they (the Republicans) appointed and kept in place."

There could hardly be greater simplicity, we see, than this. No reformer can get angry with a man like Mr. Gorman. When a great rascal appears in office in Maryland, we must not complain, because we do not know the workings, or, if we may say so, the secret purposes, of the Gorman mind. He did one very clever thing at the close of his interview, of which, however, the President is justly inclined to complain. He took up the list—which is a long one—of undeniably good appointments made in Maryland by the Administration, and claimed the credit of them all for his system of government by the people through Gorman. And he even maintained that he was a reformer himself. Nobody would ever guess what the reforms were in which he was engaged, so we will give them in his own words: "To protect the public domain and restrain the rapacity of corporations." It will be seen from all this that Mr. Gorman is really an interesting man, and belongs to a species which is rapidly growing scarce, owing to changes in environment. The natural-history museums will, therefore, do well to keep an eye on him.

GOVERNMENT ON BUSINESS PRINCIPLES.

THE appointment of Mr. Charles S. Fairchild as Secretary of the Treasury is a most notable extension of the system of conducting the affairs of the Government on business principles. The Treasury Department is a branch of the Government preëminently concerned with those features of administration which in any proper view are exclusively business-like in their nature—especially the collection of the money required to maintain the Federal Government, through the customs duties and the internal-revenue taxes, and the disbursement of this money through all the various avenues which it must pursue. A small army of officials, scattered all over the country, is demanded for the performance of this work, but the duties of nearly all these are purely fiscal in their nature and have properly nothing to do with politics. The head of the Department and a small number of other high officials are charged with the execution of the financial policy of the Administration for the time being, but the work of the great remainder, if properly discharged, has no more to do with financial policies than that of the subordinates in a great business firm. In other words, the Treasury is, of all the executive departments, the one which is by its very nature a business institution, to be conducted upon business principles.

Yet so thoroughly had the spoils system demoralized the public mind that until recently the Treasury Department has been considered the great patronage preserve of the Government. Only seven years ago the head of the Department made public proclamation that he conceived this to be the proper view of the institution, when he notoriously, and almost openly, employed men paid to serve the public in the enterprise of working up Sherman delegations to the Republican National Convention of 1880. Under Mr. Sherman's successor in 1881 the country saw the chief custom-house disorganized, and an efficient Collector of the same party faith with the new President removed in the middle of his term, solely to pay political obligations at the public expense. With such principles unblushingly avowed by heads of the Department, the whole service was inevitably infected, and it was managed throughout as a political machine.

There has seldom been a greater surprise than was afforded by the fact that it was a man of Daniel Manning's antecedents who called a halt in this matter. Mr. Manning had been educated in the same faith as to the disposition of the offices with his Republican predecessors, and when his appointment was foreshadowed, it was generally deprecated by civil-service reformers. But the test of time vindicated Mr. Cleveland's selection. Mr. Manning often yielded to the spoilsmen, and was frequently inconsistent, but when, early in his administration, he picked out that sincere reformer, Edward O. Graves, for Chief of the Bureau of Engraving and Printing—the only great Washington office not under the Civil-Service Law—he asserted what proved the guiding principle of his course. Experience convinced Mr. Manning, against preconceived opinions, that the business system was the true system. His successor has nothing to unlearn. Mr. Fairchild has always believed in the merit system, and he was one of the earliest advocates of its application to the public service in this State. So far as his influence at Washington has gone (and it has gone far during the year that he has been virtually Acting Secretary), he has made the Treasury Department practically what it theoretically is—a great business institution. Even such partisan opponents as the Washington correspondent of the Philadelphia *Press* confess that he is "one of the genuine reformers of the Administration" (observe the unconscious admission that there are a number of such), and says that "in Department matters he has surprised all the old officials by sitting down as promptly on Senator Gorman and ex-Senator Barnum as he did on Eugene Higgins." Now that he is to be the unquestioned head of the Department, he will of course be still firmer in asserting himself. Mr. Fairchild is a man of very uncommon executive talent, and as under our system the Secre-

tary of the Treasury is essentially only an executive officer, possessing none of the power of initiating legislation exercised by a Chancellor of the Exchequer in England, his selection is an exceedingly good one.

We have thus, for the first time since Andrew Jackson introduced the spoils system, the most important department of administration presided over by a man who hates the spoils system, and who will conduct the affairs of the Government on business principles. Already the Bureau of Engraving and Printing at Washington—formerly a loathsome sink of patronage—is upon a business basis; the same thing is true of the greatest custom-house in the country, and as true of those in Boston and many other cities besides New York; and Mr. Fairchild may be trusted to see that as speedily as possible the principles of the merit system shall be everywhere applied. To have a department, which was prostituted to the basest political uses in 1880 and 1881, firmly restored to business uses in 1887, is hardly short of a revolution.

Not less surprising and encouraging is the fact that the wiser leaders of the Democratic party have learned so much, since Mr. Cleveland's inauguration, that they endorse the choice of a genuine reformer for this position. The Washington correspondent of the *Herald* says that Speaker Carlisle and other equally representative Democrats were consulted by the President, and that "every one was content to see Mr. Fairchild placed at the head of the Treasury, and made the official head of the Department whose efficient actual head he has been ever since Mr Manning broke down." In other words, they saw that, in the present temper of the public mind, the best way for the Democratic party to strengthen itself with the country was to make proclamation of the fact that the Treasury Department was to be conducted by a proved reformer.

Such an incident brings out in strong relief the vast advance which has been made within three years. In 1884 the Republican party was running for the Presidency the man who was really responsible for the scandalous removal of Mr. Merritt and the appointment of Mr. Robertson as Collector in New York, and whose record assured his conduct of the Government upon a spoils basis. In 1887 a Democratic President appoints as Secretary of the Treasury a conspicuous civil-service reformer, with the approval of such prominent Democratic leaders as Speaker Carlisle.

INEFFECTIVE DEMAGOGY.

THE refusal on the part of the Legislature of Missouri to make appropriations for the militia is not merely an example of hostility to the forcible maintenance of law and order: it is a still better example of the childishness of such hostility. The militia already exists. It is in complete organization, officered, armed, clothed. The salaries of the officers are prescribed by law, and if the rank and file are called into active service, their pay is fixed; and, although they could not get their pay until money was appropriated for the special purpose, yet it would exist as a valid claim against the State, and refusal to pay men for the performance of an extremely disagreeable, not to say dangerous duty, would be likely to result in the election of a Legislature like the one of 1879, which showed its friendly feelings towards the militia by prohibiting the use of blank cartridges except on drill.

But even suppose the sentiment of hostility to the militia should dominate the Legislature for years, and appropriations should be withheld until the Missouri National Guard dies of inanition, what then? One of three things must happen in times of riot. The Governor of the State will be compelled to make requisition upon the President of the United States for national troops—a ludicrous result for those who hate military power—or the police must expand in numbers and increase in efficiency until it equals a militia in power, or else an irregular police or militia will be formed by the citizens, under the name of "regulators," "friends of law and order," or any of the names honest citizens are wont to take when the weakness or pusillanimity of their government has forced them to assume extraordinary powers. Order will be restored somehow, militia or no militia, police or no police, law or no law. This needs no proof. It is a settled fact in the history of civilized communities. If a Governor like the present incumbent in Missouri should be as slow in making requisition for United States troops as he was in calling out troops last year, and deputy-sheriffs should prove as ineffective, the right of individuals to combine in self-defence would surely be put to the test. Happily in Missouri this right is guaranteed by the State Constitution, for, although it may seem superfluous to preserve by law a right which will be assumed whether the law preserves it or not, it is, as a matter of fact, an immense assistance in the assumption of extraordinary powers to know that they may be assumed lawfully. For this reason the clause in the Constitution of Missouri which provides "*that the right of the people to bear arms in self-defence and in defence of the lawful authority of the State cannot be questioned,*" might well become a rallying-point for the orderly elements of the State. The people may bear arms and may use them in self defence and defence of lawful authority. Nor is this right limited by the statute against carrying concealed weapons, for that makes an express exception in favor of carrying weapons in defence of person, home, or property. The Missourian who carries a weapon when threatened by such letters as the Knights of Labor sent the engineers and firemen of the Missouri Pacific Railroad last year, is acting under the law, and, what is more, is acting under a right which the Legislature could not take away from him.

But far more important than the right of self-defence is the right to bear arms in defence of the lawful authority of the State. This right, taken in connection with statutory provisions for suppressing riots by the civil authorities, renders it possible for the indignation of law-abiding citizens against mobs and rioters to take formidable and effective shape. Besides the usual authority vested in the mayor of any town or the sheriff of any county to call upon citizens to assist in suppressing a riot, and providing that the pay of citizens so employed shall be the same as that of militia in active service, there is another remedy, without waiting for the initiative from sheriff or mayor. If a large body of men are assembled in a threatening or riotous manner, a private citizen may give notice of it to the Mayor, a member of the Board of Aldermen, or Legislative Council of any city or town, or to a sheriff, coroner, or marshal, or any of their deputies, or to any justice of the peace. It is then the duty of the officer so notified to approach the rioters as nearly as he can with safety, and command them to disperse, and, if they do not comply, to command all bystanders to arrest them. Now, though the mayor of a city may refuse to do his duty, it would be strange if one decent man among all the officers enumerated could not be found, especially as a refusal to act after notice is visited with a fine not exceeding $500; and, the right officer once found, citizens armed to the teeth could accompany him for the constitutional purpose of defending lawful authority, and, when called upon by the officer to arrest rioters refusing to disperse, could use all due force to accomplish the arrest. If the citizens should kill or wound any of the rioters in their endeavors to make arrests, they would be held guiltless, while the death or injury of one of the citizens would make all the rioters answerable for it.

This method of suppressing a riot does not appear to be an impracticable one. When, during the Southwestern strike of last year, the large railroad yards in St. Louis were filled by the Knights of Labor on the pretence of protecting them, the corporation might have called upon a friendly justice of the peace to undertake the duty of warning them away, and might have sent armed Pinkerton men with him. If the Pinkerton men were citizens of the State, their right to bear arms in such a case "could not be questioned," and, if citizens of another State, the Constitution of the United States would clothe them with the privileges of citizens of the State. In this way, without the delay and difficulty of getting special police licenses, the corporation would obtain a disciplined force acting under law. Throughout the Southwestern strike the Knights showed a wholesome fear of coming into conflict with the authorities of the United States, undoubtedly because they had been taught by experience that the United States could legally use force, and would use it if necessary. A few trials against armed bodies of men acting under the State law would give them such a respect for its civil authorities that they would welcome back the militia with joy.

SENATOR DAWES ON THE CRISIS.

SENATOR DAWES addressed the Middlesex Club in Boston on Saturday afternoon. With much vigor and earnestness he "arraigned" everybody who had been derelict in promoting the commercial interests of the nation, and especially its foreign trade, and more especially its trade with the countries south of us. He did not confine the arraignment to the Democratic party. On the contrary, he took a

broad, catholic view of the question, and ventured to predict that the next national election would be carried by the party which should offer the soundest platform of principles in regard to the reduction of the Treasury surplus and the extension of our commerce. New and profitable trade, he said, had been springing up among our sister republics on the American continent, but we were not getting it. Grand opportunities for the investment of capital had been opening in the Argentine Republic, but the great glutton, England, had monopolized them. She had also swallowed up the trade of Brazil and the west coast of South America, and even Germany had stepped in between us and the unratified treaty with Mexico, and, by means of a treaty of her own, had furnished a vantage ground for her own bankers and merchants in all the principal marts of that country. The contrast between those countries and our own in the commercial sense was shown in the startling fact that "of $420,000,000 of manufactures and other products such as we produce and are seeking market for, imported into those countries and consumed yearly, only about $30,000,000, or *one-fourteenth* part, come from the United States."

The Republican party, he continued, has been for a free ballot and a fair count, and for pensions for dependent soldiers, and "for a fair day's wages for a fair day's work," and for protection to American labor, and for honest money; but all this would not, in his opinion, suffice. It must meet the present crisis rather than past crises. What the nature of the present crisis is he did not explain, for, having led his hearers up to it with great intrepidity, he admonished them merely that the Republican party must give "a more vigorous and unflinching support to the new elements of political life and power brought into being by the new national conditions than these elements have yet received from any political party." A happy opportunity to connect the crisis and the remedy together was unfortunately lost, and we are left very much in the dark as to the Senator's notions of a method for lending a more vigorous support to the new elements of political life and power. We are only advised that European Powers, and especially England, are grabbing trade right and left which properly belongs to us, and that something must be done.

We think that Mr. Dawes has done remarkably well, and that if he were a member of a spelling-school, instead of the United States Senate, he would be very near the head of his class. A spelling-school does not require the exercise of the reasoning faculty, but only that of the memory. Mr. Dawes has a good memory for facts, and, if he improves his opportunities, he will no doubt be able to reason from cause to effect in commercial matters after a time. We propose now to give him one lesson, and the very simplest one we can think of, so that when he next addresses the Middlesex Club he need not leave his hearers gaping over the "new elements of political life and power," and wondering what they are and how they are to give them a more vigorous and unflinching support.

One of the chief products of the countries south of us is sugar, and of this we consume 2,500,000,000 pounds per annum. All but a small fraction of what we consume is imported from foreign countries, and mostly from the West Indies and South America. Sugar is selling now in the West India Islands at $1.65 to $1.80 per hundred pounds. The American duty on this kind of sugar ranges from $1.50 to $2.75 per hundred pounds. It would be quite within the limits of truth to say that the duty is upwards of *100 per cent. ad valorem*. The lowest grade produced in these countries is the muscovado or brown sugar of our boyhood, which constituted the bulk of the sugar consumed in the United States not many years ago. The best quality is the straw-colored, crystallized article produced on the plantations by the centrifugal process, which is preferred by many consumers to the white sugar of our refineries. Now, for every cargo of sugar sent from those countries to the United States in the way of trade, another cargo of equal size and weight must be sent to pay the custom-house charges on the first cargo. This is an understatement of the truth. To put it in another way, which is equally an understatement, every time the American sewing woman, or other Prisoner of Poverty, takes a lump out of her sugar-bowl to sweeten her tea, the Government takes out another of the same size for itself. This way of stating it may be objected to as sentimental. We will, therefore, not pursue it, but confine ourselves to the commercial aspects of the case, which interest the Senator from Massachusetts. A duty of 100 per cent. on an article of food in universal use is as great an impediment to trade as it is a monstrosity in morals. We affirm that this duty has been and is now maintained in the interest of what Mr. Dawes calls "protection to American labor," that it is part and parcel of the great tariff combination and ring, in which sugar-planters, and wool-growers, and salt-boilers, and steel-rail makers, and a hundred other trades have conspired successfully to get the advantage of their fellow-citizens in the battle of life.

We have cited the sugar duties, not because they are more objectionable than other protective duties—they are in fact less objectionable than many others and less monstrous in the percentage imposed, the duty on salt, for instance, being more than 200 per cent.—we have taken them for illustration and comment upon Mr. Dawes's diatribe on the sad state of trade with the countries south of us. We offer in conclusion the single suggestion that a law which requires two equal cargoes of sugar to be grown, and manufactured, and shipped to the United States in order to get one cargo past the custom-house is a detriment and an obstacle to trade with the sugar-producing countries, which must put us at a disadvantage with any competing nation that follows a more enlightened and liberal policy.

SECONDARY AND HIGHER EDUCATION IN SWEDEN.

ALL who have sympathies upon either side of the irrepressible conflict between the friends and the opponents of classical education will find the recent educational history of Sweden highly interesting. Nowhere else, probably, has the subject received more general attention from people, press, and Government, and nowhere else has the reform spirit been more vigorous and aggressive than in Sweden. It is not altogether easy to make out from the chaos of conflicting opinions and theories the actual trend of enlightened public sentiment; nor is it quite certain that this trend, even if it could be made out with perfect certainty for Sweden, would help us much in casting the pedagogical horoscope of the world at large. It may be, as often happens, that the commotion made by the reformers is out of proportion to their real strength and influence. It may be, too, that certain steps recently taken will be retraced, and that the past few years have been simply a period of unrest which is destined to subside and leave matters substantially as they were before. On the other hand, the opposite contingency is not altogether improbable. It is at least possible that the little northern kingdom is only the leader in a movement which will in time greatly modify both the universities and the educational ideals of Europe. This possibility lends additional interest to recent Swedish experiments and discussions.

The history above alluded to has lately been written in condensed form by H. Klinghardt, a German teacher, who has been at the pains to make an exhaustive study of his subject from the documents. His work, a thick pamphlet of 168 pages, is entitled 'Das höhere Schulwesen Schwedens und dessen Reform in modernem Sinne.' The author is an uncompromising opponent of what he calls the "mediæval education," and writes throughout in the tone of a partisan rather than of a judge. But his partisanship does not appear to be of such a character as to affect his competency as an investigator. He gives the facts upon both sides even when they are such as to cause him pain. We can, therefore, well afford to thank him for his facts, even while cherishing our own opinion of his "tendency," which may be summed up in the motto he has chosen from an official report written in July, 1885, by Louis de Geer, Chancellor of the Swedish Universities. The words run in translation thus:

"I am of the opinion that modern culture is slowly but irresistibly detaching itself from its immediate connection with the language and literature of the ancients, and is at the same time taking up into itself new and indispensable elements. And I believe, further, that the scheme of instruction in the schools should be gradually transformed into harmony with this process of development."

The secondary schools of Sweden offer at the present time three different lines of instruction, which may be called, in the terms of our familiar, though somewhat unfortunate, American nomenclature, the classical, the Latin, and the scientific. Each of these lines, when complete, extends over nine years. Some of the schools do work upon but one line, others upon two only, while many (sixty in a total of ninety-five) are professedly more or less imperfect in their equipment, and do not attempt to continue the work of the common schools for more than two, three, or five years. Of the thirty-five schools which are "complete," the majority provide instruction in all three of the above-named lines. When, now, we have added that the Latin line is simply an eclectic course, recently introduced, in which Greek is replaced by English, it will be apparent that the typical preparatory school of Sweden is an institution which combines in one building and under one management the Gymnasium and the Realschule of the Germans. Such an institution receives a boy from the common school at the age of nine or ten, and graduates him at the age of eighteen or

nineteen into the University or the Government School of Technology.

Upon any of the three lines of study the scholar has in his first year twenty-seven lessons per week; after that, either thirty or thirty-two. During the first three years he pursues simultaneously seven different subjects; after that eight, nine, or ten. During the first three years, also, the instruction is precisely the same upon all three lines, the divergence showing itself first in the fourth year, and becoming thereafter more and more marked. The scholar's weekly programme of lessons during these three years of uniformity is as follows: Religion, three lessons; Swedish language, five or six; German, six or seven; mathematics, four or five; natural science, two; history and geography, four or five; writing and drawing, three or two. From the end of the third year the instruction which is common to the three lines is as follows: Religion, two lessons weekly throughout the course; Swedish, four lessons weekly in the fourth year, three in the fifth, and two each year thereafter; history and geography, five lessons weekly in the fourth year, four in the fifth, and three each year thereafter. In his fourth year the scholar who plans to graduate upon the classical or Latin line takes up the study of Latin, of which he has then eight lessons per week for the next six years; his weekly pensum in German being at the same time diminished to four lessons in his fourth year, three in the fifth, and two in the sixth and seventh. After that he takes no more German. Of mathematics he has five lessons a week during his fourth and fifth years. Finally, in his fifth year he takes up French, of which he has either three or four weekly lessons for the next five years. In the sixth year the classical begins to diverge from the Latin line, the scholar upon the former taking up Greek, of which he has either seven or six lessons a week for the next four years. His pensum in mathematics also drops from five lessons to three, where it remains to the end. On the Latin line the scholar at the beginning of the sixth year takes up English, of which he has four weekly lessons during his sixth and seventh years, and two during the eighth and ninth. He has also somewhat more work in mathematics and in drawing than has the classical scholar. Of the scientific or "Real" line the characteristic features are these: English is taken up at the beginning of the fourth year, seven lessons a week being given to it in the fourth and fifth years, and three each year thereafter. In mathematics the scholar upon this line has five lessons during his fourth and fifth years, and seven thereafter. In natural science he has two lessons during his fourth and fifth years, thereafter six. Finally, he receives a little more instruction in French than is given on the other two lines.

From a pedagogical point of view the most interesting feature of this scheme of instruction is the prominent rôle played by the German language. It will be observed that in all three lines German is studied seven years, that it is pursued three years before any other language is taken up, and that during those years it constitutes the dominant study of the course. This arrangement is not due entirely to a conviction of the paramount importance of German in modern education, but in part at least to a theory that German rather than, for example, Latin, is the best "basis" for all future study in foreign languages. The plan has been in operation now for several years, and at a recent convention of Swedish school men at Jönköping, very general satisfaction was expressed with the results secured by this arrangement.

For the better understanding of all that this scheme of instruction signifies, and also of the reform projects that have lately been under discussion, a brief historical retrospect will be helpful. The law of 1859, which may be said to have given their characteristic form to the secondary schools of Sweden, provided that there should be two lines of instruction, a classical and a scientific, each lasting ten years. In the programme of instruction as determined by this law the two lines coincided during the first two years, and German, which was to be made the basis of subsequent language study, was begun in the second year. On the classical line Latin was taken up in the third year and pursued seven years, while Greek was begun in the fourth year and pursued six years. This state of affairs continued without important modification until 1869. The classical preparation was practically a *sine qua non* for admission to the universities. But by this time the world-wide agitation against the classics had begun to make itself strongly felt in Sweden, and in 1869, in obedience to the popular demand, a law was passed by which classical gymnasiasts were allowed to take English instead of Greek. This decree, which Herr Klinghardt thinks "worthy to be recorded with letters of gold in the history of pedagogy," gave rise to the third or Latin line above described. But the opponents of mediæval education did not stop here. In 1873 they brought it about that henceforth the study of Latin should be begun in the fourth year instead of the third, and that of Greek in the sixth year instead of the fourth. This last change was not universally consummated, however, until 1877. Subsequent efforts in the same general direction have been made, but thus far without success. Some of the reformers have not hesitated to announce as their programme the ultimate relegation of both the "dead" languages to the universities. But the majority have been disposed to content themselves, for the present at least, with much less radical proposals.

Before passing on to an account of these proposals, it will be of interest, perhaps, to see how the schools have been affected by this legislation. The following table gives the total number of students in the four upper classes (sixth to ninth years), in all the schools of the kingdom:

Year.	Classical Line.	Latin Line.	Scientific Line.
1873	1,746	642	349
1875	1,447	728	382
1877	1.261	1,035	670
1879	1,326	1,346	863
1881	1,408	1,652	944
1883	1,259	1,847	748

From these figures it appears that during the decade specified (later figures we have not at hand), the patrons of the classical line fell off by about one-third, while those of the Latin line trebled and those of the scientific line doubled. The universities still continue to exact Greek from students registering with the theological faculty, and from those who pursue philology with a view to becoming teachers. With this exception the graduates of the Latin course are admitted to all departments of the universities. Klinghardt is confident, more confident apparently than any positive indications seem to justify, that ere long Greek will quite cease to count as an element in general education, but will be looked upon as part of the professional training of preachers and philologists, and as such, like Hebrew and Sanskrit, relegated to the universities.

In 1881 a bill was introduced into the lower chamber of the Swedish Parliament recommending (1) that the "preliminary" examinations in Latin at the universities be discontinued; (2) that instruction in Latin in the secondary schools begin in the sixth year and continue four years; (3) that an optional course in Latin, not to exceed four lessons a week, be introduced in the last four years of the scientific line. The "preliminary" examination referred to in (1) is usually held at the end of the students' third semester of residence, when he is ready to enter upon his special professional course. It is a somewhat severe examination, and is required of all students. To drop it would mean practically the opening of the university to graduates of the scientific line. The second recommendation contemplated a further abridgment of the time given to Latin, and the third was evidently intended to make the Latin line unnecessary, and so to pave the way for its discontinuance. These propositions were debated in Parliament at great length. The reports of the numerous speeches pro and con, as condensed by Klinghardt from the archives, and the picture he is able to present of the representatives of the Swedish people sitting from half-past seven until midnight on two successive days, carrying on a warm and able discussion of such questions as these, and doing so in the evident conviction (several times expressed in words) that the eyes of the nation were upon them—all this is calculated to awaken curious emotions in the breast of an American. The result of the debate was that the bill was carried by a vote of 85 "moderns" to 38 "mediævalists." The bill as passed was then turned over to the first chamber, where it was defeated by a vote of 72 to 36.

Connected with the recommendations of the second chamber was a request to the Ministry for the appointment of a royal commission, whose duty it should be to investigate the whole subject of higher education in Sweden, and to make such recommendations as the emergency might seem to require. This Commission was constituted in 1882, and went zealously to work. It consisted of fourteen members, ten of whom were teachers either in the schools or in the universities. The report of the Commission, in four volumes, was handed in in midsummer, 1884. It recommended, among many other things, that the preliminary examination in Latin should require from students of law and medicine, also from students of economics and of many other subjects taught in the philosophical faculty, only a rudimentary knowledge of the grammar and an amount of previous reading equal to one book of Cæsar. This modicum of Latin they proposed to have furnished by the schools on the scientific line. On the other hand, they recommended that the Latin line be dropped, and that on the classical line there be no diminution of the time given to Latin and no exemption from Greek. The theory of this recommendation was to strengthen the classical line intensively while weakening its prestige, by causing it to be known as the special propædeutic of preachers and philologists, and advertising the scientific line as the proper thing for a general education.

On the reception of this report in 1884, it was at once transmitted to the universities and the "consistories" (a name given to the educational council of a diocese). These took several months to consider the matter, and then, by large majorities, returned an emphatic negative to all the essential recommendations of the Commission. The Chancellor of the Universities, De Geer, whose opinion was likewise asked, took intermediate ground between the schools and the Commission, making some concessions to the prejudices of each. But his real attitude can doubtless be divined from the words quoted from him at the beginning of this article. And thus matters rest at the present time. There is reason to suppose that another attempt will be made by the partisans of reform to secure legis-

lation in their interest from the present Parliament.

BRADFORD'S INDEX TO CLEMINCIN'S COMMENTARY ON DON QUIXOTE.—II.

YALE COLLEGE, March 26, 1887.

WERE we to go on following the alphabet the result would be a pamphlet, and we close after some remarks on two other passages to which attention was called in our previous review of 'Don Quixote' (*Nation*, Dec. 17, 24, 1885).

Duelos y quebrantos.—Spaniards are extraordinarily fond of epithets and insinuations which require a dictionary to explain them, and which they almost never do. For instance, [*asomar*] *por los cerros de Úbeda*, [to peep] over the hills of Úbeda, is a strong antiphrasis—*point du tout*—because (why don't Clemencín explain it?) Úbeda is situated on a sharp bluff in the midst of a wide plain, hence *cannot* be looked over. So they say, "Yes, I'll do that, as [sure as peep] over the hills of U.," meaning "I won't do it at all."

Now, for their dishes they had three humorous epithets. One was a "duelos y quebrantos" meal, meaning "sorrows and wailings" (*quebranto* never means material breaking, only a moral one), to be eaten on one of their meagre days, made up of a *boiled lamb's head* with the brains, as the Lazarillo de Tormes informs us (1553), and Camillo di Borghese (afterwards Paul V.), in his Spanish itinerary of 1594. Another more cheerful dish, which Sanchica set before the smartly dressed page who came to announce her father's elevation to the governorship of the "insula," was called *merced de Dios*—God's grace—composed of fried bacon and eggs, with honey, as we are told expressly in the 'Pícara Justina,' published in 1605 (p. 271 of the Mad. ed. 1735). A third epithet was and is applied to a "picked-up dinner," which they regard as "doing penance" to partake of; so they say, "Come and take pot-luck with us to-day"—*Venga V. á hacer penitencia con nosotros hoy.*

Now, the first or Manchegan *apodo* has never been clearly understood in Spain or elsewhere to this day. The conjectures about it may be divided into three distinct epochs.

The first epoch (1612–1732) characterized it as "bacon and eggs," confounding it with Justina's *merced de Dios.* Our earliest translator, Shelton, declares in 1612 that the Knight ate "collops and eggs" on Saturdays. This happy hit crossed the Channel, and in 1614 Cesar Oudin decided it *was* collops and eggs (*des œufs et du lard*); Franciosini, at Rome, put the same in his dictionary in 1620 (*carne secca con uova*); and Oudin, again, in his excellent 'Tesoro' of 1621, robbed bodily by Victor, 1609 (O.'s 1st ed. was 1607), said that he had partaken of it at Valencia in 1610. But since it was a dish of Castile and La Mancha alone, as Borghese tells us, one suspects a little *broma* on the part of Cæsar in Spain. Then Motteux, in 1700, guesses it was "scraps and penance"—not a bad guess; while Sobrino, five years later, with a French grimace, opines for *soupe aux pois.* The next year, 1706, our London Capt. Stevens reverts to "collops and eggs," adding naïvely, "because it is reckon'd a sorry dish for poor people, or only for a need."

This achieved, the era of Academical dictionaries dawned on the world, and the second period in the history of our christening was inaugurated by their folio of 1732, whereby it must for ever after be conceded that "sorrows and wailings" was only a Manchegan euphemism for an "Omelet of Eggs and Brains." Some of the latter were needed to account for the exile of the collops of bacon, but as academicians were then all "Old Christians," without vestige of Jew or Moor in their blood, the omission was, on the whole, acceptable. This decision went on in subsequent editions, 1780, '83, '91, 1803, finding great favor with all but "Marranos," who ought to have asked them for *albricias*—and was obeyed in England by Pineda (1740) and Del Pino (1763), albeit Baretti (1778) would not go beyond "sorrows and troubles."

As the initiator of a third epoch (1797-1884), up rises Pellicer in 1797, one of the orthodox sages of Calle de Leon (Acad. of Hist.), and brings out of the fashionable presses of Gabriel de Sancha a superb edition of the 'Quixote' in five large volumes, of which one of our copies is on large thick paper. What does this new phenomenon do but tell his neighbors of the Calle Valverde that they are all wrong, and have been for sixty-five years, that it was no *omelet* at all that Don Alonso Quixano ate on Saturdays, but an *olla*, a ragout, a stew, with a long story about the farmers of La Mancha losing their sheep mysteriously, like Pathelin's draper, the remnants of which were sold cheap and served up as a *pot-au-feu* on meagre day, causing the groans and "breakings" aforesaid. This was deemed satisfactory to the academics, although the connection between an omelet and a stew was not clear, but after a long session, lasting from 1797 through the Peninsular war till 1817, the whole note of Don Antonio was adopted and inserted bodily into the new Dictionary without a hint as to its source or the reasons for their own stultification. Now, where, in the name of all that is honest, did Don Juan Antonio Pellicer y Saforcada trump up his new legend? When we once asked the question of a group of Madrid *literati*, who, seated on barrels and boxes in the trastienda of Murillo's bookstore in the Calle Alcalá, No. 18, used to discourse of history and letters, the only answer vouchsafed us by Sancho-Rayon, he of the 'Documentos Inéditos,' was, ¡ *Qué c——jo in qué ocho cuartos!* which, being mildly interpreted, is: *Que diable!*

Inquisicion (La).—Véase *Hermandad (La Santa)*, What did the "Fraternity" founded in 1476 over all Spain and reorganized in 1486 have to do with the "Inquisition" founded at Seville in 1480, but not put in operation till 1483? And by whom was it called *Santa?* By the people, doubtless, for the official laws regulating it and published at Alcalá in 1503 and 1528 never call it otherwise than "La Hermandad" (the Fraternity), and never once mention the Inquisition. It is true that *in time* the Brotherhood, which was only intended to be a rural mounted police at the orders of the Alcaldes, to suppress brigandage, and which still exists as the excellent Guardia Civil Corps, *did* obey the commands of the Inquisition, through the fanaticism of the Alcaldes; but what man or body, civil or religious, in Spain, from the King to the herdsman, did not do the same in the sixteenth and following centuries?

But there *was* in Cervantes an occasion for a note on the Inquisition, of which Clemencín was profoundly ignorant, for he vouchsafes us no reference thereto, nor does he even restore the text mangled by the *Holy* Office. In the Second Part of D. Q., which came out in 1615, Cervantes had written (chap. 36, f. 140 *b* of the original ed.), "*Y aduierta Sancho, que las obras de caridad que se hazen tibia y floxamente, no tienen merito, ni valen nada*" (And take heed, Sancho, that acts of charity performed in a lukewarm and indifferent spirit possess no merit and are valueless). And so in the year 1632 (seventeen years later!), when the Inquisitor-General, Antonio Zapata, published at Seville his monster folio 'Index Expurgatorius,' there appeared on p. 980 of the *Appendix* (showing that it was one of the last things discovered) the following insertion: "MIGVEL Cervantes Saavedra. Segunda parte de Don Quixote cap. 36. al medio, borrese, *las obras de caridad*" (etc., as above—"M. C. S. Second part of D. Q. chap. 36, half way down, *expunge*, acts of charity," *etc.*). It is evident that future editors would have to plaster the text considerably to produce a fair cicatrix of the mangled edges; but no, their history had taught them many expedients, and therefore we find in all subsequent *Spanish* editions the passage is perfectly repaired by simply going further than the pious Dominicans, and, leaving out "*y aduierta Sancho, que*," closing what precedes by a full stop. Thus the naughty reflection, applicable then as now to nine-tenths of the Peninsular alms-givers, was so healed that posterity, and, of course, Clemencín (V. 240*), never noticed the omission. We first learned of it by reading the 'Index' itself. Somebody (Aribau) says it is in that of 1619, but there was no Spanish Index of that year, and the one Turrettin reprinted at Geneva was that of Madrid, 1612, issued *three years before* the Second Part of the 'Quixote' came out. We can assure the interested that we are exact, since our collection possesses every original Index Expurgatorius ever published, from 1544, and the Spanish ones from 1551, to 1844-8—the which are accessible to any one in New Haven, and in no other *one* place in all Christendom, not even in Bonn.

There should have been, then, in Bradford's 'Index,' an article under *Inquisicion* and also *Indice Expurgatorio*, to complete Clemencín, the latter of which might also have included the general expurgation of Cervantes's *works* found only in the Lisbon Index of 1624, fol. (pp. 905-907—four full columns). But, "Inquisición, chitón!"

W. I. KNAPP.

THE PEACE OF EUROPE.

PARIS, March 23, 1887.

A WAR panic has agitated all Europe during the last few weeks. It seems as if the gates of the temple of Janus were already opened. Now that the danger—at least the imminent danger—seems over, it is not inappropriate to draw the moral of the late events and to look for the causes of such a great emotion. The origin of the panic was the speech pronounced by the Chancellor of northern Germany on the question of the military Septennate. Prince Bismarck drew a picture of Europe which was far from reassuring. He represented France as preparing for revenge, though her successive administrations were ready enough to give pacific assurances to Germany. He intimated that though the majority of the French nation was not inclined to war, this majority would sooner or later be led by a minority of agitators. The history of France showed that such minorities had always decided her fate; the provinces were governed by Paris, and Paris fell from time to time into the hands of a revolutionary mob. It also often happened that a Government, feeling itself weak and on the point of being overturned, tried to avoid its fate by throwing the country in some adventure. In fact, Prince Bismarck seemed to consider a war with France as inevitable. He could not name the day, the year, or the occasion, but France was not reconciled to the Treaty of Frankfort; not a single statesman had dared to accept the loss of Alsace as one of those facts which separate the present from the past by an eternal boundary; the French people continued to entertain hopes and ambitions which could only be satisfied with war. And what would not a new war be between two nations both strong, both brave, animated with irreconcilable aspirations? Prince Bismarck said, with his usual frankness, the war of 1870 was mere child's play compared to the future war. He recalled the invasions of

*To restore, put a comma after *prêcio*, seventh line, and insert as above: *y aduierta Sancho*, etc.

Germany under the First Napoleon, he showed the necessity for the conqueror to inflict wounds which could not be healed in a lifetime. He urged in consequence the necessity for the German people to increase the military force of Germany, and he dissolved the Parliament which would not give him the military Septennate.

The German people answered his call, and the military Septennate is voted. I remember the time when it was said in France, before the vote of the last *plébiscite*, "L'Empire, c'est la paix." Now we hear it said every day and by everybody, "The Septennate is peace." When you try to analyze this sentence, which passes for an axiom, you feel somewhat embarrassed. It is difficult to understand in reality that peace is more assured because the German army will be increased by 40,000 men, and because Prince Bismarck disposes of a more complacent majority. As the alarm was probably too great six weeks ago, the present confidence is probably too great. There are some general features in the situation of Europe which are far from reassuring. First of all we must notice that the best arguments which are found for the preservation of peace are preparations for war: the famous maxim, "Si vis pacem, para bellum," has never been obeyed as it is now. Our peace is really an armed peace: millions of men are in arms in Europe, all ready at an hour's notice to destroy each other. France is thinking of celebrating in two years the centenary of the famous year 1789, "l'année des principes," as it is sometimes called. But what, a philosopher may say—what has been the result of the great movement which prepared the French Revolution, the abolition of all privileges, of all the abuses of the Middle Ages? Where have the great principles of "liberty, equality, fraternity" led mankind after a hundred years? What has been the result of parliamentary government, of constitutional guarantees, of the development of the press, of the constant increase of knowledge, of popular education? The future of all civilized countries lies hidden in a few solitary wills; the power of a few men for good or for evil is practically as great as ever could have been the power of Louis XIV. or of Napoleon. It is idle to say that these solitary wills can only accomplish great objects if they act in accordance with the great social and political necessities of the time; the same could have been said of Louis XIV. and of Napoleon. Napoleon III. succeeded in liberating Italy; he did not succeed when he attempted to prevent the formation of German unity. He had it, nevertheless, in his power to plunge France into a war the effects of which will be felt by generations to come.

In the last century and in our own, the relations of the nations of Europe were subject to treaties which were known in all their parts. The treaties of Vienna, made after the downfall of Napoleon, were, during the greater part of a century, the foundation of the European peace. All the sovereigns and all the nations were bound to protect their stipulations. We now hear constantly of an alliance between the two German empires, of a treaty between Northern Germany and Austria-Hungary. We know, by the declarations of the chancellors of these two Empires, that such a treaty was signed at the time of the journey of Prince Bismarck to Vienna; we know that the treaty has just been renewed for a certain term. We are sometimes told that this treaty has a purely defensive character; but who knows exactly the terms and the stipulations of this important document except the two Emperors and their two chancellors? In what eventualities must Austria-Hungary join her army to that of the Northern Empire? It is often said that the two empires guarantee to each other, against all aggressors, their existing frontiers. Is this quite certain? Has no difference been made between the provinces of Austria which belonged to the ancient confederation, and those which were merely the acquisitions of the Hapsburgs? Can Germany look with the same eye on Austria proper, on Bohemia, on Moravia, and on some other provinces, as Bosnia or Herzegovina? The new Emperor, accepting all the obligations of the imperial dignity, does not probably consider himself obliged to increase these obligations; there are in the Balkan peninsula provinces whose fate is abandoned to the future. It is therefore quite possible to admit the eventuality of a struggle between Austria-Hungary and Russia which would be confined to provinces that have never been under the imperial sway. The only eventuality foreseen may have been the case in which victory would bring the conqueror into some of the ancient provinces of Austria and too near the centre of Europe.

To the uncertainties which surround the mutual obligations of Austria-Hungary and of Northern Germany, add the uncertainties attached to the relations of these two empires and of Russia. Here we are entering a *terra incognita*. The relations of these courts do not always take the character of ordinary diplomatic documents; it may even be said that imperial letters have assumed the place of treaties and of conventions in the most important matters, since the Emperor of Russia has been, so to speak, his own chancellor. There has really been no successor to Prince Gortchakoff; M. de Giers cannot be said to hold the position so long occupied by the Prince, and in other times by Nesselrode. The present Emperor has taken the device of Louis XIV., "Le roi gouverne par lui-même." He assumed power under the most difficult circumstances. His absolute authority is constantly undermined by the Nihilist propagandism, and influenced by the passions of the Panslavist party. He commands and obeys at the same time. He was led into the Eastern war by the Panslavist party, and discovered that corruption had entered the War Office as it had every branch of the administration. Himself honest, pure-minded, animated by the best sentiments, he finds himself separated from a devoted people by a host of incompetent officials. He can always appeal to the devotion of the people, but the Russian people is still an inorganic and unconscious force; and the last war against Turkey showed that, in many senses, Russia is still "un colosse aux pieds d'argile." Since Plevna great efforts have been made for the improvement of the army, and Russia has become more formidable in a military point of view. Nobody could prophesy what would be the result of a struggle between Russia and Austria. It seemed at one moment as if this struggle were very near. After the deposition of Prince Alexander there was in Hungary, in Austria, even in Northern Germany, a sort of *tollé* against Russia. England headed the movement, making an appeal to all the Powers. Austria, Italy answered her call, and we saw for a moment the signs of a coalition against Russia.

Russia, if we are well informed, before entering into a new war, made a solemn appeal to Berlin; direct communications took place between the Emperor Alexander and his uncle. We have seen the result. Prince Bismarck threw cold water on the friends of Battenberg, of "unser lieber Held," and Battenberg sank out of sight. The Bulgarian question remains, however, and the Bulgarians cannot all be sent to Darmstadt. Prince Bismarck had good reasons for abandoning the young German prince who had for a moment all the sympathies of Germany; his great, his constant preoccupation, is the preservation of peace between Austria and Russia. He knows that such a war would perforce become a war between Germany and Russia—a calamitous, long, endless war, into which France would be drawn by an inexorable fatality. Even with the help of Austria-Hungary, even with the help of Italy, it would not be a very easy task for the new German Empire to protect its long frontiers at the same time on the east and on the west. The gains in a successful war would be little, compared with the possible losses in case of a defeat. It is obviously the duty of the German Chancellor to preserve the equilibrium in the East; to prevent Russia and Austria from giving offence to each other; to submit, as much as possible, all Eastern questions to European arbitration. This is not easy: it is the labor of Sisyphus. Prince Bismarck is constantly met by the passions of the Panslavist party; by the passions of the Hungarians, of the Slavs; by the Russian press; by the anti-German influences which are always at work in the great Empire of the North. The equilibrium which he maintains by his efforts is but an unstable equilibrium; a Nihilist plot, a caprice, an accident, an interference of England, may destroy in a minute the work of months and of years. Russia at times appears to us like a chaos, without anybody to say "Fiat lux." We have a dim suspicion that there are in this extraordinary country unexhausted treasures of devotion, of fanaticism, of hidden strength. We sometimes admire the courage of the men who defended Sebastopol and who took Plevna; and sometimes we suspect that Europe is threatened with a new invasion of the barbarians, and that Oriental ignorance may swamp Occidental culture. There is something almost alarming even in the Russian literature, which has recently become more accessible to us. The spirit of Gogol, of Turgeneff, of Tolstoi, of Dostoyevsky, is a spirit different from ours; we admire them all the more that we do not quite understand them.

If Occidental Europe were firmly united, if all its members were working harmoniously, there would not be much danger to our own civilization and culture; but the seeds of discord which were sown by the Second Empire have borne their fruit. There is no longer any solidarity in Europe. "L'Europe, quelle est cette femme?" asked Forcade many years ago. The question can now be asked with more reason. The law of nations has become uncertain; there are no fixed, no permanent, no well-defined alliances. The nations are in arms; people still cry peace, but there is no peace. After 1815 the sovereigns formed what they called the Holy Alliance; they all united in defence of monarchical and conservative principles. In our day we have seen Arnim fall into disgrace because he favored the monarchical cause in France; the French Communists are ready to join hands with the most absolute sovereign in Europe; and all nations look upon war and force as the "ultima ratio."

Correspondence.

ANGLO-SAXON PIRATING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Arthur Gilman would be quite right in saying that Englishmen ought to be ashamed of making disparaging remarks about American "pirating," were it not for one very essential consideration. Englishmen are not collectively responsible for the pirating, while Americans are. We have, through our representatives in Congress, deliberately and repeatedly refused to adopt a law which would protect the rights of English and American authors; of course, England would at any time have welcomed and reciprocated such action.

There is no country in the world where the people are so virtuous that no one can be found

to avail himself of an opportunity for profit which is sanctioned by law, for fear of infringing on what are in equity the rights of some other person. It is idle, therefore, to express either censure or surprise at the fact that there are publishers in England or America who print books which the law makes public property; what rightly excites indignation is that a great people should deliberately uphold such injustice.

U.

BALTIMORE, April 2, 1887.

TRANSFORMATION OF SURNAMES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A case of transformation of surnames once fell under my notice which interested me. A M. Dupont came, some thirty years ago, from France to Canada, and there brought up a family of children. Two of the sons, when grown, came to "the States," and one of them promptly changed his name to *Dubridge*, alleging that nobody could speak his name. The other brother, in a distant city, retained the old form.

E. A. STRONG.

MICHIGAN, March 28, 1887.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Speaking of changes in name reminds me of a Lithuanian Jew by the name of Hitchcox! But how did he obtain this un-Jewish name? Very simply. In Europe he was called Yitschak (=Isaac). Owing to the inability of the Lithuanians to pronounce *y* before *e* or *i*, and their confusion of sibilants (*ts* into *ch*, so they will say, "Cats the catch in the kitsen"), it meets us in the form Itch-chak. Our Yankees, of course, change the rough *ch* into the smooth *k*, making it Itchcok, and from this to Hitchcox is but one step.

W. WILLNER.

YALE COLLEGE, April 1, 1887.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Like your correspondent in last week's *Nation*, I was reminded, by the previous article on the transformation of names, of the case quoted by Mr. Ed. Livingston in his 'Answer to Mr. Jefferson,' on the famous subject of "The New Orleans Batture," and perhaps some of your readers may be amused by the correct version of Mr. Livingston's statement, as given on page 80 of the 'Answer,' printed in Philadelphia by William Fry, 1813.

In speaking of the "ingenious process" by which Mr. Jefferson derives the word *apposition* from the Latin *incrementum latens*, through translation by Theophilus into Greek, and retranslation into Latin, Mr. Livingston quotes the following instance in which this process was successfully applied to effect a change of name:

"An unfortunate Scotchman, whose name was *Feyerston*, was obliged, in pursuit of fortune, to settle among some Germans in the western part of New York. They made a much better *proschósis* than Theophilus did; they translated him *literally* into German and called him *Feurstein*. On his return to an English neighborhood, his new acquaintances discovered that *Feurstein* in German meant *Flint* in English. They retranslated instead of restoring his name, and the descendants of *Feyerston* go by the name of *Flint* to this day. I ought, however, to except one of his grandsons, who settled at the Acadian coast, on the Mississippi, whose name underwent the fate of the rest of the family. He was called, by a literal translation into French, '*Pierre à fusil*'; and his eldest son, returning to the family clan, underwent another *proskusis*, and was called *Peter Gun*."

A. M.

PHILADELPHIA, April 4, 1887.

Notes.

WE cull from the *Publishers' Weekly* some spring announcements not already made in these columns. *D. Appleton & Co.*:—'Roundabout to Moscow,' by John Bell Bouton; 'Progress in China and Japan,' by Gen. J. H. Wilson; 'John Sevier, the Commonwealth Builder,' by J. R. Gilmore; volumes v and vi of Lecky's 'History of England'; and the 'Life and Letters of Charles Darwin,' by his son Francis. *Estes & Lauriat*:—George Eliot's Complete Works, uniform with this firm's Carlyle; 'Social Customs," "a complete manual of American etiquette," by Florence Howe Hall; Miss Parloa's 'Kitchen Companion'; 'The Early Tudors,' by Justin McCarthy; 'Latin Hymns,' translated by John Ward Hayes, LL.D.; and a new edition of Starr King's 'White Hills,' with "photogravure reproductions from nature of some of the most noted changes in the mountains." *Fords, Howard & Hulbert*:—'Mr. Beecher's War Speeches, in England and America (1863)'; 'Life Thoughts,' compiled by Edna Dean Proctor; and 'Comforting Thoughts,' compiled by Irene H. Ovington. *Ginn & Co.*:—'The Art of Reading Latin: How to Teach It,' by Prof. Wm. G. Hale of Cornell. *Harper & Bros.*:—'Random Recollections,' by the late Henry B. Stanton; a 'Memoir of Charles Reade,' by Compton and Charles Liston Reade; 'Ancient Cities of the New World,' by Désiré Charnay; 'Animal Life in the Sea and on the Land,' by Sarah Cooper; 'Modern Italian Poets,' by W. D. Howells, with portraits; 'The Russian Church and Russian Dissent,' by A. F. Heard; 'Horsemanship for Ladies,' by Theodore H. Mead; and 'The Negro Troops in the War of the Rebellion,' by Geo. W. Williams. *W. H. Harrison, jr., Publishing Co.*:—'Orthoepy, the Science of Pronunciation,' by Prof. E. B. Warman of the Chicago Theological Seminary. *Henry Holt & Co.*:—J. A. Symonds's 'The Catholic Reaction' (in his "Renaissance in Italy"); 'Greek Literature,' by Thomas S. Perry; Doyle's 'The Puritan Colonies in America'; and Thomas Moore's 'Epicurean.' *Houghton, Mifflin & Co.*:—'Grant versus the Record, from the Rapidan to Appomattox Court-House,' by Carswell McClellan, formerly on the staff of Gens. Meade and Humphreys. *Hubbard Bros.*:—A Life of Henry Ward Beecher, by Joseph Howard, jr. (a subscription book). *D. Lothrop & Co.*:—'Life among the Germans,' by Louise Parry. *Macmillan & Co.*:—'Memoir of Sir Peter Scratchley,' by C. Kinloch Cooke; 'England under the Angevin Kings,' by Kate Norgate; 'A History of England for Beginners,' by Arabella Buckley; 'The Privy Council,' by Prof. A. V. Dicey; 'Charles Lamb's Letters,' edited in two volumes by the Rev. Alfred Ainger; 'An Easter Vacation in Greece,' by John Edwin Sandys; 'Songs and Ballads of Tragic Life,' by George Meredith; 'The Song of the Nibelung,' translated by Alfred E. Foster-Barham; and 'Romantic Love and Personal Beauty,' by Henry T. Finck. *Porter & Coates*:—'Horse-breeding Recollections,' by Count Lehndorff. *Charles Scribner's Sons*:—The first part of Thomas Stevens's 'Round the World on a Bicycle'; 'Essentials of Perspective,' by Prof. L. W. Miller; and 'Science of Thought,' by Max Müller. *Chas. C. Soule*:—'Index to Legal Periodical Literature,' by Leonard A. Jones, on the plan of Poole's Index. *Charles L. Webster & Co.*:—'Life of Pope Leo XIII.,' by the Rev. Dr. Bernard O'Reilly; 'The Genesis of the Civil War,' the Story of Sumter, by Gen. S. W. Crawford; and 'Reminiscences of Gen. Winfield Scott Hancock,' by his widow—all subscription books.

Messrs. Nicolay and Hay, in addition to the Life of Lincoln now appearing in the *Century*, will publish through the Century Company the complete works of the President. "These will fill some three to five octavo volumes, including his speeches, addresses, state papers, his public letters, his private correspondence (a great part of which is up to this time unpublished), his official opinions and memoranda upon some of the most important events of the war, and some very curious and interesting miscellaneous pieces. In connection with his correspondence will be printed many hitherto unpublished letters from prominent persons, which are necessary to a full understanding of Mr. Lincoln's own letters. The works will be accompanied with elaborate notes, historical and explanatory."

We understand that a work on 'Roman Excavations since 1870,' by Prof. R. Lanciani, may be expected in the fall, Houghton, Mifflin & Co. being the publishers.

Thomas Whittaker & Co., London, have in press a translation of Chaplain Koch's 'Prince Alexander of Battenberg: his Life and Reign in Bulgaria'; 'The Jubilee of George III., Oct. 25, 1809,' compiled from authentic sources by Thomas Preston; and 'Technical School and College Buildings,' by E. C. Robins—a quarto of 250 pages, with 114 illustrations.

Almost every phase of Franklin's varied genius and public usefulness is manifest in the second volume of his collected works as edited by Mr. John Bigelow (Putnams). Here is the famous supposititious "Speech of Polly Baker," assiduous multiplier of her kind out of wedlock—a pure piece of "copy-making" by a journalistic wag and social satirist. The philosopher appears in the numerous letters relating to electricity, one of which discusses its value as applied to paralysis; in the letter to Jared Eliot, February 13, 1750, which records Franklin's discovery (in 1743) that our northeast Atlantic coast storms begin to leeward—*i. e.*, at the South; or in the letter to Peter Collinson, telling how Franklin rode beside an infant whirlwind endeavoring to cut it with his whip till it outstripped him. For the same correspondent he draws a discouraging picture of the quality of the German immigrants to Pennsylvania in the middle of the last century, apprehending that with all their virtues they may swamp the American commonwealth. The statesman stands out in the Plan of Union for the Colonies in 1754, and the ancillary plan for settling two English colonies between the Ohio and Lake Erie, as a barrier to French and Indian invasion. Mr. Bigelow has profited by our suggestion to make his table of contents briefly analytical. In another volume we hope he will have the courage to go further, and vary the running-title of the odd folios according to the topic.

The second division of Mr. A. Featherman's "Social History of the Races of Mankind" treats of 'Papuo- and Malayo-Melanesians' (London: Trübner & Co.). His first volume, which was devoted to the Aramæans, has already been noticed in the *Nation*, and certain errors of statement therein pointed out. These errors were connected with the ancient history; in the present volume the author deals entirely with modern material, drawing his information from the works of travellers and governmental reports. He has collected a vast number of details about the Pacific Islanders which may serve as material for social and religious history. It is a merit of the work that it does not attempt to make theories, but sets down the simple facts in orderly arrangement and without comment. At the end of each section, the author gives a list of authorities, but in the body of the book does not refer to the sources whence he draws his particular statements; perhaps the large number of minute details would make a citation of sources impossible. It is only in the preface that the author speaks of his theory of social growth, and says sharp things of Darwinism, Christianity, and the English Parliament; but this does not diminish the value of the body of the book, supposing his details to be all correct.

The New York Shakespeare Society has pub-

lished the second and concluding part of its 'Digesta Shakespeareana' compiled under the direction of Mr. Appleton Morgan. It is called a "topical index" of English Shaksperiana exclusive of literary criticism. The selection and arrangement are both somewhat curious. "Other Poets," for instance, is an absurd title, but why place Ford under it and not Webster, and why is the short list practically monopolized by "The Mermaid Séries"? It is noticeable that the references to the editor's own works are 41, being exceeded in number only by those to Halliwell-Phillips's; while Furnivall gets 7, Dyce 9, R. G. White 20, Whipple 1, Dowden 1, Wright 1, Symonds 18, etc. Such a scholar as Daniel is not mentioned at all. These figures speak for themselves. The work is to be supplemented by an index of foreign titles set to these same unskilful headings.

Iron and coal form the chief topics of vol. xv of the Tenth Census, 'Mining Industries of the United States,' prepared under the direction of Prof. Raphael Pumpelly, the precious metals being expressly excluded. The illustrations, maps, sections, tables, and graphic statistics are most abundant, and the amount of detail in the text enormous. At the end we have a Directory of Bituminous Coal Mines, and one of Iron Ore Mines, and an Index to Mining Industries, by States and otherwise. An infrequent if not novel device is the dividing of each page of text into six equal bands or strata, indicated by *a b c d e f* in black letters in the margin, for the sake of facilitating references from the index.

Nos. 37 and 38 in the series of little volumes known as "Questions of the Day" (G. P. Putnam's Sons) consist of 'American State Constitutions, a Study of their Growth,' by Henry Hitchcock; and 'The Inter-State Commerce Act, an Analysis of its Provisions,' by John R. Dos Passos. The first of these is an address delivered before the New York State Bar Association in January last, in which the author pointed out, in an instructive manner, a variety of interesting facts in the development of our constitutional systems. One of the best parts of the address is the account of the changes that have gone on as to the appointment of the judges: "In 1800 there were fifteen States in this Union. . . . In no one of those States were judges then elected by the people. . . . In 1886 . . . in twenty-three States all judicial officers are elected by popular vote." The writer gives his own opinion in favor of the method which exists under the national Constitution and in eight of the States, that of appointment by the Executive and confirmation by the Senate or a Council. The little volume of Mr. Dos Passos presents the text of the Inter-State Commerce Act, and some analysis and illustration of its provisions. It is a timely and convenient book.

In 'The Game of Draw-Poker' (White, Stokes & Allen) Mr. John W. Keller sets forth much sound doctrine on a subject as to which much heresy is rife. The noble game of draw-poker, the chief gift of the Argonauts of '49 to mankind, has of late become overlaid with monstrous variations—"skips," "blazes," the introduction of the "joker," and a profusion of "bucks" and "jack-pots." Mr. Keller has seized the fundamental idea of this truly American game, that its essential principle is freedom of choice—in other words, an option to play or not to play is allowed at every stage of the game. We could wish that he had elaborated this principle a little more fully and dwelt on it a little more firmly. When it is once rightly apprehended, the pernicious "jack-pot" is doomed. In the main Mr. Keller's explanation of the game and advice for its playing are excellent. Like most other recent writers about poker, he feels it necessary to reprint Gen. Schenck's celebrated summary of the game. We are surprised that so conservative a man as Mr. Keller shows himself to be in this little book, should give up any of his few pages to so pestilent an innovation as "Progressive Poker."

A pretty pamphlet on 'The Homing of Dogs,' or the faculty of returning to their old haunts from a great distance without the aid of observation or memory, has been issued by W. R. Lord of Wollaston, Mass., who asks for instances additional to those he has collected.

The new catalogue of Princeton College past and present has just been published, and makes an octavo of 240 pages. Six hundred names have been added since the last issue, and a great number of corrections and changes have been made. The surviving alumni exceed 3,200. Prof. Henry C. Cameron, the compiler (now as for the past twenty years) bespeaks coöperation in perfecting this record. From the material side, we venture to suggest that the typography is not abreast of the times. The cost of the catalogue is, indeed, borne by a private individual; but it is taste, not cost, which we have in mind.

The April number of the *Swiss Cross* makes a very attractive appearance. The contents are interesting in many ways, and there are two more articles on amateur photography. One of these shows how to imitate old paintings, and offers some effective examples reproduced by "process."

The last Bulletin of the Société de Géographie contains an interesting description by M. Janikowski, a Polish explorer, of the Island of Fernando Po and its inhabitants. The Spanish garrison, a few traders, and 145 Cuban patriots, victims of the last insurrection, constitute the white population. The negroes are divided into the "gentlemen de couleur" and the aborigines. The former, the town blacks, are very much inferior both in intelligence and morality to the latter. Poisoning, for instance, is so common among them that at least half of the deaths are due to this cause. The natives, known as Bubis, differ materially from every other African race both in appearance and customs. They number about 30,000 and have a regularly organized government, consisting of a king, a council of the chiefs of the villages, and a militia in which all the men capable of bearing arms are enrolled. There is also a police force which maintains order and punishes the crimes of murder, assaults on travellers, and theft. The Bubis have neither idols nor fetish, their religion being merely a belief in a good and a bad spirit. Lieut. Gouin, resident at Nam-Dinh, contributes some notes on the commercial resources of Tonkin, which he does not rate very highly, as well as an elaborate account of the mountainous zone lying between Annam and the valley of the Mekong, inhabited by a semi-independent race called Muongs. The maps accompanying this number are of the river Ogowe on the west coast of Africa.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for February opens with a paper, by Dr. John Murray, on the total land rainfall and its relations to the annual discharge of rivers. The amount of rainfall is estimated at 29,350 cubic miles; South America receiving by far the largest proportion, a quarter, with only an eighth of the total surface. The tables, as well as the maps given, are chiefly based on data collected by Prof. Loomis of Yale College. "The Place Names of Iona," by Mr. A. Carmichael, is devoted to old Scottish lore respecting St. Columba. There is also the first of a series of papers on the ancient geography of Scotland.

The disproportion between Viollet-le-Duc's powers as a designer in comparison with his authority as an historical expert and as a teacher in architecture is well known. Quite otherwise is it with his capacity as an illustrator of books, so that an article on "Viollet-le-Duc Vignettiste," by Jules Adeline, in the March issue of *Le Livre*, offers a genuine novelty. The revelation pertains to a book fifty years old, the 'Voyages pittoresques dans l'ancienne France' of Taylor, Nodier, and De Cailleux, in which the part of the future author of the 'Discourses on Architecture' and the great Dictionary was to furnish vignettes, borders, etc., many of which are reproduced in facsimile by *Le Livre*. More, however, are described without this aid by M. Adeline, and his paper thus becomes as wearisome to read as any of Mr. John Ashton's descriptions of English caricatures under the like circumstances. The designs actually shown have a Gallic freedom and some cleverness, but do not justify the extravagant estimate put upon them by their exhibitor. A curious chapter in the history of the library of the city of Paris is related by M. Gustave Fustier; and few will dissent from his conclusion that the Institut is morally bound to restore to the city the "collection Moriau," *i. e.*, the books and manuscripts bequeathed to the city by Antoine Moriau in 1759, and unjustifiably alienated and transferred to the Institut by the Abbé Hubert Pascal Ameilhon under the Directory. Ameilhon was custodian of the city library and member of the Académie des Inscriptions et Belles-lettres. He was, shortly after the transfer, appointed librarian of the Arsenal.

The French painter, François Bonvin, who will be seventy years old next September, lost his sight last year and became dependent. His fellow-artists formed themselves into a "committee of patronage," with Meissonier and Bouguereau at the head, and called on one another to contribute a picture each for Bonvin's benefit. The sale of this generous contribution to his support during his declining years will take place on April 22. *L'Art* for March 1 (Macmillan) gives a full-page print of an original and apparently unfinished etching by Bonvin, "The Guitar Player."

The French reading public is destined to be amply provided with cheap books, good cheap books too. Besides the very excellent 'Bibliothèque Nationale' at twenty-five centimes a volume, and the 'Nouvelle Bibliothèque Populaire' at ten centimes, a new series has been started at the same fabulously low price. The 'Nouvelle Bibliothèque Populaire,' lately noticed in the *Nation*, is a Roman Catholic publication, and is continuing with much taste its issue of the purest masterpieces in the French language. The new venture is equally low in price. It is under the direction of M. Jules Lermina, whose well-known tendencies will make it all that its name promises. It is called "Bibliothèque Patriotique et Républicaine Illustrée," and is to appear weekly. The first ten volumes already present works of Victor Hugo, Molière, Gambetta, Diderot, J.-J. Rousseau, and of MM. Floquet and Claretie, not to forget the timely Gen. Boulanger, whose 'Vie et Discours,' as well as any of the other numbers, may be had for two cents.

The Harvard Summer School of Botany will open at the Botanic Garden, Cambridge, Mass., on July 6, and close on August 6. Saturdays will be excursion days for the study of the neighboring local flora. Particulars may be had by addressing Mr. James E. Humphrey, 6 Divinity Hall, Cambridge.

— Thomas Clarkson concludes the tenth volume of Leslie Stephen's 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan), and, in spite of all the great names which go before, his could not be thought an anti-climax, even were the arrangement not alphabetical. Two pages and a half, however, suffice to contain "the short and simple annals" of his far-working philanthropy; and this (not unfair) allotment, when compared with the space bestowed on men of genius like Chatterton, or

of action like Marlborough, marks the common valuation of the reformer. Along with Chatterton, whose life is very skilfully sketched by Charles Kent, this volume contains Chapman, Chaucer (Prof. J. W. Hales), Churchill and John Clare (Leslie Stephen). Colley Cibber's career is told by Joseph Knight. The editor, besides the two articles just mentioned, shows his powers of condensed historical narration in the long account of Marlborough. He holds the scales very impartially, letting the facts speak for themselves, and his general view of the great commander is brief and almost incidental. Of Macaulay's ascription to Marlborough of a desire to get rid of Talmash, his only military rival, Mr. Stephen quietly remarks that "such insight into secret motives is only granted to men of Macaulay's omniscience." Less than twenty pages give scope enough to Samuel R. Gardiner for the portrayal of Charles I.; nearly twenty-five are occupied by Prof. A. W. Ward in dealing with Charles II. With the Princess Charlotte the Hanoverians are brought on the scene. Among the lesser lights are William and Robert Chambers; the sculptor Chantrey; Thomas Chippendale, of whom little is known beyond his furniture; Henry Langdon Childe, the inventor of the magic lantern's "dissolving views"; William B. Clarke, the first discoverer of gold in south Australia; and the Christies, of the famous line of auctioneers. The American interest of this volume is slighter than in any of the foregoing that we recall. We have remarked Charles Chauncy, the second President of Harvard College at "New Cambridge," as our New England university town is rather oddly denominated here; and Joseph Lemuel Chester, of whom it is truthfully said that "when he died he had no superior as a genealogist among English-speaking people." Mention is made of the fact that Col. Chester's manuscripts of the Oxford matriculations and of the "marriage allegations in the Bishop of London's Register" are now being printed.

—The last issue in Karl Vollmöller's "Englische Sprach- und Literaturdenkmale" is devoted to Lyly and Sidney. It contains the first part of 'Euphues,' with some omissions, and the first chapter of the 'Arcadia,' with notes upon the unusual words, in a very convenient form for students. The principal interest lies in the preface by the editor, Dr. Friedrich Landmann, which is really a brief monograph on Euphuism. According to the view taken, Lyly was not the inventor of this fashion, but merely the author of its literary monument. Euphuism is distinguished from that general and pervading taste for affectation, hyperbole, and all the eccentricities growing out of the Renaissance, and its defining characteristics are said to be (1) opposed and balanced grammatical structure, called parisonic antithesis; (2) transverse alliteration (*e. g.*, f, l, g, m, followed by f, l, g, m), and similar tricks to point the parallelisms of the grammar; (3) the use of long strings of examples or similes to illustrate the main statement. This style was invented by Guevara, and introduced into England by his six translators, of whom Lord Berners, about 1534, and North, in 1557, were the most eminent. Lyly was merely the best writer in this foreign-mannered style. 'Euphues' itself is a compilation imitated from North's translations from Guevara, in matter as well as style, with some direct obligations to the classics. The rhetorical fashion, independently of the matter, was adopted by many writers, of whom Greene and Lodge were the last. 'Euphues' marks its climax, however, and was first effectually discredited by Sidney, whom Drayton praises for the reform. The 'Arcadia,' as is well known, is nevertheless from a Spanish model, Montemayor. This analysis withdraws Sidney from among the Euphuists, and specializes the sect to the advantage of literary history. The bearing of all this on Shakspere's early style and its sources is hinted at, but not developed; but the distinction between Euphuism and Arcadianism is well made, and clears up some puzzling questions and confusions in the sixteenth-century English style very effectively. The monograph in which the above is exhibited in detail, deserves the careful attention of students of that period.

— M. Taine's 'Napoléon Bonaparte,' the new chapters of his great philosophical history, "Les Origines de la France contemporaine," which appeared in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for February 15 and March 1, is making much stir in Paris. It is the subject of conversation and discussion, sharing public attention with the other chief literary sensation of the day, the 'Journal intime' of Benjamin Constant. The light artillery of the newspaper press is already brought to bear upon it, and it will not be long before the heavy guns of the serious critics open fire in their usual manner upon both the author and his work. In the meantime anecdotes which have a certain symbolical truth about them, even if the naked naturalistic fact is not there, are flying from every direction. The *Figaro* relates that M. Taine, who had long been one of the many literary friends of the Princess Mathilde, in speaking to her about his new work before it was finished, gave her to understand that his conclusions concerning Napoleon would be very severe; and the Princess replied that while she could not judge as severely as he would probably do, the man without whom she herself might have been an orange vender in the port of Ajaccio, still she had confidence in the tact of the great writer, whom she was happy to count among her friends. When the first article appeared, the astonishment of the Princess was great; after the second her displeasure expressed itself by a card left at the offender's door, bearing the crushing letters P. P. C. When Taine lamented this loss of an old friendship to Renan, says another story, Renan replied that, in order to be able to express his own opinions freely, he had formerly been obliged to offend a much greater lady than the Princess, and when he was asked who this was, he answered, "The Church." The moral of all this is, that the author of 'Napoléon Bonaparte,' after shocking all the religious and royalist beliefs of his countrymen by his literary and philosophical doctrines and his 'Ancien Régime,' and then rousing the passionate reprobation of the Republicans, who had felt that he belonged to them, by his later 'Révolution,' has now alienated the sympathies of his Bonapartist friends. It would be hard for a superficial observer not to look with a kind of compassion upon a man thus cut off from all political friendships, and who has nothing before him but the darkness and terrors of the radical and anarchical tempests he anticipates. But the author of "Les Origines de la France contemporaine," who has not yet said his last word upon the Empire, any more than upon the Revolution or the Ancien Régime, is not a man to throw away compassion upon, any more than hasty criticism, and these new chapters of his great work have within themselves compensations for even deeper wounds than they can have inflicted upon their author. Never has M. Taine shown his great qualities as a writer more brilliantly than in his 'Napoléon Bonaparte'; never has he shown greater courage and sincerity.

—Students of history will ever regard with veneration the names of the Benedictines of St. Maur, on whose labors are based all accurate knowledge of the history of France. Luc d'Achéry, Mabillon, Martène, Durand, Bouquet, Brial, Clément, Clémenceau, the authors of the 'Histoire Littéraire de France,' and many others of that goodly company, labored indefatigably through long generations to render available for research the only authentic sources of information of the past. Among other gigantic schemes of the brethren was a series of detailed histories of the great provinces of France. The plan was but partially carried out, but it resulted in Dom Lobineau's History of Britanny, Dom Plancher's History of Burgundy, Dom Félibien's History of Paris, and the History of Languedoc by Dom Devic and Dom Vaissette. This last, since its issue in 1742, has remained the leading authority on the annals of a province whose vicissitudes have a special and permanent interest. In the intervening century and a half, however, an enormous mass of previously unknown material has been brought to light, and modern methods of historical investigation demand that this should be coördinated and rendered accessible to the student. Thus an enlarged edition of Dom Vaissette's work seemed indispensable; M. Édouard Privat, a bookseller of Toulouse, called to his aid the leading scholars of France, and the result is a worthy expression of the most advanced condition of French historical science.

—The five folios of the original have been expanded into fourteen corpulent quartos, of which twelve have already been published; the remaining two, numbered 11 and 12, edited by M. Joseph Roman, and devoted to the wars of religion from 1547 to 1643, being shortly expected. Besides M. Roman, the principal collaborators are M. Édouard Barry, who treats the Gallo-Roman period and the ethnography; M. A. Molinier, who carries on the history up to 1443; and M. Ernest Rcshach, who continues it from 1643, where the original work ceases, up to 1790. Of these, we have examined with care only the five volumes allotted to M. Molinier, and we can answer for the conscientious exactness with which every available source of information, whether in print or MS., has been exhausted to render the history complete. In addition to this general editorship, specialists have been engaged upon the adjuncts now regarded as indispensable to the right understanding of the past. Epigraphy, for instance, is treated by MM. Lebègue and Germer-Durand, numismatics by MM. Charles Robert and Chalande, and language and literature by M. Chabaneau. It would be impossible to find elsewhere so convenient a summary of all that is known about the troubadours and the *Jeux Floraux* as that contained in the contributions of the latter gentleman; and we are tempted to quote, for the benefit of Browningites, from the material laboriously brought together from all sources concerning Sordello: "Sordels fo de Mantoana, d'un castel que a nom Got, gentil catanis, e fo avinens hom de la persona, e fo bons chantaire e bons trobaire e grans amaire. Mas mout fo truans e fals vas domnas e vas los barons ab cui el estava" (x. 313).

—In the forty-first annual report of the Director of the Harvard College Observatory, laid before the Board of Trustees early in the present year, Prof. Pickering states that the munificence of the late Robert Treat Paine has now begun to provide the encouragement which he desired to give to the science of astronomy; the sum of $165,000, comprising about half of his bequest, having been received by the Treasurer of the University, and the income therefrom being already available for the support of work at the Observatory. The addition of this fund to those previously available raises the endowment of the institution to a little short of $400,000. This recent increase in the means of the Observatory, Prof. Pickering states, will ultimately permit a corresponding extension in its work, but for the moment will largely be required for the publication of observations already made, and for effecting permanent

improvements in the condition of the institution which have long been urgently needed. The remounting of the large telescope, and a new Observatory building, are in view, as well as a rather ambitious plan for the extension of astronomical investigation, which contemplates the support of researches conducted at other places by funds administered at Harvard. During the past year the Observatory has lost the services of Prof. Rogers, for a long series of years an indefatigable worker with the Meridian Circle. As a memorial to the late Prof. Henry Draper, the study of the photography of stellar spectra undertaken by him is now, through the liberality of Mrs. Draper, being prosecuted on a scale appropriate to the advance in this department of science, and forms an important extension of the work of the Observatory. The meridian photometer has been kept in active service throughout the year, and leaves little to be desired as a means of measuring the brightness of stars down to the ninth magnitude. The rapidity of the observations with this instrument is such that as many as 179 stars have been measured by a single observer in one evening. Various tests have been applied to detect the presence of systematic errors in this instrument, and extended comparisons of the results with similar work conducted elsewhere have been instituted. We have already adverted to the research in stellar photography conducted by Prof. Pickering, with the aid of the Bache fund, with such promising results. In order to facilitate a more careful study of the spectra of the brightest stars, Mrs. Draper has loaned to the Observatory the eleven-inch photographic telescope employed by her husband, and it has been mounted with two prisms in front of the object-glass, one of which has a clear aperture of eleven inches square and an angle of nearly fifteen degrees, forming thus the most powerful equipment for stellar spectroscopy in existence.

FYFFE'S MODERN EUROPE.

A *History of Modern Europe.* By C. A. Fyffe, M.A. Vol. II., 1814–1848. Henry Holt & Co.

To every generation one period is always unknown. This historical *terra incognita* is the age which precedes their own. Mr. Fyffe, therefore, is, for modern Englishmen and Americans, the guide to an undiscovered world. He tells them of men and events of which every man fancies, indeed, he knows a good deal, and of which most men in reality know nothing. Metternich, Kotzebue, Castlereagh, Canning, Capodistrias, the Congress of Verona, the fall of Tripolitza, the Regency of Espartero, the theories of Gioberti, the end of the Polish Constitution, the Battle of Navarino—what are they all to nine hundred and ninety-nine out of every thousand of Mr. Fyffe's readers but words which call up no definite ideas? For ten educated men who can give us an account of Marston Moor, of Bunker's Hill, of the taking of the Bastile, we shall scarcely find one who can give any accurate account of the Siege of Missolonghi, of the Battle of Navarino, or of the Wartburg Festival. Yet, though the men now living know so little of the events which excited their fathers, the nearness to us of the era with which Mr. Fyffe is occupied is no less remarkable than its distance from us. Europe on the eve of 1848 is a world in which many of us have lived. Pius the Ninth, Mazzini, Kossuth, are names which remind many of us of men whom we have seen and even known. There must be scores of persons on both sides of the Atlantic not much past middle life to whom the revolutions of 1848 recall vivid memories. As a reader peruses Mr. Fyffe's pages, he feels like a traveller passing over a country which is in one sense new to him, yet constantly excites recollections of youth. He needs a guide to tell him where he is, to make him recognize the grand outlines of the land.

Such a guide is Mr. Fyffe. He is not exactly an historian, he is not a philosopher who speculates about history. He is what we have called him, a guide. He unfolds before us a sort of map of the last age. His book is not a great work, but it may be a very useful work to students who know how to use it. The right way to get from the book its real utility is to read it not slowly and minutely but quickly, and as a whole, and to obtain from it the information which a general view of an important period can give. It cannot teach us details, but it can teach us what is a matter of far more importance, namely, the salient features in which an age that has just come to an end essentially differed from the times in which we live. No one who candidly asks this question from Mr. Fyffe will fail to get an answer. As to the exact nature of the response, those who consult our historical oracle will no doubt differ in accordance with their own different views of human progress. But one or two inferences flow so obviously from any clear narrative of the events which fill up the thirty-four years, 1814–1848, that their validity can hardly be disputed. These conclusions, however, though in one sense obvious, are, like other things which lie before men's eyes, frequently overlooked, while they possess an importance which justifies our pressing them upon the attention of our readers.

One influence of which we have now nearly forgotten the force, gave European politics from 1814 till very nearly 1840 a turn which modern students can hardly understand. Every leading statesman in every European Cabinet remembered the Napoleonic wars, and the one object of European statesmanship was to prevent a new outbreak of warfare. This object, it should be noted, was in itself a good one, and, moreover, was attained. From 1815 to 1848, Europe as a whole enjoyed peace, and it was not until 1870 that Europe witnessed a struggle which could compare with the Napoleonic contest. True it is that the means by which tranquillity was maintained were fatal to liberty, and in many, though not in all, countries hostile to peaceful progress. But it is uncandid to deny that the policy of reactionary statesmen had, during the early part of the century, some real justification, and it is dense stupidity not to perceive that the love of peace and dread of revolution was at bottom the motive which induced despotic governments to commit acts of oppression which statesmanship and morality equally refuse to defend. No doubt there is something strange, something which suggests insanity, in the change in the character of Alexander. But the facts of the time give a more or less reasonable explanation of his conduct. He shared at one period the love of liberty which had been kindled among the peoples of Europe by the resistance to Napoleon's tyranny. He thought at a later period that freedom was becoming another name for revolution. He renounced his aspirations and fell back into the attitude natural to a Czar. Nor is there the least reason to suppose that Metternich, and other statesmen of his school, were insincere in their dread of Liberalism. No great outburst of enthusiasm for liberty was possible till, as in 1848, men had forgotten the Reign of Terror and the tyranny of Napoleon. And even in 1848 the leaders of the Revolution showed, with the one exception of a few Italian statesmen, an incompetence which half justified the determination of crowned heads to keep Liberal politicians out of power.

A second trait of the age with which we are concerned was the position of England; it was quite unlike the situation which she now occupies. She was, after the fall of Napoleon, in many respects the greatest Power in Europe. She alone had escaped from the revolutionary fever; she alone had repelled with absolute success the attacks of Napoleon; she alone had shown how a people might be free and yet be great; she alone possessed a general who had never been defeated by Napoleon or his marshals. To this we must add that the great war which had ruined other countries had enriched Great Britain. England has in many ways made gigantic progress during the last seventy-three years; but the rest of the world has progressed also, and no calm observer can doubt that England stands, both in wealth and in moral prestige, far less ahead of European States than she stood on the day when Napoleon was sent to St. Helena. The position occupied by England, combined with the general wish of the governing classes throughout Europe to maintain peace, accounts for two characteristics of English policy which puzzle the men of 1887. The first of these characteristics is the constant interest of England in European affairs. This fussiness had, in the eyes of men like Cobden, as it has in the eyes of Mr. Cobden's biographer, a touch of absurdity. Yet, whether right or wrong, it must seem to any one who realizes the state of affairs during the first quarter of this century, perfectly natural. Neither individuals nor nations are able to change suddenly views or lines of conduct forced upon them by the experience of a lifetime. Wellington, Russell, Palmerston had all formed their characters in an age when the foreign alliances, foreign wars, foreign insurrections, the shifting phases of European politics, were matters of vital importance to the United Kingdom. It may be said that with the fall of Napoleon the importance of foreign politics to England ended. Whether this can be said with truth admits of doubt. What is certain is that the men of the great war could not, human nature being what it is, adopt in a moment views of national interest brought at last into existence by the duration of the long peace. Nor was it possible for the nobler class of English statesmen, such as Canning, to forget that Europe had common interests, or not to imagine that the great free State should be the protector of European freedom.

Hence a second characteristic or trait almost as marked as the fussiness of English foreign policy. England, under the guidance of Ministers like Canning or Palmerston, is always seen coming forward as the patroness of Continental Liberalism. She, time after time, attempts, but with very rare success, to check armed intervention by despotic Powers in the affairs of independent States, and to check it by means of moral force. This course of action had its occasional triumphs. It established the independence of Belgium; it preserved the independence of Switzerland. But it irritated without in general checking despotic rulers, and encouraged without really helping the efforts of discontented peoples. The faults of the policy inherited by Palmerston from Canning are palpable. But the belief in moral force is in some points of view more respectable than the belief in big battalions, and there was a touch of nobility in the notion that the freedom of Europe was an English interest. In any case, history teaches the lesson that the policy of England, up to 1848, was the natural outgrowth of the position occupied by the country at the close of the war with France.

A third feature of the years which intervened between the fall of Napoleon and the fall of Louis Philippe, is, that two ideas were then popularly blended together which we now know to have no essential connection with each other. The cause of popular government was, in the minds both of kings and of rebels, identified with the cause of national independence or unity. Republicans were patriots and patriots were Republicans. The most obvious source of a most singular intellectual delusion was that in several

countries, and especially in Italy, the struggle for nationality was, as a matter of fact, connected with the struggle for popular rights. But the true source lay a good deal deeper than any influence depending upon the political condition of particular nations. The age of reason had been succeeded by the age of feeling. Such enthusiasm for abstract principles as had heralded in the French Revolution had been gradually superseded by faith in historical ideals. Italians were more deeply moved by appeals to the past glories of Italy than by eulogies of liberty. The demand for German unity touched the popular imagination more easily than did the claim for constitutional rights. Yet the faith in liberty, fraternity, and equality was not dead, and the simplest way to cherish the old and the new creed was to blend them together into one faith. To do so was rendered the more easy because kings and ministers, sharing the delusions of their opponents, resisted the spirit of nationality, with which they had often no cause to quarrel, because they thought it but another name for that spirit of liberty which really menaced the established order of things. Cavour's claim to rank as a great political thinker rests on his clear perception of the fact that patriotism had no natural connection with republicanism, and that a patriot king might become the founder both of the unity of Italy and of the greatness of the monarchy.

Here, however, we touch on topics proper to Mr. Fyffe's next volume. That it will abound in interest we do not doubt. Meanwhile, the volume before us is sufficient to occupy students who, knowing that men's acts are really governed by their circumstances and ideas, wish to trace out the facts and the beliefs which, for the space of more than a quarter of a century, determined the action of the statesmen and the peoples of Europe.

RECENT POETRY.

If it be true, as Sir Philip Sidney says, that "poets did only teach by a divine delightfulness," then the two foremost poets of the age are relaxing their hold upon the enchanter's wand. Few among us will deny that—Emerson and Longfellow and Victor Hugo being gone—these two exalted positions belong to Tennyson and Browning, or Browning and Tennyson, as the case may be. Each of these poets has just published a volume, and, whatever qualities are shown by each, that of divine delightfulness can hardly be included. Yet we have also the authority of Sidney for the assertion that "of all writers under the sun, the poet is the least liar," and perhaps either of these two would prefer the quality of speaking the truth to all others. The curious thing is that, though they are only three years apart in age—Tennyson having been born in 1809 and Browning in 1812—an interval of at least a generation seems to separate them in respect to tone and flavor. It is hard to think of Browning as old; hard to remember that Tennyson was ever young. They have been read in America for nearly the same length of time, yet Browning societies are just now springing up all around us, while who hears of a Tennyson Society? The very qualities by which they discourage us in their two new volumes are so diverse as to carry out this curious antagonism. The worst thing that can be said of 'Locksley Hall Sixty Years After, etc.' (Macmillan) is that it makes the sweetness and ardor of the earlier 'Locksley Hall' appear ridiculous. The worst thing to be said of Browning's 'Parleyings with Certain People of Importance in their Day' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is that it sometimes recalls the too laborious obscurities of 'Sordello.' The one reverts to his youth by way of warning, the other by way of imitation.

There is little more to be said of Lord Tennyson's volume, where there are not even details of beauty to relieve the atmosphere of repulsiveness; but that of Browning is crammed with wit and wisdom, accessible, however, only to those who are content to pick out their morsels of poetry, so to speak, with nut-picks from a craggy shell. For those who are satisfied with this, well and good—and there are fortunately many such; but even the comparison with 'Sordello' leaves out the fine and intelligible theme which ran through all the mazes of the earlier book—the contest between the ideal and practical in every gifted nature. Many a boy or girl carried that poem on solitary walks for the help it gave in solving this problem, although the contest between Guelf and Ghibelline rolled vaguely past their indifferent ears. Their loyalty was 'Sordello's' vindication. It is always difficult to tell what book of poems the young mind will choose to feed on, and the very difficulties in this volume may offer food to many. But there is not the unity of purpose which saved 'Sordello,' and which afterwards, in Browning's hands, led up to a work so solid and so noble as 'Luria.' Nor are there any of those delicious songs which give such a charm to 'Pippa Passes,' and showed a gift that might, had it not been thrown away, have made its possessor distinctively the lyric poet of the age. But there are blank-verse descriptions here and there in the 'Parleyings' which almost recall the Miltonic lines in 'Sordello'—passages drawn from nature, like this, for instance:

"Boundingly up through Night's wall dense and dark,
Embattled crags and clouds, out broke the Sun
Above the conscious earth, and one by one
Her heights and depths absorbed to the last spark
His fluid glory, from the far fine ridge
Of mount-ain granite which, transformed to gold,
Laughed first the thanks back, to the vale's dusk fold
On fold of vapor-swathing, like a bridge
Shattered beneath some giant's stamp. Night wist
Her work done, and betook herself in mist
To marsh and hollow, there to bide her time
Blindly in acquiescence. Everywhere
Did earth acknowledge Sun's embrace sublime,
Thrilling her to the heart of things." (P. 31.)

It is a long step from Browning to Coventry Patmore, yet the time is not so long ago when his 'Angel in the House' was received by many duteous wives as a fit recognition of their Eve-like submission; a sort of Church of England marriage service in verse, with the "love and cherish" duly included, but the "obey" always distinctly visible in the background. It was in its kind even pleasing, but a very little of it went a great way, and its author here gives us much more than a little of it. Now that Anthony Trollope is dead, and the dean and the cathedral-close and the county ball have become inconceivably wearisome in prose, it is impossible to prolong their interest in verse; and yet these themes, with a few equally tame angelic hosts and heavenly choirs, are all the material of Mr. Patmore's 'Poetical Works' (London: George Bell & Son). He closes, however, with a prose essay on "English Metrical Law" which is of more value than most of his poetry, and which begins with this very sensible proposition: "As dancing is no more than an increase of that element of measure which already exists in walking, so verse is but an additional degree of that metre which is inherent in prose speaking." Even this paper, however, is not to be compared with Sidney Lanier's very original and suggestive essay on the same subject.

Miss Mitford says of one of her heroes in 'Our Village' that he translated Horace "as all gentlemen do." Is it a proof of the advance in classical scholarship that English gentlemen now translate Greek oftener than Latin? The 'Odyssey' for this year is rendered—or at least twelve books of it—by the Earl of Carnarvon (Macmillan), who shows at the very outset his limitations by saying in his preface, "A translation cannot be a poem." Is not Chapman's Homer a poem? or, if he objects that this is not in any strict sense a translation, what shall we say of Longfellow's multitudinous versions, each combining the qualities of closeness and music so admirably that some of them bid fair actually to replace the originals in the literary history of the world? Again, if a translation cannot be a poem, why attempt the poetic form? why not rather adopt the rhythmic prose which Prof. Palmer has applied with such success to the 'Odyssey'? It is hard to find a passage in which Palmer is not at once more accurate and more poetic than Lord Carnarvon. Let us take a single instance of the superiority of the prose version.

The vivid description of the couching of Odysseus among the dry leaves, at the end of the fifth book of the 'Odyssey,' is thus rendered by Palmer: "As a man hides a brand in a dark bed of ashes, at some outlying farm where neighbors are not near, hoarding a seed of fire to save his seeking elsewhere, even so did Odysseus hide himself in the leaves; and on his eyes Athene poured a sleep to quickly ease him from the fatigue of toil, letting his eyelids close." The version is almost verbatim, yet is musical upon the ear; but the passage is thus hammered out by Lord Carnarvon:

"Like as when on the verge of some far field,
Where stands no neighboring homestead, men heap up
Some smouldering ember with the ashes grey,
And guard from wind and keep the spark alive;
So heaped the Hero o'er him the dry leaves,
And kind Athenê poured upon him sleep—
Rest to his eyelids' surcease of his toils."

Can any one place these two side by side and not recognize that Homer is in the one and not in the other? The whole vigor of the comparison is lost in an instant when the English translator brings "men" in the plural to cover the brand with ashes, thus losing the lonely picture of Homer's single wanderer (τίς). On the other hand, where Homer has the word "neighbors" (γείτονες), Lord Carnarvon substitutes "a homestead," which is far less effective. Instead of simply mentioning Odysseus by name he grandiloquently calls him "the Hero." To describe the relief of the tired man, Lord Carnarvon must bring in the nearly obsolete word "surcease," and must, for purposes of rhythm, lay the accent on the first syllable, which Shakspere never does. Worst of all, he omits the whole of the most vigorous line in the whole passage:

"Σπέρμα πυρὸς σώζων, ἵνα μή ποθεν ἄλλοθεν αὖοι,"

tersely and completely translated by Palmer, "hoarding a seed of fire to save his seeking elsewhere"; and substitutes for it a vague line,

"And guard from wind and keep the spark alive,"

of which there is nothing in the original. As a wholly innocent intellectual exercise we can commend this new version, but it adds nothing to literature.

'The Purpose of the Ages,' by Jeanie Morison (Macmillan), comes before the public with an introduction by Prof. A. H. Sayce, a dedication to Robert Browning, and an intimation in the preface that Prof. Blackie of Edinburgh was her guide and friend. When we consider that George Ebers and others have found a theme for learned fiction in ancient Egypt, there would seem no reason why one bearing the poetic name of Jeanie Morison should not detect the material for poetry in the buried cities of Babylonia; but we fancy that the earlier Scottish bard who sang the charms of Miss Morison's namesake would have shuddered a little over a volume of nearly 400 pages written to make ancient Assyria attractive in verse. The thought of the poem is the purpose of the ages. The learning is choice and extensive, so that the notes are the most attractive part of the book; but when we revert to Sidney's test of "divine delightfulness," the whole thing fails. It must be owned with sadness that it is an easy thing to lay the book down

and hard to take it up again. The verdict is fatal.

It is curious to turn to the last of the many books of Miss Morison's ally and see failure proceeding from an opposite cause—not from excess of weight, but from the want of it. Prof. John Stuart Blackie's 'Messis Vitæ: Gleanings of Song from a Happy Life' (Macmillan) is inscribed to the students of the Scottish universities, and has for its motto that verse of St. Paul which bids men rejoice altogether. So far, so good; there is something fine in discovering that while the charming scenery of the Isle of Wight produces only the despairing strains of Lord Tennyson, the somewhat gloomy streets of Edinburgh can rear so jocund an Emeritus Professor. But when we turn the pages, we find only the lighter profusions of that somewhat heavily girded muse which gave us 'The Wise Men of Greece' in verse; and which translated only the first part of 'Faust,' on the avowed ground that the second part was of little value. For this volume the good Professor writes hymns, and he writes odes to backgammon, and he duly commemorates "an academy for young ladies at Clapham, under the able superintendence of Miss Pipe"; and he leaves, after all, a renewed impression of the enchanted land that Scotland yet remains for us, since even its later and comparatively uninspired bards find a theme inexhaustible in its braes and Bens.

Mrs. Emily Pfeiffer in her 'Sonnets' (London: Field & Tuer: New York: Scribner & Welford) sings of Scotland also, and of many other lands. It is curious that while Mrs. Hemans, the ever graceful and melodious, is now neglected, so poor a copy of her as Mrs. Pfeiffer should be able to preface her book of poems with four pages of private puffs from authors known and unknown; the more especially as the *Saturday Review* has just denounced this nefarious practice as something wholly American, and has said that it "almost exceeds what the European mind can conceive of in the way of audacity." More curious still is the fact that while Mrs. Pfeiffer gives us Kassandra and Klytemnestra in the latest approved form, yet neither she nor her proof-readers can spell correctly the English authors whom she celebrates, but they give us "Carlysle," with a superfluous *s*, and "Mathew Arnold" with a deficient *t* (pp. 9, 13). The sonnets themselves are graceful and often pleasing; but are sometimes constructed in a lyric measure singularly remote from either the Italian or the Shaksperian form—perhaps in this case to give something of the *lilt* of Scottish verse:

> "Clouds that gather round Loch Katrine
> I know not which is the earth or sky." (P. 55.)

Those who remember among Carlyle's early critical essays his exposition of the life and poetry of the German Werner—or, in Mme. de Staël's 'L'Allemagne,' the whole chapter given to this once famous author—will have a certain retrospective pleasure in the translation (by E. A. M. Lewis) of his chief dramatic poem, 'The Templars in Cyprus' (London: Bohn; New York: Scribner & Welford). It is true, as Carlyle reported, that the characteristics of this work are "tawdry splendors and tumid grandiloquence, and mere playhouse thunder and lightning"; and it justifies Jean Paul in his remark that the good Werner had fallen into a poetical fermenting-vat (*Gährbottich*). But this still gives it a certain historic interest; and the full translation, although less vigorous than the specimen passages given by Carlyle, may be pronounced quite worth reading, though not likely to resuscitate the dead fame of the German theosophist.

If we find ourselves dwelling more at length, in this paper, on English than on American verse, it is because the recent transatlantic yield has certainly been richer than that upon our own soil. It is not always thus—there are times when the balance inclines the other way—but with the best wish to marshal our American contingent in its full dignity, we find a poverty of resource. Most of the American books of poetry, since Christmas, have been of the kind most discouraging to the reviewer—of the "ower gude for banning and ower bad for blessing" description; they are by authors who have not yet won their spurs, and are not very actively or successfully engaged in winning them. The most attractive of these volumes are those made up of selections, as the capital 'Ballads of Books' chosen by Brander Matthews (Coombes), an admirable piece of literary work in selection and annotation; or the 'Bugle Echoes: a Collection of Poems of the Civil War, Northern and Southern,' edited by Francis F. Browne (White, Stokes & Allen). This book, though unattractive on the outside, contains the best and best-edited collection we have seen of the poetic literature of both sides in the great conflict. Among the authors of single volumes, the best known, doubtless, is Anna Katharine Green, who has given us in 'Risini's Daughter' (Putnams) an Italian drama of the conventional form, but with something of that vigor which marked her 'Defence of the Bride.' In most cases these volumes show fluency in rhyming, and often a great persistency in adhering to a rather uninteresting subject. When some one asked Talleyrand how the Duke of Wellington spoke French, the courteous diplomat replied, "With the utmost intrepidity, as he does everything else." Intrepidity is the chief characteristic of Walter L. Campbell's long blank-verse poem called 'Civitas: the Romance of Our Nation's Life' (Putnams), in which Civitas and Libertas appear personified and hold long dialogues together. So there is intrepidity in George Lansing Raymond's 'Ballads of the Revolution' (Putnams)—ballads which have copious historical notes, but will surely never be recited or sung. The same quality is shown, above all, in a metrical essay, extending through three parts and nine cantos, entitled 'I Am that I Am: the Philosophic Basis of the Christian Faith,' by E. A. Warriner (Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.). We take one verse from this astonishing production:

> "If Unity, 'tis Unities enclosed;
> If Endlessness, must endless Things contain;
> If Infinite, of Infinites composed.
> Idea of All were limited and vain,
> Except as Being's Being we explain.
> I is I Am, if it exist at all;
> Hence, it were nothing, if there were no twain.
> One is I, Am, and That—each cardinal—
> Each I Am That—a One in Three original."
> (P. 44.)

It seems ungracious to complain of any author for too great facility and too uniform a sweetness in versifying; but the impression produced by the Rev. Henry Bernard Carpenter's 'Liber Amoris' (Boston: Ticknor) errs a little on this side. The author is clearly a person of exceedingly poetic mind, and one of those who take delight in their work; he shows thought and tenderness, but his book cloys upon the palate. The mere redundancy of alliteration shows a certain weakness of ear; the following is an example, taken almost at random, in which we italicize the recurring sounds:

> "In silken scarf and vest, or now a page,
> With girlish *face*, *fair* hair, and *lissom limb*,
> Or troubadour with slow caressing hand,
> That, flingering up the lute-string, spilled some drops
> Of his *love lay long* treasured. And with these
> Were *tender*, *fearful maidens*, *many* a one,
> And *many* a lovelorn man, and some that *loved*,
> And ladies *lily*-necked who laughed and leaned
> Across the crimson cloth that overflowed
> The balconies, while now and then a knight
> Came near with helm in hand, and bowed the knee,
> And begged with yearning look a *blessing bright*
> From the starred eyes of *dame* and *damosel*."
> (P. 83.)

Here are thirteen lines, only two of which are free from the most obvious and palpable alliterations. No sweetness or smoothness can redeem blank verse from the fatigue produced in the reader's mind by the constant use of a device so elementary. Tennyson, who seems Mr. Carpenter's model, used alliteration with no such crude profuseness. The tone of feeling throughout the poem is refined and dignified; but it was a pity to borrow for it the name of Hazlitt's profoundest and therefore best-remembered work.

The inherent and still inexplicable difficulty of making an effective poem out of Indian legends, was never shown more strikingly than in the costly "Artists' Proof Edition" of Mr. J. H. McNaughton's elaborate poem of 'Onnalinda.' Though it bears the imprint of Kegan Paul & Co. (London), the whole work was apparently executed in this country; and few of our bards have seen their productions so luxuriously enshrined. Some of the smaller illustrations, on rice paper, are really noticeable bits of art, while the larger ones are usually marred by the remoteness of the heroine from any Indian or even half-breed type. Of the poet it can only be said that he has failed where all others—unless we except Longfellow—have failed, and that there is no life in his poem. The French-Canadian traditions are more easily handled, it would seem, than the purely Indian; and Mr. George Martin, a Canadian, has made an humbler and more successful effort at romance in his 'Marguerite; or, The Isle of Demons' (Montreal: Dawson). Even this is tinged with melodrama. The picturesque history of early French exploration has been well handled in prose, but has not yet got fairly into poetry. Doubtless its time will come; these tales only await their minstrel, as the New England legends waited for Whittier, and the traditions of the Hudson River for Irving.

RECENT NOVELS.

Rodman the Keeper. By Constance Fenimore Woolson. Harper & Bros.

Homespun Yarns. By Mrs. A. D. T. Whitney. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

In the Wrong Paradise, etc. By Andrew Lang. Harper & Bros.

The Monarch of Dreams. By T. W. Higginson. Boston: Lee & Shepard.

The Sentimental Calendar. By J. S. of Dale. Charles Scribner's Sons.

A Question of Identity. [No Name Series.] Boston: Roberts Bros.

Sons and Daughters. By the author of 'Margaret Kent.' Boston: Ticknor & Co.

Taken by Siege. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

A Year in Eden. By Harriet Waters Preston. Roberts Bros.

The Squire of Sandal-Side. By Amelia E. Barr. Dodd, Mead & Co.

Klaus Bewer's Wife. Translated from the German of Paul Lindau. [Leisure Hour Series.] Henry Holt & Co.

In the volume of Southern stories called 'Rodman the Keeper,' Miss Woolson presents a panoramic view of a country and people still shivering with the horror of a destructive war. The inherent gloom of the theme is modified by the author's preference of pathetic incidents to those entirely heart-rending and shocking, and by her happy way of catching every gleam of humor in a forlorn situation. She has treated events and people almost inviting hysterical emotion with the reserve that makes for strength, and that moderation which is an essential of beauty in literature. Her characters are real outgrowths of their exceptional conditions, and only in the description of a gorgeous and luxurious prima donna has she departed from life, drawing for a figure upon conventional fiction and popular imagination. Every story has a

fine idea and meaning, expressed with singular grace, sincerity, and charm. There is much that appeals to both intellect and sympathy, and not a line that offends the taste. The author's attitude is of one who, looking at her world, writes what she sees, thinks, and feels, quite free from any desire to distort for sentimental purposes, or to pander to prejudice. Paradoxical as it sounds, the chief excellence of her work, infused with a lovable personality, is its dispassionate impersonality.

Mrs. Whitney's 'Homespun Yarns,' on the contrary, are all twisted to one issue—that is, to display her intimate knowledge of the views and ways of Divine Providence. That a young girl's cloth is sufficient for her coat; that a housewife's pickles are salted to taste; that lovers unite or separate—all these interesting little mundane matters are referred to the direct interposition of God. Mrs. Whitney no more means to be irreverent than she means to be funny. She has been writing in this fashion for so many years that she doubtless feels herself familiar with Deity, without any diminution of awe. The Greeks indulged in much indecorous levity about their gods, but, none the less, in pestilence and in war, they prayed and made sacrifice with fervor, being probably cheered and comforted by the ceremonies. Mrs. Whitney's constant devotion to a literal *deus ex machina* burdens her stories with an artificiality which is intensified by the studied affectation of her style. The people who read them (and they are not few, are still bound to the dark ages of our fiction. They want the supernatural, the unnatural; and their enjoyment of both in large doses is so keen that it is almost a pity to say a word which may, by chance, disturb it.

In the stories collected under the title 'In the Wrong Paradise,' Mr. Lang yokes science and fiction very cleverly. Science is really the working horse, but gets little of the glory. The scholarship without which the stories could not have been written, is so cunningly concealed that no one, after reading them, will be vexed by the suspicion that he has swallowed a gilded pill. They may easily pass for genuine works of the imagination, or for frivolous fancies of an irresponsible, cheerfully cynical man of the world. It might be difficult to persuade many good people that Mr. Lang ever had a serious thought, except the unrighteous one of ridiculing missionaries and foreign missions in the person of the Rev. Thomas Gowles, and in his adventures among the Phæacians. The Rev. Gowles is indeed rather a bitter caricature, but some measure of his cant, ignorance, and conceit is unfortunately too frequently found in those who undertake to Christianize the heathen, whether at home or abroad. In the end of "Phæacia," which is the scene of Mr. Gowles's entertaining activity, Mr. Lang makes capital use of his researches into the habits of primitive man, as well as of the mythical island sung by Homer. "The First Radical" introduces successfully a Troglodyte gentleman among the heroes of romance. In several instances the results of recent psychological theorizing are set forth—most amusingly, perhaps, in the interview with the hereditary spectre of Castle Perilous. "In the Wrong Paradise" is weak and dull, losing point through extravagance. It is the only story which could be advantageously left out of a volume not inferior to the best French and American work of a similar kind.

In 'The Monarch of Dreams' Mr. Higginson plunges rashly into the elusive mystery of visions of the night. Francis Ayrault, who devotes his life to regulating his dreams, having imperfectly succeeded, seems in the end willing to die in order to get rid of the regularly recurring nightly vision which he has been at such pains to summon. With this exhibition of psychological possibilities the author seems so combine an ethical allegory, for, while Ayrault is so purposely busy with shadows, he misses a great opportunity for useful, practical action. It is necessary in this case to qualify comment with the word "seems," for, in the short sketch found worthy of cloth and gilt, nothing is clear but the obscurity both of Ayrault and the author.

The keynote of the twelve stories in 'The Sentimental Calendar' is, naturally, sentiment, and one of the prettiest touches of sentiment is the reason given for calling them "Funny Stories." The author's guiding principle of narration is, as it should be, suggestion rather than direct statement. But sometimes the suggestion is so delicate, or indefinite, or remote that the reader's imagination or sensibilities are worked very hard to catch it. For the same reason several of the stories fall short of effectiveness, are decidedly flat and unprofitable. The most noticeably incomplete are "The Bells of Avalon," the allegorical "Seven Lights of Asia," and "The First Love-Letter." But in several others, particularly in "Mrs. Knollys," both the beauty of the principle and the author's ability to control it are illustrated. Though at times a too pronounced literary manner is perceptible, a conscious effort for unconsciousness, there run through the sketches strains of gentleness and tenderness, with flashes of worldly wit and fun, which help to make a very attractive style.

'A Question of Identity,' little more than a short story, is written apparently with intention to compliment highly the reader's intelligence—that is, to permit him to construct any edifice he may please on the architectural hints furnished by the author. Here any one who may care is provided with a life-long puzzle, to decide which of the precious twin daughters of a Polish musician opportunely chose an isolated New England village to die in. Meaning to arrive at a profound conundrum, and there leave off, the author should, in justice to himself, have so arranged preliminary matter that one or two people, at least, might transfer their anxiety about the 'Lady or the Tiger' to his twins. His oversight is fatal. The story is, seriously, a bad example of useless work in fiction. Fortunately its worst possible effect is to irritate the person who, relying on the very good reputation of the series in which it appears, may happen to buy it.

It is certainly not more useless and destructive of the hope that novel-writing is gradually passing into the hands of competent and skilled laborers, than are 'Sons and Daughters' and 'Taken by Siege.' In neither of these is there any attempt to hold the reader's interest by plot, that is, by mystery or exciting adventure. The scenes are in America, the people every-day people, wherefore it is fair to assume that the authors are presenting to us studies of contemporary American life. 'Sons and Daughters' is the more pretentious of the two, and the failure of the author to justify his experiment is most noticeable. The novelist who devotes himself to the portraiture of individual character tacitly admits nowadays that he is bidding for the favor of the more intelligent public. His readers are perfectly willing to assist in picking any number of characters to pieces, but they demand in return the impression that they have made at least one intimate acquaintance—not necessarily a remarkable one, but such a one as they are compelled to recognize as a fellow-mortal. They may be ashamed of the recognition, or indignant, or, by great good luck, delighted; but, if the kinship be acknowledged, the author has done his work well and is, so to speak, worthy of his hire. There is, however, no such reward in store for those who wearily plod along with the 'Sons and Daughters' of a suburb of Philadelphia. The impossible creatures of the vanishing romance fulfilled their mission, such as it was, much more satisfactorily than do these dreary and insipid misrepresentations of actual life and thought.

In 'Taken by Siege,' though the scene is New York, and the people those of whose actual life and possibilities knowledge is not absolutely inaccessible, the happenings are phenomenal. We are asked to believe that the whole town quivered with excitement over the appearance of a singer (an American at that) in a new opera. We are refreshed with the spectacle of a country youth jumping, after a few months as occasional reporter, plump into the chair of foreign editor of a very great daily. Thence a couple of flying leaps land him in the shoes of the editor-in-chief. We are compelled to conclude by inference that a woman is not really virtuous until she shall have become *première* of the ballet, and whirled wonderfully on tiptoe before an hysterically applausive multitude. The case, it will be seen, is not one of imagination lacking, only of imagination misapplied. Properly to display the talent wasted in 'Taken by Siege,' the scene chosen should be a thoroughly out-of-the-way place, such as the "Lakes of the Torrible Zone, or the Hills of the Chaukley Bore."

'A Year in Eden' is saved from classification with this utterly meaningless fiction by the presence of two or three genuine and natural characters. They are not those to whom most care is given, and who, in the action, are most important. One is Professor Griswold, clever, pushing, plausible, and untrustworthy; the others are two old maids, the fine drawing of whose insignificance contrasts curiously with the woodenness and conventionality of those who ought to be significant. Women like the Misses Midleton—dignified, content, serene, for all their material poverty—are to be found in every small community, but very seldom have they been so delightfully shown to the world as by Miss Preston. The only excuse for the intrigue, an exceptionally disgraceful one even outside of Eden, is that it brings out the finest points of these sweet old gentlewomen. The disgrace of their niece's flight with a "married, middle-aged man" was needed even to suggest to them that such a thing could be; how it could be in their own set, among their own flesh and blood, they would never understand. Nor, from the author's delineation, does the reader understand; he can only accept, with the fulness of worldly knowledge, the possibility. The passion that might impel a man of fashion to a socially destructive step does not exist in the well-dressed stick that came as the serpent into Eden. For the woman's part in the affair there is no reason, excepting that an Italian-Yankee may be expected to be unbalanced, and that the name "Monza" may impose an obligation to be shocking.

'The Squire of Sandal-Side' is not likely to increase the good reputation which Mrs. Barr has been steadily achieving since the publication of 'Jan Vedder's Wife.' This is the first instance where her grasp of her scene, circumstances, and character is feeble. The introduction of an East Indian cousin into the north-country household in order to stir up dissension is an awkward expedient, and the worn device for defeating the villain implies exhausted ingenuity. The Squire, his younger daughter, and the Latriggs are well within Mrs. Barr's scope, but she has not sustained them with her usual vigor and accuracy. Even the motives for the loves, friendships, and enmities, which she has hitherto been able to reveal with unequivocal clearness, are vague and inconsistent.

The translation of Paul Lindau's story, under the title 'Klaus Bewer's Wife,' is worth reading, if it were only to contemplate the finished portrait of "Katie Schöne," whom Bewer so rashly

married. Katie's notion of the value of truth was crude, and, being a concert-hall singer, her propensities were vagabond. Nevertheless, she had no desire to offend her conventional husband, or to outrage the fine society to which she unexpectedly found herself elevated. But the introduction of very respectable relations into her own house, her husband's delight in their company, and her own discomfort, quite upset her equanamity, driving her to the active antagonism which resulted fatally to Bewer. Katie's character is so completely disclosed by her acts and words, with the smallest amount of description, that misunderstanding is impossible. The rest of the characters are interesting and life-like, save the Americans, who are of a kind that Americans never see.

Siam: or, the Heart of Farther India. By Mary L. Cort. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. Map, pp. x., 399. 12mo.

SIAM, or Muang Thai, "the kingdom of the free," as the people themselves, with a strange irony, call it, occupies a position in the East very similar to that of Belgium in Europe. Nearly surrounded by the possessions of France and Great Britain, it owes its present independence to the conflicting interests of these two nations. France, indeed, has not concealed her desire to divide the kingdom with Great Britain, the mountains forming the water-shed of the Menam and Mekong being the proposed boundary. The latter Power, however, would oppose this high-handed measure, if for no other reason, from a determination not to have the former for a neighbor. The commercial interests of the two are equally divergent. The French have long wished to cut a ship canal through the Malayan Peninsula, thereby bringing Saigon and Bangkok a thousand miles nearer Marseilles. As this enterprise would at the same time divert the China trade from the Straits, it is unfavorably regarded by the English, while the projected French railway from Saigon through Siam to the borders of Yunnan directly conflicts with the English scheme for a railway between Burmah and China, the greater part of which would also run through Siam.

The author of this work, an American missionary, has lived for the past twelve years in Siam, but does not throw much light on points of international significance. In regard to the population she says: "We have never heard her people numbered higher than ten millions, and sober, matter-of-fact minds are apt to say six or eight millions." This is the commonly received estimate, the recently published volume of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' giving the same figures. But Mr. A. R. Colquhon, the well-known traveller, who has made a special study of the country in connection with the proposed railway through it, says on good authority that this is simply the number of the males between the ages of twenty and seventy, and that the true figures, according to the last census, are "about thirty-eight millions." Probably the greatest obstacle to the growth of Siam is the fact that a very large proportion of the people are slaves, mainly for debt, "a debtor being able," according to a recent writer, "to sell himself, wife or children, or nephews or nieces, their freedom being recoverable on payment of the debt." The debasing effect of this custom was fully recognized by the present King, and one of his first acts on assuming power, fifteen years ago, was to decree the gradual abolition of slavery in his immediate dominions. One would like to know how far this decree has been carried out, and what influence it has had, if any, upon the people, and whether measures have been taken to check the slave-hunting raids on the hill tribes; but on these points, which one would naturally suppose would be of the first importance to the missionaries, Miss Cort gives us absolutely no information. There are other obscure subjects, as the tenure of land, the methods of village government, taxation, the laws, and the different races among the people, but to our knowledge of these she adds nothing. Her book is, in fact, not a description of the country as a whole, but chiefly of Siam as it is seen in Bangkok.

In her account of this place she exceeds in fulness of detail all previous writers, and enables the reader to realize very vividly the appearance of and manner of life in this "Venice of the East." As in all Eastern seaboard cities, there is a strange mingling of the two civilizations, the old and the new. The ordinary life is unchanged. The people dress the same and live in the same kind of houses and eat the same food as their ancestors have done for centuries. The customs attending birth, marriage, and death are unaltered. But the palaces are lighted with gas and electricity, and the palm-leaf huts with kerosene lamps, while in the temples the priests cook their food on American oil stoves. The telegraph and telephone are in active operation, and there are street letter-boxes, the bottoms of which "are made of sandal-wood, to impart fragrance to the missives, and thereby cultivate a taste for letters." The festivals and holidays are celebrated with the same amusements as of old—the open-air theatre, dances, exhibitions of jugglers, fireworks, gorgeous idol processions—and at the same time in the King's garden native bands of music play modern airs while his guests amuse themselves with croquet and lawn tennis. The cremation of the Queen and her infant daughter in 1881, ordered in every particular "according to ancient royal custom," was closely followed by a "Centennial Exposition" of Siamese products and manufactures, among the accompanying ceremonies of which were the laying the foundation of a "Palace of Justice" and the rededication of the famous temple of the "Emerald Idol." The cult of the white elephant alone of old customs seems to be gradually becoming a thing of the past. Nearly every writer on Siam has dwelt upon the magnificence of the surroundings of this "symbol of kingly authority and prosperity." But our author says: "There are five white elephants now. I visited the stable of the latest arrival, and found it just the same as other stables, dingy and dirty, and the illustrious captive was confined and treated, to all appearances, in the usual way. I think it is time the popular fallacy about feeding the white elephant from gold dishes and keeping him in regal splendor was exploded. Except on state occasions it has no foundation in fact."

The young King, Mrs. Leonowens's pupil, appears from Miss Cort's interesting account of him to be a very intelligent man, who is honestly anxious to promote the welfare of his subjects in every way. Like the late King, his father, he is an author, having among other things translated the 'Arabian Nights,' and takes a great interest in popular education. While adhering steadfastly to Buddhism, he gives perfect liberty to the American missionaries to carry on their work, and has aided with a gift of money in the building of one of their school-houses. At a recent interview with the missionaries, one of them expressed a wish that Siam might become Christian, for "'rulers and their subjects in Christian lands are much happier because of Christianity.' The King laughing rejoined, 'I think that the Czar of Russia is not so happy as the King of Siam.'" There are several chapters relating to the work of the missionaries, from which we gather that their direct success in making converts has not been very great, but their indirect success—through their schools, their medical missions, and their influence upon the king and his councillors—has been very satisfactory. For the descriptions of the palace, the monasteries, the homes of the common people, their religion, holidays and festivals, and especially the ceremonies of the last royal cremation, we must refer our readers to the book itself, only remarking that the author takes occasion to correct the popular impression that the building erected for the cremation, whose marvellous beauty of design and ornamentation has perhaps never been exceeded, is burnt. Before the fire was lighted, all the precious and costly things were taken from the altar on which the bodies lay. The outer golden urns or caskets were removed, and the inner "copper ones covered by others made of carved sandal-wood, very delicate and beautiful, and festooned with garlands of fresh flowers." After the King had "ignited the fuse, . . . men stood by watching the fire and dashing water upon it, to prevent the flames from rising too high and destroying the Pramane. The building is never burned. They are careful that nothing is consumed but the wood and the remains."

There are also chapters on Petchaburee and its environs, a town about ninety miles to the south-west of Bangkok, and upon the tributary kingdom of Laos and the captive Laosians in Siam proper. Though the author narrates comparatively few personal experiences (as to which her work differs greatly from that of Mrs. Leonowens), and is packed full of information, yet she is scarcely ever dull. It may be well to call her attention to the fact that the fine description of the approach to Bangkok, which she quotes and attributes to Bayard Taylor, was written by the late Rev. George B. Bacon, the editor of 'Siam, the Land of the White Elephant.'

Village Photographs. By Augusta Larned. Henry Holt & Co. 1887.

THIS volume illustrates the fact that a village offers as good opportunities for the observation of human nature, within limits, as does the city, with the added advantage of a country sincerity and hardiness of character. This particular village is of the rural New England type. Its inhabitants have a familiar look as they come before us in turn. There are the judge, the jack-of-all-trades, the young man of genius without an occupation, the recluse with a dark romance, the ne'er-do-well, and the good doctor, who belongs to the group in which Holmes delights, and who is drawn with a skill not inferior to his own. There are women of all varieties of weakness and strength of mind, schoolmistresses, old maids, flirts, widows, in an abundance that accurately indicates, one thinks, the surplus of the sex. It is a long story that the author tells. She has exhausted the field, not in the sense of telling all that is to be known, but in leaving out no detail that belongs to the general impression. A good many life-histories are related, not as the novelist writes them, but in the way in which they are really known to the people of the town. One lives in the place, as he reads, and finds out that there is no secrecy possible for any of its inhabitants. Sooner or later even the passing stranger learns their affairs from start to finish. The description of these human matters makes the bulk of the book, though the course of the seasons and the natural features of the woods and mountain and "the pine barrens" are utilized to keep a country atmosphere always present. The rustics are true rustics, true Yankees; and whoever likes the "simple annals of the poor" will find this volume full of reality, and sometimes touched with homely pathos.

The Diversions of a Book-Worm. By J. Rogers Rees. George J. Coombes. 1887.

In this delightfully printed volume Mr. Rees gives the public a second welcome to his library corner, where sits as true a lover of books as ever was. It is some months only since his former work, 'The Pleasures of a Book-Worm,' was noticed by us, and these later 'Diversions' are a continuation, in the same style, of the old papers, but with a more familiar touch, as if the author were better acquainted with the reader. The nook he describes as his abode is a very attractive one; the talk about books, his own notes on authors' habits and on some literary associations with his own copies of certain famous works, make an agreeable kind of reading for the literary connoisseur. As in the previous collection, the narrative lingers most often about the group of the Lakers and of Lamb and his London friends, but not tediously. An open hospitality is extended to Americans by Mr. Rees, whose acquaintance with our authors and their studies is real and intimate to a degree rare among the English; and several pages are filled with *Americana* in consequence. An appendix gives some interesting notes upon famous and costly illustrated books, especially Count Bastard's 'Peintures et Ornements des Manuscrits,' of which the French part only is to cost probably £3,678 per copy, and the price of the whole cannot fail to reach about £11,000, if completed on a moderate scale; but why Mr. Rees removed these pages to an appendix is inexplicable.

Walks and Talks in the Geological Field. By Alexander Winchell, LL.D., Professor of Geology and Palæontology in the University of Michigan. 8vo, pp. 329. New York: Chautauqua Press. 1886.

In this little book the author endeavors to present some of the more important general truths of geology in an informal way. In about fifty hypothetical excursions or from imaginary points of view he proceeds to lecture on a great variety of subjects which are likely to interest the general reader. These subjects are, on the whole, well chosen, and the illustrations of general principles show that the author has a very extended knowledge of the details of the science. It is only when he talks about such matters as the "whirling fire mist," *i. e.*, the nebulous pre-geological stage of the earth, or the "primeval storm," as he terms the first coming of the oceans on the earth's surface, that he fails to be instructive. In these parts of his work purely imaginary pictures take the place of facts, and the author runs riot through a singularly lurid world.

The style of the book is that which is known as the familiar—a very dangerous fashion for all but the greatest masters of speech. The aim is worthy, for by this familiarity the author seeks to keep near to his reader, sacrificing his own dignity—prancing, so to speak, on his hobby—that the solemn nature of his office may not be suspected, at least until the dose of information has been well administered. His first words show the method and its fashion: "Come, John and Jennie—come, George and Julia—let us have a talk about GEOLOGY. Come, John's mother and aunt—come, everybody that wishes—we shall find some of the most delightful things to talk about which anybody ever heard of." It is not all like this. There is much in the way of excellent description of natural phenomena, too often marred by the same unhappy straining after the picturesque and the artless. We are quite sure that neither "John nor Jennie" is likely to be any more interested in "cosmic dust" or the "seeds of worlds" on account of the antics with which the naturally grave professor prefaces his lecture on those subjects. We fear that they will be so absorbed in wonder at the ways of the teacher that they will not grasp the "cosmic dust" at all. These little ones have a very solemn way with serious subjects.

The Bishops in the Tower. A Record of Stirring Events affecting the Church and Nonconformists from the Restoration to the Revolution. By Herbert Mortimer Luckock, D.D., Canon of Ely, etc. Thomas Whitaker. 1887. 12mo, pp. 225.

Dr. Luckock's 'Bishops in the Tower' consists of a course of eight lectures delivered in Ely Cathedral upon a plan of the late Bishop Woodford, "of having lectures on church history and subjects of a kindred nature delivered from time to time within the Cathedral." This course was also delivered in London in two places. The lectures contain a great deal more than the title promises, being, in fact, a tolerably complete account of ecclesiastical relations from the time of the Restoration. The "somewhat fanciful" title given to the book was "adopted because the imprisonment of the Bishops was an act in which the absolutism and Romeward policy of the restored Stuarts culminated; it was an event, too, which contributed immediately to their downfall, and so far may well be considered as the chief point of interest and importance in the period with which these pages are occupied." The book is one to be highly commended. The material is selected with good judgment, the story is told in an animated and interesting style, and the temper of the writer is at once earnest and liberal. The lectures well deserved to be put in this permanent form.

Young People's History of Ireland. By George M. Towle. Boston: Lee & Shepard.

This is an interesting sketch of Irish history—a record too bad and broken ever to be popular with young people. The engravings are good of their kind. More dates would have been desirable, and greater uniform care should have been exercised in clear statements of fact. From an expression on page 224 the reader might suppose that the present poor-house system was established in the early part of the eighteenth instead of the present century. "At one period its population was somewhat over 100,000" (referring to Dublin in the last century) implies that it has now fallen away in numbers, instead of containing 300,000. The science of history is now studied in a broad enough spirit to lead us to expect that in a work such as this there should be some reference to the fact that the treatment to which Ireland was subjected for some centuries was but one phase of the religious war being waged over Europe; and that if Catholicism and Catholics suffered in Ireland, Protestantism and Protestants were subjected to even more ferocious and unscrupulous persecution in other countries. The statement of the truth in this regard would tend to prevent the growth of bitter and narrow feelings to which children, of all readers of history, are most prone.

The Dogaressa. By W. G. Melmontí. Translated by Clare Brune. With preface by George Augustus Sala. London: Remington & Co.; New York: Scribner & Welford.

Which of the two to whom 'The Dogaressa' owes its English guise is responsible for its deshabille, it is hard to say without a more careful comparison of the translation and original than the substance of the book merits; but for the slovenliness and incompetence of the translation, which can by no possibility convey an idea of the original, Clare Brune alone can be responsible. The book is at best poor stuff—mere book-making. The body of it is a mass of information, collected without much, if any, independent research, pitchforked together with little regard to system or sequence, dealing copiously with periods of which we know sufficient, and very sparingly with those which require research and would repay it. As an example of the art writing, we will only quote one passage, on Giorgione:

"He knew how to give a distinct characteristic to his women's fascinating forms, and he also preserved a calm imagination amidst indecency. He delineated female figures with a thousand charms, and over them was diffused a sort of golden shade; the amber-colored flesh stands out from the landscape which serves it for a background, and is painted with pleasing simplicity. The slopes are covered with vineyards, with green pastures, and disappear behind a veil of light vapors; there is nothing arid in the soil, nothing sad in the sky, and yet in those hills that are outlined on the azure heavens, and in that plain which blends with the horizon, there is a vague and indefinite sadness which contrasts oddly with the nude limbs of the women trembling with delight."

As examples of the translation, take the following. The Doge Orseolo is represented as *thinking* "of restoring Grado and of finishing the Ducal Palace and the *Basilisk* of St. Mark." Of the execution of Marino Faliero it is written: "The said Doge's head was cut off before he came down the staircase. . . . The doors being thrown open, the people rushed in to behold the body of the Doge. All Faliero's property was confiscated to the State, with the exception of two thousand ducats, of which he was allowed the disposal." On one page we find *Anthony di* Murano (three times), *Antony* Murano (once), and Antonio *da* Murano (once); in another place, Giovanni of Germany and John of Germany; *Ghiotto* and *Giotto; Blanche* Capello twice and Bianca once on the same page again; Nicolo Pisano and Nicholas Pisano, and so on all the way through. Among the misprints is Andrea Diandoo for Dandolo. When a word in the Italian puzzles the translator, it is put in Italian. Italian quotations are sometimes unintelligible, and Latin quotations are given untranslated, with such confusion as can be imagined.

The preface by Mr. Sala seems to have been written without his having read the book, and almost without reference to it, and without a word of explanation for the English reader as to who or what the author is, and (quite in keeping with the book) seems to have been added only to put Sala's name in the announcement of the publication.

Last Evening with Allston, and Other Papers. By Elizabeth P. Peabody. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.

This volume carries the reader back to a former generation. The papers which fill it are taken from periodicals; a review of 'The Marble Faun' dates as late as 1869, but the bulk of the matter belongs before the war, and all of it breathes the peculiar intellectual atmosphere of "the New England Renaissance" of 1843. Even the chapter upon Allston, though primarily biographical, has the characteristics of the time deeply impressed upon it; and in the remainder of the collection the large place held by discussions of education, the recurring references to the Dorian Greeks and the Triune-Apollo system, the treatment of the nature-myth in mythology and history, and also of the parallelism of thought in pagan and Christian religion, and in general the spirit of speculation and of reform for which the *Dial* stood, are signs of a past literary epoch. The interesting memoir of Kossuth's sister, whose character belongs to a high ideal of womanhood, also indi-

cates how much this volume is a work of past days and not to be reckoned as current literature. To many readers, probably, its phrases and attitudes of mind are intelligible only by an effort if at all, so closely are they connected with the modes of thinking of which Brook Farm was the most concrete practical expression. One is struck in these articles by the interest exhibited in new ideas, the mental energy of their assimilation, and by the hopefulness and vigor of the appeal to integrate the new knowledge in a new "education" which should be to the new age what salvation was to the old. The air was bracing to the mind, at all events, in those days, and one might go far in these later times of more woman's rights and female colleges without number, and not find a book by a woman, so strongly intellectual and exhibiting such difficult study as these old papers by Miss Peabody. They are an honorable record of mental life, and are besides a living illustration of the New England movement which Emerson's works and fame make of a more enduring interest. A second volume is promised.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Club of One. Passages from the Note-Book of a Man Who might have been Sociable. Boston: Houghton & Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Ayrton, W. E. Practical Electricity: A Laboratory and Lecture Course for First Year Students. Illustrated. Cassell & Co.
Auringer, O. C. Scythe and Sword: Poems. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. 75 cents.
Black, W. Sabina Zembra: A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Buchanan, R. A Look Round Literature. Scribner & Welford.
Campan, Jeanne L. H. Private Life of Marie Antoinette. New ed. Scribner & Welford.
Clouston, W. A. Popular Tales and Fictions, their Migrations and Transformations. 2 vols. Scribner & Welford.
Driver, Prof. S. R. Critical Notes on the International Sunday-School Lessons from the Pentateuch for 1887. Charles Scribner's Sons. 75 cents.
Ebers, G. The Bride of the Nile: A Romance. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 25 cents.
Elliott, S. B. A Simple Heart. John Ireland. 30 cents.
Flagg, J., Jr. How to Take Money out of Wall Street. Dick & Fitzgerald.
Fuller, A. S. The Illustrated Strawberry Culturist. O. Judd Co. 50 cents.
Harrison, J. B. The Latest Studies of Indian Reservations. Philadelphia: Indian Rights Association.
Hatton, J. The Old House at Sandwich; A Novel. D. Appleton & Co. 25 cents.
Prentice, C. F. A Treatise on Simple and Compound Ophthalmic Lenses, their Refraction and Dioptric Formulæ. James Prentice & Son.

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 305

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS 308

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:
Woman Suffrage in Operation 310
"Great Speeches" 311
After the Ironsides on a Tricycle.—I. 311

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:
The Introduction of the Jubilee Coercion Bill 313
The Moral Respectability of Political Parties 314

CORRESPONDENCE:
Postal Savings Banks 315
Woiseley on Lee 316
Conventual Pastimes 316
A Disreputable Review 317
Why Not Forget Blaine? 317
The New Jersey Chancellorship 317
Archæology at Athens 317
Transformation of Names 318

NOTES 318

REVIEWS:
Robert E. Lee.—I 321
Time References in the Divina Commedia 322
An Oriental Story-Book 324
The English and Scottish Popular Ballads 325
A History of the Papacy during the Period of the Reformation 325
Römische Ikonographie 326
Sne 326

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 326

FINE ARTS:
The Academy Exhibition.—I 327

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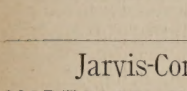

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 14, 1887.

The Week.

THE political revolution which was accomplished in Rhode Island on Wednesday week has, indeed, a national significance, but not in the sense which the Republican managers and newspapers insisted upon in the campaign that preceded the election. By itself the real question involved in the contest was as purely local as it could possibly be. It was simply whether or not the honest people of the State would consent to be governed longer by a corrupt political Machine with a defaulter for its Boss. What did professedly respectable Republican leaders in the party do? Some of them kept quiet, and refused to take any part in the campaign. Not so Senator Aldrich. He took the field in person, and called to his aid from outside the State Henry Cabot Lodge of Boston, the Boston *Journal*, and the New York *Tribune*. Together they began a tremendous clatter about the national issues at stake in the contest. Not a word of defence could they offer for the Machine or its boss, but they were all sure that the movement for his overthrow was a free-trade conspiracy, and that if it succeeded, both the Republican party and the protective system were doomed. On the issues thus presented by the Republicans, the State has gone Democratic for the first time in a quarter of a century. It has elected a Democratic Governor and nearly an entire State ticket by clear majorities over all. The Republican pluralities for Governor of 6,334 in 1884, 3,989 in 1885, and 4,396 in 1886, now give place to a Democratic majority of 973. All the Democratic candidates have handsome pluralities, and the Democrats in the Legislature have a clear majority of nine on joint ballot. Last year the Republicans had 80 majority in the Legislature. The national significance of a revolution like this is unmistakable. It must be evident to the Republicans everywhere that the country has swung into a new epoch.

The vote for State officers in Michigan shows that it must be considered a close State in 1888. The Republicans had clearly the stronger judicial ticket, and the Democrats no longer had the support of the Greenbackers in a fusion, as had been the case for several years previously. Nevertheless, the plurality of the Republican ticket over the Democratic does not much exceed the 7,500 of last fall over the fusion ticket, and it looks as though the combined Democratic and Greenback vote this spring would exceed the Republican. This is a very different state of things from 1881, when these three parties last ran separate tickets, and the Republicans had nearly 55,000 plurality over the Democrats, and more than 21,000 over Democrats and Greenbackers together.

The municipal elections everywhere teach the same lesson, that the people can no longer be led around by the politicians. Cleveland, O., is naturally a Republican city by about 3,000 majority, but a Democrat has just been elected Mayor by about 3,000 majority, simply because Independent Republicans were disgusted with the Republican ring. "It was the victory of the people over the spoils-hunting politicians," says the Democratic organ, which enforces the moral for its own party in this refreshingly frank style: "The *Plain Dealer* takes occasion, therefore, to call attention to the magnificent victory of the Democrats of Cleveland, and to the contrast between the condition of the party here and in Cincinnati and Chicago, where evil counsels on the part of Democratic leaders and Democratic newspapers have brought the party to utter demoralization and wreck." Contrast this with the attitude of the organ of the defeated Republicans, the *Leader*. On the morning after the nomination of the Democratic candidate it said: "The nomination of Mr. Babcock was due to impulses and influences that, on a smaller scale, correspond to those which resulted in the nomination of Grover Cleveland for President," and warned all good Republicans to be on their guard against this insidious attempt of the Democracy "to introduce Mugwumpery into Cleveland." Then, after its own party had met the Democratic choice of a leading business man, never before a candidate for office, as a standard-bearer, by putting forward a hack politician of the baser sort, it endeavored to avert the foreseen result by dilating on the danger of allowing a party nomination, regularly obtained, to fail of full party suppport. The Republican loss of about 6,000 votes on election day must have opened the *Leader's* eyes to the fact that those "impulses and influences" of 1884 have suffered no lessening of efficiency, whether in nominating or in electing.

The New York *Tribune's* "special" from Cleveland, attributing Republican defeat to the alliance of the liquor element with the Democracy on account of a Republican city government having kept the saloons closed on Sunday, is in good keeping with what appears to be the settled policy of the *Tribune* just now, to explain all Republican disasters as due to the hostility of the rum power, but is particularly ludicrous in the case in hand. It was the Democratic Police Judge who first held that the city ordinance allowing the saloons to open after two o'clock in the afternoon of Sunday was invalid, and who began the work of fining and imprisoning the angry saloonists for violating the State law made operative by his decision. And it was a Republican Council that made haste, upon the demand of the liquor men, to pass an ordinance which should stand, and which, had it not come to grief in the Board of Aldermen, would have made lawful again the opening of saloons on Sunday.

On the morning of election day the Milwaukee *Sentinel*, which is strongly Republican in national politics, made an earnest appeal for the permanent establishment of the principle of non-partisanship in local elections, upon which the better class of men in both parties went that day to the polls, and, as the result proved, defeated the Socialist movement. The recent combination of Republicans and Democrats in Milwaukee was not non-partisan in the sense that candidates were selected solely with reference to fitness, for the *Sentinel* says that, "in order to satisfy partisans, pronounced Republicans and Democrats have been selected as candidates largely because rather than in spite of their partisan strength." At the same time such a union must needs show that men of both parties have the common aim of good government and the advancement of the best interests of the city, and give men an occasion to form a juster estimate of one another, and the *Sentinel* urges that the possible advantage of this combination should not be lost.

The result in East St. Louis shows that the people who are for law and order can always carry the day if they make up their minds to take the necessary trouble. At the time of the Missouri Pacific troubles last spring it seemed as though this suburb of St. Louis were a place given over beyond hope to the worst elements of the community, and as though the political gang which had long controlled it, could not be dislodged because there was not a sufficient reserve of character and independence among the voters. But the respectable men of both parties made up a citizens' ticket this spring, and it "swept everything before it."

The municipal election in Jacksonville, Fla., last week was another victory for non-partisanship, and showed that Mugwumpism is growing in the South as well as in the West. The ring which controlled the Democratic party having put forward a bad ticket, a citizens' movement was organized, and, with the efficient backing of the *Times-Union*, it was carried to success. The Mayor-elect, in response to a serenade, delivered a speech which shows that no mistake was made in selecting him as the leader. Among other things he said was this noteworthy declaration: "I shall know no one on account of his color and I shall make no distinctions. The colored man can get justice from me as well as the white. Whenever he deserves it I shall do him justice. Why? Because they have rallied around us in this fight and saved us from a government not of the people, but of a clique. They have rallied around the standard of good government with all the balance of the good citizens and assisted in this fight. Had it not been thus, the opposition would have overridden us and driven us from the field. But you all stayed by us, and Jacksonville will feel the effect of it." Moreover, he began living up to his declaration at once, as this striking statement from the *Times-Union* shows: "H. H. Baker and Moses Taylor, two worthy colored men, who were among those of their race in the party who serenaded Mayor Burbridge last evening, called at the *Times-Union* office as a committee appointed to acknowledge appreciation of the courtesy of Mayor Burbridge in in-

cluding the colored men present in his invitation to the serenaders to enter his house and partake of refreshments. It was, they said, an incident which had never before occurred in their recollection, and they were very much pleased."

President Cleveland's letter to Mr. George Steele, the President of the American Fisheries Union, strongly confirms the impression that the aim of that organization has been to make just enough disturbance to secure for themselves a monopoly of the fish market in the United States, but not enough to interrupt the ordinary commercial relations between the two countries. The public will give just as much attention to the fisheries dispute as they are compelled to by their pecuniary interests, and no more. Each man is absorbed in his own private affairs, and so long as these are not molested by any action of the Government, the fisheries are a matter of no practical concern to him. They do not touch his conscience, like the liquor question or the slavery question. So he leaves the subject to the men at Washington whom he has hired to look after it. But if, as part and parcel of the fishery dispute, other business is thrown into confusion, if sales of goods are interrupted and purchases made more costly, there will be a general reckoning which cannot be advantageous to those who caused the Washington Treaty to be abrogated, thus needlessly plunging us into hot water again.

President Cleveland replies to Mr. Steele that he cannot undertake to restrict the operation of the retaliation act (if it becomes necessary to put it in force) to "prohibiting Canadian fish from entry into the ports of the United States," as Mr. Steele had kindly suggested. This, the President says, would be taking a low view of the importance of the question and of the dignity of the United States. It might be advisable, although the President does not suggest this, to prohibit the entry into our ports of any fish caught by Canadian fishermen serving in American vessels, in which case the Gloucester fleet would be shorn of two-thirds of its effective strength. It may be, and very likely will be, expedient to prohibit American vessels from going into Canadian ports for any purpose whatever, except for shelter in stress of weather. To limit the operation of the act to a new measure of "protection" to a particular trade would be putting upon the consumers of fish the entire burden and cost of the difficulty. It is gratifying to know that President Cleveland does not take so low a view of his public duties, and that he will not assent in advance to such an act of injustice. Indeed, his letter may be construed as a promise that when he does act he will contrive that the burden and cost shall be fairly distributed, and that no class or section shall get the advantage of any other class or section by reason of what is at best a serious public misfortune.

Judge Deady, of the United States District Court for Oregon, has given the first judicial decision under the Inter-State Commerce Law, holding that it is not a violation of the law for the Oregon and California Railroad, a corporation wholly within one State, to carry goods to Portland destined to San Francisco by a steamship line not under its control, at a less rate than is charged for carrying, the same distance or a shorter distance, the same goods not destined for shipment to points beyond on the steamship line. The decision is technically correct, and therefore legally correct. Any other decision would have been incorrect and illegal. The law does not include steamship lines or water carriage not controlled by, or under the same management with, the railway company concerned. It does not include, but expressly excludes, railways wholly within the limits of a single State. Yet the case at bar is one of the class of cases intended to be reached by the legislation in question. If the steamship line had happened to be under the same ownership and control as the Oregon and California R. R.—as in fact it was a few years ago—the law would have been operative upon both, and the Judge would have been compelled to decide the case differently. If the goods had been shipped to the same destination from some point on the roads of the Oregon Railway and Navigation Company, the decision would have been different, because this company does own and control the steamship line. But the latter company could also avoid the law by sending the goods from Portland to San Francisco by the Pacific Coast Steamship Line. So it appears that for transporting goods from any interior point in Oregon to San Francisco the law may be operative or not in the discretion of the railway managers, and that their discretion is legal and unimpeachable. This is an anomaly, but is not so impressive or far-reaching as that which the Commissioners have signalized by suspending the operation of the law for a period of ninety days on the Southern roads. This they have the right to do, undoubtedly. The right to suspend it on a particular road or in a particular case must include the right to suspend it in gross. The operation of the law has been suspended also on the Detroit, Grand Haven and Milwaukee Road for ninety days, and this action, while apparently justifiable, has given rise to much bickering at Chicago and Toledo.

Nearly all the Western papers are printing articles, both editorial and descriptive, concerning the "boom" in real estate. The St. Louis *Globe Democrat* makes it a feature of journalism, publishing in a single number, from twenty-two different points, telegrams and letters giving account of sales of lots, new buildings under construction, and the rapid accumulation of wealth by speculators in real estate. The excitement rages in the small towns as well as the large. Mount Carmel, Ill., Chanute and Paola, Kan., Booneville and Clinton, Mo., Las Vegas, N. M., and a multitude of places that have been seldom heard of a hundred miles from their respective court-houses, are booming in grand chorus, while the uproar at Little Rock, Ark., Wichita, Kan., and Fort Worth, Tex., is really deafening. The scenes in 'Change Alley at the time of the South Sea bubble, or in the Rue Quincampoix when John Law was the virtual sovereign of France, appear to be distributed and reënacted over a space of about 1,000 miles square in the West and South. Take Little Rock, for example. The *Gazette* of that place publishes a daily article on the "Boom," surmounted by thirteen splendid head lines. Without going into the body of the article—everybody being too busy to read the details—it can be learned that prices are firmer each day than they were the day before, that the number of recorded transfers was larger that day than it had ever been before; that A. B. had sold to C. D. for $5,000 what he had paid only $2,500 for a few days ago, and that the profit was made before any papers had passed; that the city authorities have made a contract for paving two miles of streets, and that Jay Gould has sold the Pine Bluff Railroad out of his left-hand pocket into his right-hand pocket, and has in contemplation many other trades of great prospective value to Little Rock.

It will occur to any man of mature years that he has heard this tale before, and perhaps more than once. The great real-estate boom of 1834-5-6, preceding the crash of 1837, will be recalled by a few. The speculations of 1854-5-6, prior to the collapse of 1857, are remembered by a greater number. The great advance in real estate that preceded the crisis of 1873 is too fresh to need more than a brief mention. The present boom is really the first of any magnitude that has affected real estate over a wide area since 1873. It is an observed fact that real estate is, of all kinds of property, the last to feel the impulse of what are called "good times," and also the last to succumb to the pressure of a commercial crisis. Other kinds of property must be bought and sold from day to day, whatever the prices may be. Real estate, being subject to no deterioration by the lapse of time, may be held as long as the owner can pay the taxes and the interest on mortgage if it is thus encumbered. Consequently there may be a business boom and a business reaction not felt by real estate in any way. Such a boom and reaction occurred in the period of 1879–1882, during which the real-estate market all over the country was remarkably quiescent, the only noticeable boom being in the Province of Manitoba. But a business revival cannot be of long duration without affecting land values; and when new land is really wanted for business uses, and when productive industry can afford to pay considerably higher prices for its use, the speculative fever is sure to rise as it appears to have risen now in the West and South. There is nothing to be said of the present "boom" except that some people will make money out of it while the fever continues, and others will lose when the reaction comes.

Mr. Powderly of the Knights of Labor, at a meeting in Philadelphia last Thursday, gave in his adhesion to the proposition of the Declaration of Independence that "all men were created equal and endowed with certain inalienable rights." He says this is correct and "the truth, instead of being a living lie as some men would have the people believe." Now, the Declaration of Independence was undoubtedly intended to cover the case of non-union as well as of union men—that is, of

"scabs" as well as members. It meant that every man was entitled to enjoy life and liberty and pursue happiness in his own way, and not in the way of some other man, or of some assembly. We should like, therefore, to hear from the gentle Powderly what he thinks of the practice of trying to ruin people by boycotting them, and by hunting them out of employment, from shop to shop, to say nothing of hitting them with clubs and bricks, because they do not choose to join unions or become Knights. At the meeting in question he flaunted the American flag a good deal, and said that he and his friends were there as Americans; but we must remind him that the founders of the Government no more intended the flag to float over a pirate ship or a robber's cave than over an organization like the District Assembly 49, devoted largely to the persecution of the poor and helpless.

Gov. Green of New Jersey has learned that eternal vigilance is the price of demagogy as well as of liberty. He distinguished himself in his first message by talking greater nonsense on the Labor question than any other official in the country, save our own Gov. Hill, has ever indulged in. This presumably made him "solid" with the Labor vote. He forgot himself, however, a few days ago, and declined to preside over a meeting which the Irish citizens of Trenton called to protest against the new Coercion Bill in Parliament. When he heard that this refusal had angered the Irish voters, he sent a letter withdrawing it and consenting to preside. The effect of this transparent move to regain lost ground made the Irish voters more indignant than ever, and they threatened to get even with him by voting against the Governor's party in the municipal election. This election occurred on Monday, and the threat was so well carried out that the Republican candidate for Mayor was elected, for the first time in six years. Of course the Democrats put all the blame upon the Governor.

Senator Sherman sent a letter to the dinner of the Philadelphia Young Republicans on Monday which gave promise in its opening paragraph of presenting some progressive ideas, for, after the usual "pointing with pride" to its past, he said that "the work of the Republican party is but fairly begun." The succeeding paragraphs, however, do not justify the expectations aroused. There is the conventional dose of meaningless "taffy" for the workingman, but the only two practical suggestions are that "every measure should be supported that will tend to foster, defend, and protect home industries" (which means the same thing as the plea in his Nashville speech for "the tariff laws as they now exist"), and that "the education of the rising generation, without respect to race, color, or previous condition, ought to be a constant object of desire," which, interpreted by the same Nashville speech, means that the Federal Government shall distribute educational subsidies among the States. This kind of talk may suit "young Republicans" of the Pennsylvania stamp, but in the doubtful States, like New York and Connecticut, nothing could do more to turn independent voters, young or old, against the party next year than its adoption of such a platform.

The *Tribune* of Monday contained a very circumstantial and detailed account of a sad state of things on board the cruiser *Atlanta*, now lying at the Brooklyn Navy yard. It appeared that nearly everything on board which makes her a fighting ship was botched or out of order, and incapable of being set to rights. There was only one grain of truth in the story, and that was that copper rivets had been found not strong enough to fasten the gun-carriages to the deck. The rest was simply old fashioned journalistic lying. We knew of course that the story would appear very soon in that hardened old sinner, the Boston *Journal*, with some additions and improvements, and, sure enough, here it is in Monday's issue of that paper. One of the most comic features in it is the corroboration supplied by "an old officer." This is what the fictitious old scoundrel is made to say:

"It all comes of trying to make line officers do mechanical work, which they know nothing about. They have made a list of this business, and I'll bet a brown-stone front against a yard of calico that if the *Atlanta* is successful in her run up the Sound next week, it will be two months before her guns will be tested."

If he got his due, he would be put in imaginary irons, on imaginary bread and water, and kept there till he put up the imaginary brown-stone front which he bet against the yard of calico. The "old officer," however, is nearly as notorious a liar as the "country clergyman" and "the prominent politician." The minute he opens his journalistic mouth people prepare for "a whopper."

Mr. Vanderbilt's gift of Rosa Bonheur's "Horse Fair" to the Metropolitan Museum, followed so soon by Miss Wolfe's magnificent bequest of the whole of her collection to the same institution, together with a handsome endowment in money, seems, taken in connection with Mr. Tilden's legacy for a library, to indicate that the habit of doing something for the city is at last taking root among the owners of great fortunes. The wealth accumulated in this city since the opening of the canals sixty years ago, by men beginning their business life here, has been something enormous, but, for reasons which we shall not now examine, the city has profited by it but little. Hardly any of it, until very recently, has gone to the local university—Columbia College. We believe this College received its first gift or bequest, and that a small one, within the last ten years. The late Mr. Astor founded a library, which has become a fine one, but it is distinctly a reference or scholars' library. The late Mr. Lenox did the same thing, but his library is still more cloistered than Mr. Astor's. The Metropolitan Museum was started twenty years ago, but in a small way, and has struggled along with difficulty, and is to this hour, considered as the one public art collection of a wealthy metropolis with over a million of popuiation, a melancholy spectacle. The Natural History Museum also owes the most of what it is to private munificence; but what is it to what it ought to be? There has probably never been a fortune made here from which as much was expected, and justly expected, as from that of the late A. T. Stewart. It was literally built up by the plain people of New York, the wives and daughters of men living by wages and salaries. Mr. Stewart, we believe, often expressed his sense of the obligation he was under to this class, and his intention of marking it in some substantial way after his death. But his great fortune has disappeared without leaving, as far as the city is concerned, "a wrack behind." Let us hope that we are now witnessing the dawning of a better day, that the recent splendid examples will be rapidly followed, and that we shall soon be famous for something besides municipal jobbery—for it is a most melancholy fact that New York is better known all over the civilized world for boodle Aldermen and municipal rings than for anything else.

"Consistency" sends us an inquiry which he evidently considers a "corker," namely:

"How is it that the Northern press universally condemned secession, and could hardly find terms strong enough in which to denounce it, now are so generally denouncing the English Government for maintaining the laws of the land in Ireland, and even our Legislature are censuring England for her endeavors to compel obedience to law? Would the United States, the State of New York, submit to anti-rent?"

The reason is, "Consistency," in part that "the laws of the land in Ireland" are considered bad laws, and in part that, whether bad or good, the people who live under them have not only not made them, but have had no part in making them. The thing to do with bad laws is not to enforce, but to repeal or amend them. If Southern laws of the land had been made at the North by Northerners, the Southern rebellion would have had a great deal more sympathy than it had. Moreover, the State of New York did "submit to anti-rent." It tried hard for ten years to get the tenants of the Van Rensselaers and Livingstons to pay their rents, but finally gave it up and left these landlords to settle with their tenants as best they could, which they did by selling their property for whatever the tenants chose to pay. The chances appear to be now that things will run pretty much the same course in Ireland.

Mr. James Bryce, speaking against the Coercion Bill the other day in the House of Commons, remarked that no one who knew nothing of the matter except what he learned from the speeches of the ministers, would suppose for a moment that this was not the first time that a coercion bill had been tried, or that it was actually the eighty-seventh experiment of the kind. Not the slightest allusion was made to the former ones. Another singular feature in the affair is that some of the worst denouncers of coercion in the past, including poor old Mr. Bright, are now backing the Tories up in this latest attempt. Lord Randolph Churchill is among the number, he who only so long ago as February said in a speech:

"I should say that Ireland appears to me at the present moment like a high-spirited and mettlesome horse, which has been extremely badly ridden for some time. There is a certain school of professors of political education—principally represented by the *Times* newspaper—who apparently imagine that the way to ride a horse of that kind is to be continually jobbing it in the mouth, hitting it over the head with the whip, and digging it in the side with the spur; and that school persist in a passionate admiration of this method, although they have seen rider after rider laid on his back in the ditch."

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, April 6, to TUESDAY, April 12, 1887, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE American Fisheries Union of Massachusetts recently informed President Cleveland that in their opinion the retaliatory power given him by Congress against Canada would be sufficiently used, if occasion should arise to use it at all, by confining it to the closing of the United States markets to Canadian fish. In reply to this the President wrote, April 7, taking a broader view: "The retaliation contemplated is to be enforced, not to protect solely any particular interest, however meritorious or valuable, but to maintain the national honor, and thus protect all our people." "This measure once resorted to, its effectiveness and value may well depend upon the thoroughness and extent of its application." "This Government and the people of the United States must act as a unit—all intent upon attaining the best result of retaliation upon the basis of maintenance of national honor and duty." "I shall be unflinchingly guided by a sense of what the self-respect and dignity of the nation demand."

The Toronto *Globe* concludes its comment on the President's letter thus: "This letter, although studiously moderate in tone, intimates plainly what may follow. The position is, to say the least, exceedingly serious."

A Canadian cruiser recently chased a vessel belonging to the United States fishermen out of the three-mile limit, and fired a blank shot at her, off Beaver Harbor.

The President has appointed Benton J. Hall of Iowa to be Commissioner of Patents, vice M. V. Montgomery, resigned; Marshall Park of Norfolk, Va., to be Supervising Inspector of Steam Vessels for the Third District; Eugene Semple of Washington Territory to be Governor of the Territory, and S. O. Shannon of Cheyenne to be Secretary of Wyoming Territory; and Robert E. Pattison of Pennsylvania, E. Ellery Anderson of New York, and David L. Littler of Illinois to be Commissioners to investigate the affairs of the Pacific railroads which have received land grants from the Government, as provided by an act of the last Congress.

The Inter-State Commerce Commission on April 6 issued an order, on application of the Southern Railway and Steamship Association, suspending the enforcement on these roads of the long and short-haul clause of the law for ninety days, subject to modification or revocation. The Commission will sit at Atlanta, Ga., on April 26, at Mobile April 29, at New Orleans on May 2, and at Memphis on May 4, for the consideration of the competition between the water and rail routes. The same period of suspension of the above clause of the law has been allowed to certain roads in the Northwest.

Judge Deady, in the United States Circuit Court of Oregon, rendered an important decision April 9, bearing on the Inter-State Commerce Law. After explaining that the act "does not include or apply to all carriers engaged in inter-State commerce, but only such as use a railway or a railway and water craft under common control or management for a continuous carriage or shipment of property from one State to another," he held that it does not "apply to the carriage of property by rail wholly within the State, although shipped from or destined to a place without the State, so that such place is not in a foreign country." The case concerned the transportation of goods by the Oregon and California Railroad (which lies wholly within Oregon) destined for San Francisco. Besides this decision, which touches the main principle of the new law, there have been two threats made of litigation of a nature that was hardly anticipated. On April 8 a colored man who had bought a first-class ticket was ejected from a first-class car, and subsequently from the train on the Western and Atlanta Railroad, which extends from Chattanooga, Tenn., to Atlanta, Ga. It is reported that suit will be brought for damages under the anti-discrimination provision of the law. The managers of the Chicago and Alton Railroad have threatened to sue the Pennsylvania Railroad Company because the agent of the latter at Logansport, Ind., in a quarrel that has been maintained between Eastern and Western roads about the allowance of commissions on the sale of through-tickets, refused to sell through-tickets over the Chicago and Alton Road, but sold them over a competing line.

In Rhode Island, Democratic State officers and a Democratic majority in the Legislature have been elected. The election law in that State requires that unless a candidate receive a majority over all competitors at the polls, the election shall be decided by the Legislature. All the Democratic candidates for State offices received a plurality, but the candidates for Lieutenant Governor and Secretary of State did not receive a majority. The result is as follows: John W. Davis, Governor, 973 majority; Z. O. Slocum, Attorney-General, 2,518 majority; J. G. Perry, General Treasurer, 2,609 majority; Samuel R. Honey, Lieutenant-Governor, and E. D. McGuiness, Secretary of State, who received pluralities, will be elected by the Legislature. The Senate contains 19 Republicans and 15 Democrats, and the House 28 Republicans and 41 Democrats. The majority against a woman-suffrage amendment to the Constitution was 15,123.

The Prohibitionists in Michigan have made charges of fraud at the recent election on the prohibitory amendment. In some of the precincts in Detroit a suspiciously small prohibition vote was returned, and in the new county of Gogebic 2,200 majority against the amendment was returned, although only 1,500 votes in all were cast at the last preceding election in Ontonagon County, out of a part of which Gogebic County has since been formed. It is asserted that men were imported from Wisconsin who voted against the amendment.

Senator Reagan of Texas has declared for prohibition, in opposition to all the other prominent Democrats in Texas, where there is now an exciting campaign, preparatory to the forthcoming submission of a prohibitory amendment to the popular vote.

Gov. Hill of New York on April 12 vetoed the High-License Bill, which fixed the fee to sell spirituous liquors at $1,000 and wine and beer at $100 in this city and Brooklyn. On the same day the Pennsylvania House of Representatives passed a High-License Bill which provides that the license in cities of the first, second, and third class shall be $500, in all other cities $300, in boroughs $150, and in townships $75.

The death penalty has never been prescribed by the law of Michigan. For a time murderers were condemned to solitary confinement, which made most of them hopelessly demented. Subsequently they were imprisoned, but not in solitude. The conclusion seems now to have been reached that these methods have failed, for the lower house of the Legislature, on April 9, passed a bill prescribing capital punishment, by three votes more than the requisite majority.

At a general conference of the Mormon Church at Provo, Utah, April 8, an epistle was read from President Taylor and his advisers, Cannon and Smith, in which Congress, for its legislation against polygamy, is thus spoken of: "In the haste and zeal of madness to destroy Mormonism, all settled principles of jurisprudence are disregarded and evil precedents are established. There is danger that the precedent now being made will in the not distant future be inconceivably fruitful of evil to the people of this republic." The epistle is chiefly remarkable for its silence on the subject of polygamy, to which no allusion whatever was made.

Simultaneously at Kirkland, O., in the temple built by Joseph Smith before the Mormons went to Utah, a conference of non-polygamous Mormons, known as Josephites, was held. They are said to number 20,000. Joseph Smith, a son of the first leader of the sect, made an address wherein he severely condemned polygamy.

The Cherokee Female Seminary near Talequah, I. T., was burned on April 10, and the loss was $250,000. The seminary was intended to accommodate 200 girls.

The old Slave Market, the ancient Cathedral, the Edwards Hotel, the Court-house, and the St. Augustine Hotel at St. Augustine, Fla., were burned April 12. The Cathedral was built in 1793, and was in use for purposes of worship up to the time of its destruction.

A prairie fire from two and a half to seven miles wide swept through Graham and Norton Counties, Kansas, on April 10 and the following days, which burned many cattle and horses and as many as fifteen people. On April 9 a prairie fire threatened to burn the town of Watertown, Dak. The wind was so strong that it blew freight cars from a station at great speed along the track. Another prairie fire two days later near Sioux Falls burned property to the value, it is estimated, of $100,000.

Two distinct shocks of earthquake were felt at Burlington, Vt., April 10. The last was so heavy that many people supposed a great explosion had occurred near by. Doors and windows rattled, and the tops of buildings swayed.

A large proportion of the conductors and brakemen of the Panhandle Railroad, who run between Pittsburgh and Columbus, were arrested April 11 for a series of thefts of goods from the cars. For three years they had stolen merchandise of many sorts, to the value of not less than $500,000. It was a large conspiracy, and places for the disposition of stolen goods had been established in Pittsburgh.

During the first quarter of 1887 1,040 miles of new main railway track were laid on forty-nine different lines in twenty-five of the States and Territories. This is a larger total than has been recorded for any previous year up to the same date, except 1882, when the construction for the entire year reached 11,568 miles.

Mr. S. B. Chittenden of Brooklyn has given Yale College $100,000 for the erection of a new library. The building will be begun at once on a site between the art school and the present library. Mr. George I. Seney of this city has presented a small but valuable collection of pictures to the Metropolitan Museum of Art. The Museum, by the will of the late Miss Catherine L. Wolfe, has received the munificent gift of her whole collection, which is one of the best and largest in this city. Besides this, "in order to provide for the better preservation of said paintings and drawings and the future increase of said collection," the will runs, "I give and bequeath to the executors the sum of $200,000 upon trust."

John Wanamaker, the Philadelphia merchant, will introduce the coöperative system into his business by making division of his profits among his employees in addition to their salaries. He estimates that the sum so divided will amount to $100,000 a year.

The three men recently convicted of boycotting the *Courier and Journal* Publishing Company at New Haven were each fined $50 and costs April 12.

A number of eminent physicians in this city have volunteered their professional services for a proposed hospital for the treatment of diphtheria. There is now no such hospital in the city, and the cases of the disease have increased 60 per cent. within two years.

The verdict in the Andover Theological Seminary trials for heresy has been deferred because time is needed for printing the proceedings, which will fill a large volume.

Mr. Edward Burgess is designing an eighty-six feet sloop yacht for Gen. C. J. Paine, owner

of the *Mayflower*, for the purpose of defending the *America's* cup in the race next fall against the Scotch cutter *Thistle*.

The will of the late Francis Palms of Detroit has been declared invalid, wherein he directed that his fortune of $7,000,000 be kept in trust by his children for their children until the last that may be born to them shall have come of age. "If this will were to be sustained and enforced," said the lower State Court, "a vast estate would be tied up and made inalienable for two lives and an indefinite number of minorities, and the absolute power of alienation would be suspended, and this is precisely what the statute has been so careful to forbid"; or, in popular phrase, the law forbids the controlling of fortunes from the grave from generation to generation.

A bronze equestrian statue of Gen. Albert Sidney Johnston of the army of the Confederate States was unveiled at New Orleans on April 6, which was the twenty-fifth anniversary of the battle of Shiloh, where he fell. An address was delivered by Jefferson Davis.

The young woman was buried at Rahway, N. J., April 10, who fifteen days previously had been found murdered. The facts that she was not identified and that her murderer has not been apprehended, make the case one of the most mysterious in this time of wide and quick publicity of all crimes and of good detective work.

Col. D. Wyatt Aiken, for a long period Representative in Congress from the Third District of South Carolina, died April 6. Commodore Charles Green, United States Navy, retired, died in Providence April 7, in his seventy fourth year. He entered the naval service in 1826, and served continuously until he was retired in 1867. During the civil war, while commanding the *Jamestown* on blockade duty, he captured six prizes and destroyed the bark *Alvarado* under the guns at the fort at Fernandina. John T. Raymond, the well-known comedian, whose *Colonel Sellers* was a classical performance, died of heart disease at Evansville, Ind., April 10. He was born at Buffalo April 5, 1836. Other Americans of note who have died within a week were Samuel Simpson, an uncle of Gen. Grant, for whom he was named; Judge William Strong of Oregon, who was appointed to the Territorial bench by President Fillmore; Gen. James J. Pratt, a politician and prominent citizen of Connecticut; and Eben S. Stearns, President of the Tennessee Normal College and Chancellor of the University of the South.

Lieut. C. V. Morris, a retired officer of the United States Navy, and a grandson of Robert Morris, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, died at Sackett's Harbor, April 11, aged eighty-five years. He entered the navy in 1825, and was in active service during the late war.

Bishop Alfred Lee of the Protestant Episcopal Church of Delaware died at Wilmington April 12, aged eighty years. He was consecrated Bishop of Delaware in 1841, and was the senior bishop of his church in the United States.

FOREIGN.

By way of preparation for the great Easter Monday Hyde Park meeting to protest against coercion, Mr. Gladstone on April 9 wrote a letter to the miners in the north of Great Britain in which he insisted on a large attendance, and said: "In my opinion the rejection of the bill is even more needed by England than by Ireland. For Ireland it is a question of suffering, and she knows how to suffer. For England it is a question of shame and dishonor, and to cast away shame and dishonor is the first business of a great nation."

The crowd which attended the Hyde Park meeting April 11 was estimated to number 150,000 persons. It required an hour and a half for the procession to file into the Park. There were fourteen platforms, from which speeches were made simultaneously. Among the speakers were Lord Mayor Sullivan of Dublin, Messrs. Conybeare and Redmond, members of Parliament, and Michael Davitt. "Don't let the English people believe," said Mr. Sullivan, "those who say the Irish are mortal, implacable enemies of England. That is a falsehood worthy of the bottomless pit. Let there be an end of oppression and injustice and there will be an end of hatred." At the sound of a bugle a resolution condemning the Crimes Bill was put simultaneously at all the platforms, and was carried amid a prolonged roar of cheers. Mrs. Gladstone looked on the procession from a window and was loudly cheered. The *Daily News* (Liberal) said of the meeting: "The demonstration shows that the bulk of the working population of London have returned to hearty coöperation with the Liberal party, determined to do justice to Ireland. That is the sufficient and ennobling reason for which they gave up their holiday. They refused to take their ease while iniquitous oppression was being done in their name."

Col. King-Harman, Conservative member of Parliament from the Isle of Thanet division of Kent, has been appointed Under Parliamentary Secretary for Ireland—a new office.

Limerick and other Irish ports have been proclaimed under the Peace Preservation Act, prohibiting the importation of arms and ammunition. At Dunmanway, County Cork, a farmer and his wife resisted eviction for eight hours on April 9, hurling stones and other missiles at the police. The attempt to evict them was finally abandoned. A conflict occurred the next day at Belfast between a mob and a body of police, and during the fight one man was wounded.

In consequence of England's treatment of Ireland and the attitude of the Irish clergy on the Irish question, the Pope has charged Cardinal Simeoni, Prefect of the Congregation of the Propaganda, to make a thorough inquiry into the whole matter and to draft instructions for the Irish bishops.

Official notice has been given at Ottawa that during the presence of Lord Lansdowne in the Senate Chamber, at the opening of Parliament on April 14, the galleries of the Senate will be closed. It is thought that he has received threatening letters because of the trouble with the tenants on his Irish estates.

The great permanent infantry barracks at Aldershot, England, were burned April 6.

While the Czar was driving to the Gatchina station in St. Petersburg on April 6, a man and a woman were arrested on the route who carried bombs under a shawl. Another person who tried to present a petition was arrested on suspicion of being an accomplice of these two; and although no actual attempt was made to kill the Czar, the reports received at all the European capitals leave little doubt about the intention of the arrested persons. On the same day the Czar found letters on his writing-table in the Winter Palace threatening him with death.

The Czarina has so suffered from nervous depression since the attempts to kill the Czar that her health is seriously affected.

Lieut. Goreff of the Russian Army has been sentenced to eight years' hard labor in the mines of Siberia for encouraging a revolutionary movement. The Chief of Police at Odessa has organized a body of 400 volunteer detectives to watch suspects.

Four hundred and eighty officers of the Russian Army, it was reported from Odessa April 11, had arrived there to be transported to a convict colony. They are charged with being implicated in the plots against the Czar. They are not Nihilists, but are merely suspected of being in sympathy with the revolutionary party.

It has been announced that the Czar will confer on M. de Giers, the Russian Minister of War, the decoration of the Order of St. Vladimir, with a flattering imperial rescript.

The German police have confiscated many of the books and journals of the Social Democrats, and arrested many persons in Hamburg, Stettin, Königsberg, Mannheim, and other places.

Evidence accumulates of the rigor of the German rule of the provinces of Alsace and Lorraine. The *Journal de Genève*, which is noted for its impartial treatment of international questions, says that honorable citizens are arrested without apparent cause, dragged through the streets like thieves, and imprisoned during the pleasure of their rulers. The bare fact of having worn or purchased articles of dress whose colors recall the French flag, or of subscribing to a disaffected paper, is considered a crime. The expulsion of Delegate Antoine from Alsace-Lorraine, the tearing up of the imperial flag by Alsatian recruits, and the imprisonment of French sympathizers have caused strong feeling.

An explosion in a nitro-glycerine factory at Freiberg, Saxony, on April 9 killed and injured thirteen persons.

Dr. Windthorst, the German Catholic leader, has informed the Pope that the Centre party will accept the Prussian Ecclesiastical Bill as a filial duty to the head of the Church.

Dr. Lenz, the African traveller, was welcomed on his return to Vienna, April 10. He reported that he was prevented from relieving Emin Bey by the insufficiency of the means at his disposal.

Jean Henri Dupin, the French dramatic author, died April 7, in his ninety-sixth year. While a clerk in a Paris bank he wrote "Le Voyage à Chambord," which proved a success, and thereafter he devoted himself to play-writing. The number of his plays is almost 200. Lieut.-Col. Sir William Owen Lanyon of the British Army died April 6, in this city, of cancer. He served with credit as a staff officer through the Zulu war and both the Sudan campaigns. For the last two years he had been travelling for his health.

The seventieth anniversary of King William of Holland's birthday, which fell on February 19 and was then observed as a holiday by the people of the Hague, was celebrated at Amsterdam on April 12 by general festivity, which was begun by the monarch entering the town in state. The city was gayly decorated and the streets spanned by splendid floral arches.

An expedition sent out by the American Consul at Tangier to break up the infamous usury system in Morocco, has caused the release of all the Moors imprisoned at Alcazar and Larache under American claims, except three who had died. The prisons in which the men were confined were very foul, and the inmates were half starved, ragged, and covered with vermin. Some of them had heavy chains fastened to their necks and legs. A notorious usurer named Tergiman, on whose claims a majority of the people were held in prison, has been arrested and carried to Tangier in irons for trial for falsely claiming to be an American protégé.

Excitement has been caused at Port-au-Prince because of a threat by the British Government to take Tortugas Island for the payment of an old claim by British subjects to the amount of $1,000,000. Fear has been entertained that if the demand were insisted on, the turbulent element in Hayti would take revenge by killing the foreign residents. The French Government has offered to mediate between Great Britain and Hayti, and has ordered a man-of-war to protect foreign residents.

A circular from the Canadian Cardinal Taschereau was read in all the Catholic churches under his jurisdiction April 10, wherein it was announced that the order from Rome forbidding Catholics in Canada to join the Knights of Labor was suspended.

Uneasiness is reported from Rio Janeiro about the health of Dom Pedro.

WOMAN SUFFRAGE IN OPERATION.

FOR some years, women have exercised the right of suffrage in three of the Territories, but the subjection of the Mormon women to the priesthood has rendered the Utah experiment (now ended by the Anti-Mormon Bill passed by the last Congress) utterly valueless for instruction; while the population of Wyoming has been too small to afford any basis for generalization, and the experience of Washington Territory, recently interrupted by a judicial decision that the law of 1883 giving women the ballot is void, through some technical error, has been too brief to warrant conclusions of value to the country at large.

The Kansas Legislature a few weeks ago passed an act giving women the right to vote in municipal elections, and they exercised the right for the first time in the spring elections of last week. As Kansas is a State which has attained an age of more than a quarter of a century, and has a population as large as that of New Jersey, this trial of female suffrage is the most important and significant yet made in the country. The results must command the attention of all thoughtful people, whatever their predilections regarding this issue may be, and we summarize them as compactly as possible.

It must be explained that the word city in Kansas conveys a different meaning from the one to which Eastern people are accustomed, since a few hundred inhabitants there constitute a population large enough for the forms of a municipal government. One must, therefore, not be surprised to hear of exciting contests over Mayor and Aldermen in what hereabouts would be called villages. We first give in the briefest possible form reports from a number of smaller cities, reserving for more detailed description the larger places. We perforce use the figures of the last national census:

Blue Rapids (population 1,299).—Total vote, 357; women, 133. "A pronounced Prohibitionist elected Mayor."

Larned (1,842).—A very exciting contest, resulting in a majority of 48 for Wilson, the temperance candidate for Mayor, nearly all the women voting for him.

Chanute (1,851).—"One hundred and seventy-eight women voted, the majority of them voting a ticket headed 'Temperance Ticket.'"

Columbus (1,993).—Women registered, 189 (about one-half of the whole number); voting, 172. "R. M. Cheshire elected Mayor by 100 majority; no political issue attached to this vote. The votes of the women were divided as to the various candidates."

Hutchinson (2,116).—"Two hundred women voted, and much bad feeling was engendered by their dividing their support and espousing different factions. The ladies' candidate was defeated by 24 majority. The ladies' vote was about evenly divided, both factions of them canvassing the city in buggies."

Garnett (2,144).—"There was a spirited contest, but the Citizens' Temperance ticket, which received the unanimous support of the ladies, was elected by a large majority. Ladies canvassed from house to house and employed carriages to convey their friends to the polls. Two ladies assisted as judge and clerk of election."

Osage Mission (2,266).—Election warmly contested; fifty-nine women voted, all but two after noon. "The sudden rush was occasioned by the fear that the Labor ticket would be elected. Their exertions, however, were without avail, as the Labor candidate for Mayor was elected by 41 plurality."

McPherson (3,267).—"The city election was nonpartisan. The women cast about 200 votes. Over one-fourth of the entire number voting divided among various candidates. They ran a separate ticket, but it did not receive their full vote. The bonds for water-works and high school carried by heavy majorities, the women all voting in their favor. Female suffrage is generally regarded with favor here."

Valley Falls (2,722).—"A prominent third-party Prohibitionist was elected Mayor by votes of women."

Parsons (4,199).—"Dr. G. W. Gabriel was elected Mayor by about 550 majority. Owing to the fact that A. O. Brown was the candidate of the Women's Christian Temperance Union, this is considered a 'crushing blow' to the temperance element. One most deplorable feature of their electioneering to-day was the assailing of Mrs. Gabriel's character by some of the members of the W. C. T. U., when the fact of the matter is, beyond question, that Mrs. Gabriel is one of the most high-minded, respectable, and respected ladies in the city of Parsons, and any insinuations to the contrary are vile slanders."

Emporia (4,631).—"The election was attended with considerable excitement, which was for the greater part caused by the activity of the W. C. T. U. in behalf of their candidate for Mayor, Dr. J. J. Wright, as against N. E. Weaver, the candidate of the Citizens' ticket. Their efforts were not crowned with the most gratifying success, as out of the 542 women who registered, only 398 voted, and of these over one-fourth voted against the candidate of the W. C. T. U. Weaver was elected by a large majority."

Wichita (4,911).—"Two hundred women voted; about half of them were 'sporting' women. Three times that number registered."

Lawrence (8,510).—"The women were out in full force, voting almost their full registration. The colored women's vote of 400 was solid for the Republican ticket, thus deciding the contest. Barker (Rep.) is elected over Whitcomb (Fusionist), by 350 votes. The white women were divided on tickets."

Here are enough of small "cities," only one of them having more than 5,000 people, and half of them less than 2,500. There remain in Kansas three places which might be dignified as cities of the lowest class in the East—Atchison (15,105), Topeka (15,452), and Leavenworth (16,546). At Atchison 336 women registered, one-half colored, and about 280 voted, of whom 200 supported the Democratic candidate for Mayor. "In the Third Ward a colored preacher named Smothers ran for Councilman and drew off colored voters, generally women, enough to defeat the Republican candidate."

In Topeka, the capital of the State, the total registration was 5,494, of whom 1,406 were women, and about 1,200 of them voted. About three-fourths of them supported the Republican candidate for Mayor, and, as he was elected by only a few hundred majority, Democrats concede that the result was decided by the female vote. Some features of the election are thus described:

"The ladies who voted were in general . . . representatives of loyal Kansas womanhood. It had been predicted by the opponents of municipal suffrage that the vote of the degraded and ignorant class of women would overbalance the vote of the respectable ladies; but to-day's election in Topeka proved this not to be true, and a very large majority of the votes cast were by some of the most refined and cultured ladies of the city, and all appeared to vote intelligently and without hesitation. The great portion of the female vote was cast immediately after dinner. . . . The most of the ladies went to the polls with their ballots already prepared, and very often their ballots were scratched."

Leavenworth has more of the characteristics of a large city than any other place in the State, and the canvass there is consequently of unusual interest. There were two tickets—the People's, headed by S. F. Neely, the present Mayor; and the Fusion (Republican and Prohibitionist), headed by Thomas A. Garrigues. Mrs. Helen M. Gougar, an Indiana woman, whose reputation in her old home has, justly or unjustly, been assailed, took command of the female voters. "Particular attention was paid by her to the colored people and the Knights of Labor, and with these elements she was most successful. It is a fact that every nine out of ten colored women voted for Garrigues. They were as much under her leadership and voted her dictation as if they were a body of soldiers." As the campaign waxed warm, Mrs. Gougar grew rather reckless in her language, and made a remark which is said by a reporter to have been that "the best society of the town was frightfully licentious because of the proximity of a military garrison," but which is said by herself to have been that "the upper stratum of society was somewhat licentious." Whatever the exact language, it was enough to arouse the utmost indignation of "the upper stratum," and many women of the leading families resolved to defeat at any cost the candidate whom Mrs. Gougar supported, some of them being still further stirred up by anonymous circulars attacking their personal reputation, which were scattered broadcast over the city. The scenes at the polls are thus described:

"Women, white and black, indiscriminately, stood in front of the precincts and fervently solicited electors to vote the ticket that each one was championing. The ladies were not only enthusiastic for their respective candidates, but they engaged in controversy with each other on the sidewalks. They went into hacks to bring their female friends to the voting places, placed tickets in the hands of their friends, and actually had altercations, which, on other occasions, would, so far as it affects women, be regarded as disreputable. Ladies occupied carriages of all kinds, and ordered them driven hither and thither to pick up all classes of women, irrespective of color or social standing, to cast their ballots for their particular candidates. Their turnouts were decorated with banners and flags indicating their special choice for Mayor, and the polite lady's washerwoman and her hired girl had to vote as the polite lady requested, or a war of words followed."

"The upper stratum" won, Neely being elected by the narrow margin of only forty-six majority; but this is only the first round in the contest, "and from this political fight," it is predicted, "has sprung up a social warfare that will be carried on for years to come."

Reviewing the field, it appears a fair conclusion that in small villages woman suffrage makes no perceptible difference in the result. As the size of the town increases, positive effects begin to manifest themselves from the organization of women—"organized women" sometimes deciding the election, but, as a rule, no more wisely, it would seem, than "organized" voters of any other class. The spectacle of negro women who cannot read their ballots voting at the dictation of a woman politician, is certainly not full of promise. But the most striking and serious feature of the experiment is the precipitation of sexual controversies into municipal elections. This is seen in Parsons, with only about 4,000 people, and reached its culmination in Leavenworth, the chief city of the State.

The government of cities is the great problem of the day. The chief value of the Kansas testimony is for its bearing upon this problem. It must be a hopeful person who can find in these reports arguments in favor of introducing woman suffrage in a State like New York, where one half of the population live in cities larger than Leavenworth.

"GREAT SPEECHES."

ONE of the most striking illustrations of the absence of really exciting questions in the political arena is the decline among us of serious oratory, and the disappearance of "the great speech" from the political literature of the day. It may be safely said that, from the foundation of the Government down to the close of the war, the country never was without one or two orators, and sometimes there were half-a-dozen, who in the course of the year made one or two speeches, on some stirring topic, which were reported and circulated, and eagerly read as "great speeches." No discussion used to be complete until Webster, or Clay, or Calhoun, or Seward, or Sumner, or Trumbull, or Fessenden, or half-a-score of others, had said their say in a long and more or less elaborate oration which the newspapers reported in full, which was read at every fireside in the country, which played a very important part in shaping public opinion, and which supplied quotations and catchwords to the newspapers and minor orators for months afterwards. Moreover, tens of thousands of voters all over the country used to refrain from making up their minds until their favorite orator had been heard from, and the orator himself knew what was expected of him. His failure to produce "the great speech" would have been considered a neglect of the duties of his position, which nothing but ill-health could excuse. His friends in the press, too, prepared for it long in advance by announcing that he was at work on it, and predicting that when it came off it would probably be "the greatest effort of his life," which it generally was. The occasion which imposed the production of the "great speech" on the man in public life also furnished a lecture to the literary man, and the lecture differed from the speech mainly in being rather more elaborate, and in being capable of indefinite repetition. The political orator could not give the speech more than once, but the lecturer carried his all over the country, and the oftener he was asked to reproduce it the more successful it was considered to be.

All this may be said, for a good many years past, to be completely at an end. We have hardly a speaker left in public life whose utterances are looked for with anything but languid curiosity, or are searched for anything but dexterous "bids" for a nomination, or are quoted or discussed, except by opponents as examples of inconsistency or evasion. In fact, it is hardly too sweeping to say that Col. "Bob" Ingersoll is almost the sole representative of the old school of orators and lecturers—that is, the only speaker who draws large houses to hear him on serious topics. Whatever one may think of the topics or of his way of treating them, it must be acknowledged that it would be hard to say to what better place than one of his lectures one could take an inquiring foreigner, who wished to see a specimen of the American platform in the old days before and during the war.

On the other hand, the public dinner has received an enormous development, as a means of letting the public hear from anybody about whom it is supposed to have any curiosity, or who is supposed to have something on his mind which it would like to hear. Its use as "an occasion" has increased wonderfully during the past twenty years. The English used to be the foremost nation in the world in turning it to account, but we have far surpassed them in the frequency with which we resort to it. The French use it now and then, but are more frequently content with the offer of "un punch," which sufficiently furnishes the "to-asts" that draw out the orator. The growth of wealth, the improvement in hotels and restaurants, and the reluctance of busy men to quit their homes in the evening except to dine, have doubtless all contributed to this tendency to substitute the dining-table for the rostrum. But the effect on all our oratory, political as well as other, has been very marked. Nothing can ever prevent a dinner's seeming to the guests a social occasion, or even make them willing, after dinner, to respond to any heavy demands on their powers of reflection or attention. Every man after a good dinner, and still more after a bad one, in his secret heart expects to be amused, or at all events entertained in some light way. He will not follow a train of reasoning, or respond readily to a call for high resolves or noble aspirations. Gentle ridicule pleases him over his cigar and coffee far more than the most lucid exposition or triumphant logical refutation.

This use of the dining-room, too, as an occasion for public speaking has produced in England and America a distinct type of oratory unknown either to the ancients or to the nations of Continental Europe—but known to everybody here as the "after-dinner speech." Now the essentials of an after-dinner speech are that it should be humorous or lively; that it should touch every topic lightly, and should make no heavy or prolonged draughts on any one's sober-mindedness; that it should not be an attempt to edify or instruct. In fact, the more it makes people laugh, the more successful it is. It is accordingly to-day the style of oratory most cultivated among us. Nothing to day gives a man more of a certain kind of fame and popularity than excellence in it. Indeed, we may say that through no channel can a man acquire so much influence with so little expenditure of labor or money. Our young men are to-day really more anxious to acquire it than any other style of oratory. There is far more demand for it than for any other. A man's chances of being called on to speak at a dinner are twenty times greater than his chances of being called on to speak on any other occasion. The style acquired for success in after-dinner oratory is accordingly carried into all oratory. At public meetings, nowadays, every speaker tries to be jocose as his first duty. He opens his speech with a joke more or less elaborate, and a vein of humor is apt to run all through it, the seriousness only appearing at rare intervals. One of the most striking of recent illustrations of this was the meeting called to support the High-License Bill in this city some weeks ago, at which some of our best local speakers appeared. The promoters of the meeting were terribly in earnest, and nothing could well be graver than the subject, which was neither more nor less than the merits of a particular way of attacking an immense mass of vice, crime, and poverty. Nevertheless, every speech began with a joke, and was studded with jokes, and some of the jokes which elicited most laughter were about drunkenness. In fact, it would have been hard for a liquor-dealer to leave the hall without feeling that he was the great mirth-producer of American society, and that even the temperance people recognized the traditional joy-giving quality of good liquor.

The same cause which has introduced so much jocosity into our oratory has also given great prominence to the anecdote or "good story." Formerly, it used to come in occasionally as an illustration, but now many a speech is often a mere string of anecdotes. This is a fresh proof of the scarcity of serious subjects in the political arena. It may be taken as a general rule of conversation that the fewer subjects a man can talk about, the more stories he tells. In primitive states of society and in remote communities social intercourse consists almost entirely in the interchange of very long stories, told in a dramatic manner, with mimicry. In many parts of the Southwestern and Southern States to-day, these stories take the place of conversation at social gatherings almost completely, and the best raconteur literally "rules the roast." As population becomes more dense, and acquaintance with men and books increases, and topics multiply, the stories are shortened up into anecdotes, and any attempt to draw them out is viewed with disfavor, and finally punished as a bore. In the modern society of great capitals, stories are now only permitted in the shortest, crispest, and most epigrammatic form. The "point" has to be produced almost immediately, before any one has had time to foresee it or to lose patience in waiting for it. A man who contributes nothing but stories to the talk of clever men and women is suspected, and often justly, of having nothing else to contribute. It is, perhaps, partly in consequence of this social ostracism that the story is taking refuge so largely in public speeches. But it is undoubtedly due in a still larger degree to the absence of topics fitted to draw the old thunder from the oratorical sky. If we said, also, that the increased scrappiness and gossipiness of the newspaper press were making serious moods more difficult for the general public, we should probably cause journalistic irritation, which we should be the first to deplore.

AFTER THE IRONSIDES ON A TRICYCLE.

—I.

I HAD been working in London many weeks in the great heap of seventeenth-century documents at the British Museum, and among the old manuscripts in the Public Record Office at Fetter Lane. I had been tracking the career of that noble boy-Governor of colonial Massachusetts, young Harry Vane, who, returning home, strove through the Civil War, until he laid his head upon the block at last, that government of the people, by the people, and for the people might not perish from the earth. As I had followed the Ironsides in the musty papers, I had grown tired of the dust and mildew. On the occasion of a heavy sneeze in the Search-room of the Record Office—a premonition, perhaps, of asthma (I am a convert to the old belief that a sneeze opens a passage for

outer spirits, good and evil, to enter a man)—the thought suddenly shaped itself within me, "Why should I not go after the Ironsides on a tricycle?" I acted upon the idea at once.

King Charles I. set up his standard in Nottingham, August 23, 1642, beginning the Civil War. The Earl of Essex, going the seventy miles from London to Northampton, there took command of the 20,000 Parliamentary levies, and marched after him. On the 24th August afterwards I followed on the track of Essex to Northampton, to-day a most prosaic shoe-town, sending to Parliament Bradlaugh. I bowled over the hills of the midland counties, now an easy bit of pedalling along a far-extending level, now a dismount and a push up a height, now a breathless rush from the upland into the vale, with the feet braced and hand hard on the brake.

It was lovely weather and a lovely land. I followed the Avon as it flowed winding from its source in a series of pretty transformations. It ran first, a little thread, from its high-lying spring. It looped off through the landscape out of sight, to appear again, close by Lutterworth, Wickliffe's old parish, as a gay ribbon—the scarlet poppies, the daisies, the purple ragged-robins, the blue larkspurs throwing in their reflections from the margin until the silvery band was edged with brilliant color. At length, as I lay on the churchyard grass behind the church of Stratford—for those few evening moments nearer to Shakspere's dust than any other mortal—the river had become a Roman scarf, banded and shot through with the tints of the sunset.

Southward from Stratford at length, I saw rising before me the high outlying spur of the Cotswolds, Edgehill, reaching the breezy summit of which, I had at my feet the fairest prospect of the English Midlands. Blue to the west was the Great Malvern, by Worcester; nearer at hand, the wolds of Gloucestershire; Oxfordshire was close by; and the fine rolling country of Northamptonshire, Leicestershire, and Warwickshire, out of which I had just come, lay east and north—all spread, that August noon, in perfect summer beauty, under bright sunshine, the verdure brilliant from lately fallen rain, bits of forest dark on vivid grass, the gray of church-towers, the yellow of freshly-built wheat-stacks, a patch of deep red now and then where the soil lay bare. The stretch of plain just below me claimed my especial notice, dignified as it had been by a great event: there it was that Essex, advancing from Warwick, and Charles, descending the steep slope of Edgehill from the brow on which I stood, clashed together.

It was a drawn action, and, with a glance at an interesting figure who played a part there, I must pass on to a greater and more decisive field. In Warwick Castle, the day before I was at Edgehill, I saw one of the most attractive of the portraits of Vandyke—a handsome youth, scarcely more than twenty, in a corselet over a coat of buff leather, beautiful brown hair falling over the broad linen collar, the cheek smooth, the eyes bright with manly, martial energy. It is Prince Rupert, close upon the time when he was to become famous. I had known well in Heidelberg Castle, the nook where he was born, a hawk's nest high above the Neckar; and the hawk is no inapt symbol of this man, whose life was involved in the wildest storms, whose glance was like lightning, whose swoop towards his prey was resistless, whose heart was rapacious and merciless. In all the thousand figures that become prominent in this time of struggle, there is none so picturesque as this young prince, so haughty and cruel, so swift and beautiful. If to his courage and persistence could have been united good judgment, he might have been one of the greatest of soldiers. In the landscape of his time his fame is as the flash of a sword-blade, the waving of a brilliantly dyed scarf; it catches the eye for a moment, but is utterly unsubstantial.

For the Parliament, things went from bad to worse. Whoever studies the story—it has never been given so thoroughly and accurately as by Samuel Rawson Gardiner in his great history of this time, just published—must feel that the saving of the cause of freedom at this juncture was due especially to that most American of Englishmen, young Sir Henry Vane. With Pym and Hampden both dead, he succeeded to their leadership. He was not a soldier, but fought in the midst of dangers and hardships scarcely less upon the floor of Parliament. To him it was mainly due that Parliament did not supinely succumb to the King, leaving the grievances unredressed, that stern discipline brought harmony out of insubordination and divided counsels, that an alliance with Scotland was at last made which brought 20,000 hardy soldiers to the support of the failing cause.

I reached York at the end of a summer afternoon, passing in under the ancient wall which girds the town, still substantially as it was left by the engineers of Charles. It is of gray stone, buttressed and battlemented; the ancient gates, intact, bear the same escutcheons and inscriptions as when they barred out the Parliament. I did not linger, but was soon following the old Marston road, along which, July 2, 1644, the Parliamentary army withdrew from the siege of York, with Rupert in their rear. Westward, within a mile or so, I soon saw a heavy growth of forest, between which and the road lay a broad marshy plain, broken by hedges. The plain also extended southward, ending at the distance of half a league in a long low ridge—grass land it was, while on the ridge the harvests just reaped were stacked high. These were all noteworthy localities. The forest was Wilstrup Wood, of which there will be presently mention; the ridge was the ground upon which the men of the Parliament turned at bay; the marshy plain was Marston Moor—the entire landscape little changed since the battle-day, except that what was then open moor land is now an enclosed and cultivated tract. In Long Marston, a straggling village of thatched cottages along a winding street, I found an old farmer, of a stock which, father and son, had been upon the spot since the battle day. Between six and seven o'clock, the sun still bright, the very hour when the battle began, I rode with the farmer in a two-wheeled cart without springs down a track which led into the centre of Marston Moor, and studied the field from the point where the fight was most desperate.

How did the foemen stand in this battle, all things considered, the greatest which has taken place on English soil since Hastings? Each host was about 25,000 strong. For the Parliament the chief command was in the hands of an old soldier of Gustavus, the Scotch Earl of Leven, but his fire was burnt out, and it would have gone hard with the Parliament had there not been better soldiers there than he. Sir Thomas Fairfax had covered the rear, as the allies withdrew, as brave and skilful a chief as ever led Englishmen; and as he began at Marston to feel the breath of Rupert's sharp pursuit, he sent hot alarm to the advance, posting himself at the same time in the village. He had some seasoned troops, but many were raw recruits. Next to Fairfax, the line running west along the ridge, Leven, who hurried back, placed his centre, or main "battle," tough Scotch infantry, sternest Covenanters, massed in solid squares, the pikemen in the centre, the musketeers on either flank—a superannuated arrangement, to which the military pedant adhered. The Lords who were in chief command that day were generally inexperienced, but their subordinates were often veterans from the Thirty Years' War, schooled, sometimes demoralized and steeled, to all forms of ruthlessness in desperate scenes of carnage and license. Among these Dugald Dalgettys the best soldier was David Leslie. The world has not often seen stouter men than were the Scots that day, but some of them were destined to gain little credit, rather perhaps through the force of circumstances than any failure of their own. West of the centre came the English infantry of the Earl of Manchester, flanked by cavalry, like the wing of Fairfax. The line ended at the village of Tockwith, with the Scotch troopers of David Leslie, between whom and the infantry sat on powerful chargers a body of about 2,300 men, conspicuous at a glance from out the entire host as in every way perfectly appointed and disciplined. Notice these men well, far out on the left wing there, the afternoon sun flashing upon the bridle-hand as they steadily range themselves.

A young Cavalier dandy of 1640 has left behind him a description of a man he saw at the opening of the Long Parliament, "very ordinarily apparelled, in a plain cloth suit made by an ill country tailor, his linen not very clean, his hat without a band, his stature of good size, his sword stuck close to his side, his countenance swollen and reddish, his voice sharp and untunable, and his eloquence full of fervor. I sincerely profess, it lessened much my reverence unto that Great Council, for the gentleman was very much hearkened unto." This rude-looking country squire has since then had some reputation in the field. He was in the mêlée at Edgehill, but little noticed on that day. A significant remark, however, which he made to his cousin, Hampden, was afterwards recalled. It was to this effect, that if Rupert were to be successfully met, it must be by troopers of better stuff than tapsters and worn-out serving-men. The Cavalier vigor must have set against it breasts inspired by the spirit of God. Forthwith he set to work to constitute such a body of troopers, and this night on Marston Moor, he and they are to win their first great fame—men equally good at prayer, at sermon, and at sabre. So the 25,000 stood ranged, their artillery in front, a mile and a-half along the ridge between Marston and Tockwith, Oliver Cromwell and his men far over on the left wing. At Warwick Castle you are shown the steel cap that covered his head as he galloped and smote and shouted his Old-Testament war-cries where the danger was thickest. As the Parliament men took position, they trampled down the tall grain just ready for harvest. Now and then a dash of summer rain incommoded them. As Covenanter and Puritan sang their battle-hymns low thunder was heard in the pauses.

As there was division in the host of the Parliament, Scot and Englishman not coalescing with entire cordiality, so, among the Cavaliers, Rupert had been supercilious, and his subordinates were sullen. There was delay in forming, but at length on the Moor, opposite the embattled ridge, an answering array was placed. The foemen faced each other across a narrow interval, separated, however, by a deep drain, known as the White Syke Ditch. There was little difference in dress or armor; the Parliament men wore, therefore, in their hats a white badge. Rupert's standard of silk, emblazoned with the arms of the Palatinate, and with a cross of red, waved over his life-guard. After heavy cannonading, the battle began at seven, the two lines, equally eager, moving forward to the ditch throughout their lengths. Fairfax at the right had a difficult task, being forced to proceed through bad ground by a narrow obstructed lane. His column was struck by the Cavaliers with all possible fury and completely crushed. The centre, too, was nearly broken, multitudes of Scots, among

them the Earl of Leven himself, taking to flight. The Cavaliers thought the battle gained, and parties of them fell to plundering the baggage on the ridge—for them a sorrowful mistake.

The sun of the long summer day was now near its setting, the level light tinging the war cloud above the cumbered field. The day was lost for the Parliament on the side of Marston, but at the west the fortune had been different. While the infantry of Manchester had boldly come to push of pike, the horse of Cromwell, minding as little the volleys of the musketeers from the White Syke as they had the rain of the afternoon, spurred forward. Rupert at the moment was at supper with many of his troopers, but all were in the saddle in an instant, under the folds of the great banner. His own charge was as prompt as that of the Puritans, and the thousands of galloping horses and brandished swords met like nothing so much as two opposed oceans. Let fancy picture the horses overthrown, writhing and rolling upon their riders, the shouted war cries, the curse from the lips of the Cavalier, "The sword of the Lord and of Gideon" from the Roundhead, while lance and sabre rang upon headpiece and corselet! At one moment all seemed lost for the Parliament. Cromwell, wounded in the neck, was for an instant stunned, and the Roundheads recoiled. David Leslie, however, drove in like lightning with his Covenanters upon the Cavalier flank. Cromwell, dashing the stupor from his senses, was again at the front. The steeds of the Cavaliers were beaten back upon their haunches; their line was forced through and through; at last a great swarm of entreating and bewildered riders fled rearward to where the twilight was beginning to gather in the heavy Wilstrup Wood.

It is said that here Cromwell and Leslie paused for a moment in the pursuit, and that just then a small group of panting men, in broken armor, on steeds well-nigh spent, suddenly appeared to the victors. All had plainly but just emerged from a life-and-death struggle, and their leader, scarcely recognizable on account of a streaming sabre cut on his face, declared himself to be Fairfax. From his conquered wing he had burst his way through his pursuers, bringing through the battle smoke the first news of his defeat. The points of Oliver were once more advanced. The troopers, not less perfect in discipline than ardent in courage, obeyed his shout, and went back once more to the White Syke, close at hand to the hard-pressed Parliamentary centre, "both sides not a little surprised that they must fight it over again, when each thought victory gained." In the shadows the strife became more than ever close and desperate, but the Puritan prevailed. The "White Coats," the flower of the Cavalier infantry, stood alone at length, within the "White Syke Close," a space on the moor ditched in and difficult of access. Here, disdaining to flee, and refusing quarter, to a man they died in their ranks as they had stood. Day faded, and the moon lighted the awful battle upon which at last a solemn hush descended. Faint and far, however, from the gloom of Wilstrup Wood and from the road, comes a sound of galloping horse, of the stroke of the sword upon armor, of voices raised in pleading. The Roundheads, tireless, implacable, through the night pursue the fugitives to the gates of York. Nearly one-quarter of the Cavaliers fell upon the field and in the pursuit. Thus the mighty Oliver bore Rupert to the earth, and Rupert it was who then and there gave him and his troops the name of "Ironsides."

So at seven o'clock of the summer evening, the hour when the battle was joined, I rode towards the moor in the two-wheeled cart with the old farmer for a guide. On the ridge to the rear a clump of trees marked the headquarters of Leven, behind the Parliamentary line. We passed now the station of Fairfax, the farmer telling me of seeing skeletons disinterred, and how fine and sound the teeth were, evidently men young and in their full strength. We turned from the highroad into that lane that led into the moor, down which Fairfax had charged. The weather had been dry, but the ground was still so marshy that the hoofs of the heavy farm horse slumped in the black mire, and we jarred unsteadily on, as now one wheel and now the other sank into a rut. From a quarter to half a mile of such progress, then, turning to the left, we were presently on the brink of a deep ditch, the White Syke itself, and in the centre of the field. Here Fairfax was met as he debouched upon the moor, and dashed into ruin; and here, too, the Ironsides, after their stubborn breasting of Rupert's spears, charged home upon the backs of the Cavaliers, at the very moment when with their pikes they were thrusting into rout the Scots of Leven. Here, said the old man, indicating with his hand a strip of field before us, many skeletons have been ploughed up, cannon balls, too, and often bullets, the lead covered with a white rust from the long burial. It was the place where the "White Coats" had died in their ranks. I looked across to where the spire of Tockwith rose among the trees at the distance of a mile. Smooth acres lay between, which imagination peopled with a fierce confusion of clanging troopers, long-locked gallants under a red cross swooping after the handsome Prince in his cloak of scarlet: thundering against them, the Roundhead inundation whose crest was of pitiless steel! All lay in the quietest peace. The deepening evening lent solemnity to the fields and to the shadows of Wilstrup Wood close by, the trees of which bore long in their hearts the Parliamentarian bullets. At the bottom of the White Syke, still good cover for resolute infantry, and a dangerous obstacle to horse, ran a sullen black stream. I climbed over it as an old musketeer might have done, while the last load of hay for the day was going home from the field where the "White Coats" lay buried. I dismissed the cart and the old man as the twilight grew deep, crossing the fields alone from which had advanced Rupert's left. If his right had advanced at Marston Moor to such good purpose, Charles I. would have regained his throne.

THE INTRODUCTION OF THE JUBILEE COERCION BILL.

DUBLIN, April 2, 1887.

DURING the winter there was little new to say regarding general politics in Ireland. They went their usual way, and anything that to young persons or to those freshly awakened to the Irish question appeared novel, was only natural development of previous events, or what has been the normal condition of the country for the past half-century. The Plan of Campaign was indeed original in some of its conceptions; it was, however, but a closer consolidation of that system of combination among the tenantry through which the Land League achieved its earlier triumphs. In its main features, and as worked under the approval of its sponsors, Mr. Dillon and Mr. O'Brien, the Plan has on the whole been justified by events. There were several of the large landed proprietors whom nothing could bring to reason, who had in them no bowels of compassion; and if the only screw possible has been turned upon them, we must not be too ready to condemn it as an infraction of the moral law simply because we are not accustomed to outraged humanity using that defensive weapon. Justification of the refusal to meet theoretical contracts no doubt tends to throw all society into confusion—to relax the obligations which consolidate it. But already every moral idea regarding land-holding in Ireland has been confused for generations by external law, supported by irresistible material force, sustaining the landowners in gradually confiscating the improvements of the tenants and their labor beyond a mere living—a mere living even in the best of seasons. It may also be remembered that numerous British members of Parliament and others, having during the past few months traversed this country from north to south and east to west, and interviewed representatives of all parties, religions, and politics, have returned to England to advocate the tenants' side of the question. The stand which the *Pall Mall Gazette* now makes is entirely due to the conscientious and thorough investigations of Mr. Stead, who, I know, came over by no means disposed to take the tenants' side of the question to the extent he has since done.

The Government has hitherto been relying upon what it has been pleased to style the "ordinary law." It is an "ordinary law" which to English-speaking peoples must appear very extraordinary. Under it the Habeas Corpus Act was in some respects practically suspended, and the power of arbitrary imprisonment revived by the simple expedient of Government moving the Queen's Bench and the minor courts, by virtue of obsolete powers and acts of Parliament, to make obnoxious persons give bail for good behavior or go to jail. It was accomplished in other cases by refusing to admit to bail prisoners charged with bailable offences. The Crown resorted to laws and methods of procedure which have fallen into disuse in Great Britain, and the revival of which in practice would not be there tolerated. In several cases trials were postponed from assizes to assizes, and the prisoner was finally discharged without trial; and again, in the words of the *Pall Mall Gazette*: "The Government withdrew the charge of felony, on the strength of which they had secured the refusal of bail, and proceeded on other counts of a less serious nature which deprived the prisoner of the right of challenging more than six jurors, while the Crown had the right of ordering any number to stand aside."

Jury-packing has been shamelessly practised. Take the case of the Woodford trials at Sligo. In that town there are nine Catholics to one Protestant. The jury panel, prepared by a Tory landlord high sheriff, a Tory land agent subsheriff, and a Tory clerk of the Crown, resulted in a panel of 128 Protestants and 122 Catholics. Then there were six juries, in the striking of which the Crown, by its unlimited challenge, marked off ninety-six names, while the prisoners could object to only thirty-six, and as a net result two juries were constituted entirely of Protestants, and three others with nine, ten, and eleven Protestants on them respectively. Under the "ordinary law" the Government has in many ways dispensed with all law, acted with impunity in violation of law, and made laws for itself. We had the Attorney-General writing in relation to the Plan of Campaign, "I do not see how any action can be taken by the Executive." Then, after some weeks, we had the Plan proclaimed an illegal conspiracy by Prince Edward of Saxe-Weimar and Sir M. H. Beach. Then came an abortive trial to test its legality. Meetings were suppressed by force in several parts of the country simply on the motion of the Government.

To illegality has been added the strangest blundering, and the worst blunder of all has been the arrest and imprisonment of Father Keller and Father Ryan for refusing to give evidence before the courts in the matter of persons made bankrupts through having adopted the Plan of Campaign. In a normal state of society there would be no grounds for their refusal, but, as affairs

stand in Ireland, their refusal was inevitable; their evidence could readily have been dispensed with; and for Judge Boyd to have brought the Government into full conflict in this matter with the people and clergy, backed up personally by the Archbishops of Cashel and Dublin, is a singular proof of how entirely the governing classes here are ignorant of the feelings and prejudices of the mass of the people. Much that goes on in Ireland now resembles scenes from an opéra bouffe. Father Keller and Father Ryan, under arrest, insisted on travelling to Dublin by slow trains, so as to receive the demonstrations of the populace, ecclesiastics, and town councils on the way. The Archbishop of Dublin and the Lord Mayor with their carriages attended them to prison. The authorities insisted that the prisoners themselves should go in cabs. This they did, attended by enormous crowds of the populace, who took the horse from under Father Keller's cab and drew it themselves to prison, and, a few days afterwards, wanted to lynch the cabman who drove Father Ryan to the same place.

The present Government, like their predecessors, Liberal or Conservative, came into office pledged to grant no self-government to Ireland, but to pacify her by immediate and sweeping reforms and by the removal of all grievances. Our present rulers have been eight months in office and have done nothing. It would appear easy for a powerful and determined Administration to carry out the above policy. But it has not been done, and, judging by similar experiments in the past, we must infer that, in Ireland's case, effectual and beneficial reform is impossible upon lines repugnant to the vast majority of the people. And we now have, in the eighty-seventh year of so-called Union and in the fiftieth year of the Queen's reign, which we are asked to celebrate, a Coercion Bill more hateful to the mass of the Irish people than any former one—introduced upon slighter grounds, more inefficient for the desired purposes, and more subversive of all ideas of liberty and political growth. What has to be combated and overcome here is want of confidence in law—heartfelt detestation of it, unless when it affects the narrowest personal interests. Mr. Gladstone has completely exposed the flimsiness of the statistics upon which is based the supposed necessity for the measure. Some of Mr. Balfour's own figures are most striking. Among 755 cases of personal injury through moonlighting and the like, in 422 cases the injured parties have themselves refused to aid in the detection of the criminals. A Coercion Act such as that proposed would doubtless lead to the conviction and punishment of many persons who without it would go free. But, administered, as it would be, by partisan paid magistrates, depending on the Castle, it would inevitably lead to the perpetration of much direct injustice, and confirm the conviction of the people that the law was a power apart from and against them. Mr. Balfour is, I believe, the ninth Chief Secretary who within the past seven years has taken upon himself the task of "governing" this country—we have had six Lord-Lieutenants and four Under-Secretaries in the same period.

The attitude of Mr. Chamberlain and his friends, the "Coercionist Radicals," as Mr. Morley calls them, is not surprising. Home rule, from being the harmless craze of a few Irish fanatics and the powerless mass of the Irish people, has become the serious conviction of men like Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Morley. The real contest has begun. We are face to face with the honest belief of the Cavour party in England, that party of which the able and weighty *Spectator* is the exponent, that reform may with safety be granted to Ireland, but never the right of administering her own internal affairs. And if I have correctly gauged the strength and depth of conviction of that party, the struggle will be long and severe; the futility of a system of coercion even stronger, perhaps, than that now proposed by Mr. Balfour may have to be proved before we, or those that come after us, see the end of this miserable and, to both parties, debasing conflict.

In one direction, however, there is certain light and hope. The difficulty in past years was that there was no common ground of sympathy upon which the countries could unite—no common ground for honorable compromise and union. We have that now in the person and character and action of Mr. Gladstone. To men like Mr. Morley and Lord Spencer, honor is due for the fearless manner in which they have enunciated the opinions regarding home rule into which the logic of events has forced them; but to few men has been given in their old age the clearness and freshness of vision of Mr. Gladstone—so above all predilections and interests, so entirely forgetful of much that we have done and said against him. When he has come so far to meet us, there can be no dishonor in our going a long way to meet him. And this influence is working a slow but sure revolution in the feelings of the masses of our people towards friendship with England, and in the direction of loyally accepting any settlement which he in conjunction with Mr. Parnell would recommend. Mr. Gladstone's removal from public life might delay, but it could not now prevent, the ultimate consummation of the task to which he has so unflinchingly and resolutely devoted himself. Mr. Chamberlain and his friends may be, and doubtless are, holding out for his retirement. But whenever (unfortunately) it comes, they will find that they have been mistaken—that the good results and the consummation of his policy do not depend on the life of any one man or set of men.

D. B.

THE MORAL RESPECTABILITY OF POLITICAL PARTIES.

LONDON, March 26, 1887.

"THE first Liberal," some zealous Tory has said, "was the devil." The dictum, we may suppose, was delivered at about the same period when Sir Walter Scott undoubtedly expressed a fear lest the sound principles of the young Duke of Buccleuch should be injured by attending the lectures of that most respectable of Whigs, Mr. Smythe, Professor of History at Cambridge. "Why do people become Tories?" asked a child of his mother, a sound Whig. "Because, my dear, they are born bad, and make themselves worse." An eminent Republican, we are told in England, summed up the character of parties in the United States in the remark: "I don't say that all Democrats are horse-stealers, but I do say that all horse-stealers are Democrats." A man of good memory might easily collect scores of sayings like those I have cited, and a man who did collect them would, it is probable, cite them as proofs of the unfairness produced by party spirit. Nor is this way of drawing a lesson from the language in which Tories speak of Whigs, or Whigs speak of Tories, illegitimate. The vices of party spirit are notorious; and if any one thinks it worth while to try whether he can cure the faults of human nature by the free application of moral platitudes, he has a full right to do so.

Let me, however, at once say that nothing is further from my wish than to turn the *Nation* into a pulpit whence to deliver sermons on the odiousness of faction. The texts of my discourse, if so I may call it, are cited for another object. They express the feeling of strong partisans that, at a given moment, the moral worth, the "respectability" (if one may use in its right sense a much-abused term) of the country is in the main enlisted in favor of the party to which the speaker belongs. This, it may be said, is a natural prejudice. So be it. What, however, is to be noticed is that, in England at least (and I should suppose also in America), this so-called prejudice has, as a matter of history, been constantly justified by fact. Respectability, moral worth—what Matthew Arnold means, I suppose, by conduct—has at different periods been enlisted on the side now of what we may vaguely call Liberalism, and now of what we may equally vaguely call Conservatism or Toryism. There really has been, as every historian will admit, a respectable party, opposed to a party who were in the main the less respectable, not to say the disreputable, party.

This opposition is traceable nowhere more clearly than in the contest of which it may be said, with most truth, that the best men in the nation were to be found ranged against each other. It hardly needs the morbid impartiality of Mr. Gardiner to convince candid readers that Roundheads and Cavaliers were not divided from one another by the line which separates good from bad. A student must be prejudiced indeed who can suppose that all the virtue of the English people was, during the Civil War, resident either at Oxford or at Westminster. Pym, Hampden, Cromwell, and Baxter, on the one side, Laud, Hyde, Falkland, on the other, may at the present day be regarded by all competent judges with a calmness and with a sympathy impossible to writers even of the last generation. But to recognize that in a crisis of immense, and to the men of the seventeenth century of strictly unprecedented, difficulty, persons equally wise and equally good were impelled by duty and by judgment to follow opposite paths, is quite a different thing from believing that one path was as well chosen as the other, or that, on the whole, and speaking (as is necessary in such matters) very much in the rough, the moral sense of the country did not incline more towards one course than the other. Take it all in all, the good sense and the morality of England went with the Parliament against Charles. The dictum of the American Republican in principle exactly hits the case. It were folly to say that all or many of the Cavaliers were rakes or blackguards, but the rakes, blackguards, or adventurers tended to support the Court. Baxter at Kidderminster found that the drunkards were generally Loyalists. "The pure Royalism of the Restoration," writes Mr. Gardiner, "appeared in Waller in all its native offensiveness." The very vices of the Parliamentary party are in some sense a proof of its virtues. Religious cant is profitable to hypocrites only among associates who have a genuine care for religion. Though there were good men and saintly men among the followers of Charles, the respectability of the nation was, up to 1649, with the Parliament. The Restoration, again, was something more than the mere heyday of moral license and courtly servility. Admiration of Puritan virtue must not hide from us the fact that the best men of England and Scotland welcomed the restoration of the monarchy. Nor, if Charles II. had been anything like the ruler whom the best Presbyterians no less than the best Episcopalians hoped for, is it at all impossible that the restoration of the King might have founded a form of monarchy based on law and liberty.

The license of Charles II. and the bigotry of James II. threw the moral weight of the nation on to the side of the Whigs. When any one reflects on the disadvantages entailed by law and sentiment on dissent, no one can doubt that at the end of the seventeenth century the English Dissenters represented much of the solid worth which made up the character of the nation, and for a century at least the Dissenters were with the Whigs. To put the matter in the most gene-

ral terms, the Whigs were, from the Revolution of 1689 till very near the middle of George III.'s real reign, the respectable party. But—and this is a point which needs careful attention—the Whigs of 1760 were in many points what we should term conservative in spirit. Add to this that, even before they were attacked by George III., the moral supremacy of the Whigs was on the wane.

Take, now, another long period of fifty years or so—say from 1780 to nearly 1832. Can any fair Liberal really doubt that, from causes which are easily traceable (as, for instance, the moral reaction caused by French infidelity and by French Jacobinism), the respectability of the country was in the main with the Tories? If any one looks either at the general set of public opinion or at the equally instructive streamlets—if so you may call them—of biographical experience, he will acknowledge that the statement I have made, taken with all the numerous reservations to which all generalizations about human affairs are subject, is in the strictest sense true, and, if anything, rather within the truth. Among the English people on either side the Atlantic, religious feeling has been at all times the best index to the real and effective beliefs of the day. Now, the period I have mentioned was a time of religious revival, and Puritanism has shown—though foreign Liberals find it almost impossible to recognize this fact—that religious fervor has no essential connection with monarchical or reactionary sympathies. Through the whole of this period, nevertheless, the religious parties of the day supported the Tories. This connection, moreover, between religion and Toryism was not connected with indifference on the part of religious men to reforms which they believed to be for the benefit of the people. Mr. Wilberforce and Mr. Wilberforce's friends were the leading philanthropists of the time, yet as a body they were followers of Pitt and of Pitt's successors. The secret of the adherence on the part of good and philanthropic men to the Tories is well enough expressed in a speech delivered by Macaulay in his early and very transitory phase of boyish Toryism. He brought down the cheers of the Cambridge Union by a eulogy of the "good old King." The good old King, with all his dulness and cunning, was the type to the English people of moral and patriotic respectability. His virtues were set off to perfection by the vices of the Prince; and the Prince, be it remembered, was the favorite and patron of the Whigs. If any one wants to know why the exalted genius of Burke never exercised half the weight with the nation which was its due, he can do nothing better than study the account of the relation between the Prince and the Whigs given in the memoirs of Lord Minto.

Lord Grey, Lord Althorpe, and Lord John Russell gave new life to the Whigs, not by importing into the party genius or insight, but by renewing their good character. And when Liberalism became, in 1832, the predominant creed of the country, the Liberals were (politically at least) as respectable a party as opponents who had for years borne the odium and reaped the advantage of Tory jobs. Croker and Lord Lyndhurst were good partisan leaders, but were not persons to carry weight with the English public. The struggle between Peel and his opponents was mainly a struggle for political character, and in the contest Peel on the whole gained the advantage. The fall of the great Conservative Minister placed the Tories under the guidance of a leader who, whatever his merits, never rid himself or his party from the discredit of the mode in which he obtained the leadership, and the moral recklessness with which he fought for power. It is the fashion to extol Lord Beaconsfield as a great party leader. His great gifts as a Parliamentary combatant cannot be denied. But to his followers his leadership was fatal. To the English public the Conservatives became a faction led on adventures by a clever adventurer. Whether this opinion was sound or not is, for my present purpose, of no great consequence. What I urge on my readers' attention is, that the Liberals were intellectually and politically for many years the respectable party. They were the party of sound political doctrine and of admitted public spirit. A dull, well-meaning country gentleman, who sympathized with ordinary, even commonplace, English modes of thought and English ideas of political morality, would, on more occasions than one, have led the Conservatives to successes unattainable by all Mr. Disraeli's talent and audacity.

For here we come across another and, in the eyes of a careful observer, a most important point in the political history of England. Respectability has in the long run always commanded success. The respectable party has been the victorious party. In each one of the instances to which I have referred, this will be found to have been the case. The English public have, in the past at any rate, proved themselves good judges of character, whether in politics or in private life; they have proved themselves very inferior judges of policy or of statesmanship. If we take as a test of this the judgment of English electors at the end of the last or at the beginning of the present century, we shall see clearly that this was so. The public judgment was sound enough as to the demerits of Fox and Fox's followers; and the public were sagacious enough in keeping in power ministers whose general tone and character approved itself to the moral judgment of the day. If any one should attempt to read the Life of Mr. Percival he will find the task, to judge by my own experience, one of the dreariest that mortal man ever undertook. But the student will be rewarded by understanding better than he ever did before with what instinctive sagacity Englishmen pick out for honor the kind of moral respectability which they appreciate. If we want to see how ill a public opinion, which could judge well enough of character, could appreciate questions of policy, we have nothing to do but to read the common sense of Sydney Smith, and remember that the most sensible of English political writers was for many years occupied in the vain attempt to persuade Englishmen that the dictates of good sense ought not to be regarded as doctrines fit only for knaves or fanatics. The Edinburgh Reviewers, strange as the fact appears to us now, were by the majority of Englishmen held to be tainted with Jacobinism. The Whigs were in disrepute, and until Liberalism became respectable "the Whigs' not getting into place" was, as we learn from Byron, the one unchangeable fact in the changing world of politics. Nor, by the way, was his Lordship's own fame at all helpful to the success of his friends.

Combine the two facts that, looking at the past in a very general way, as one must do in matters of this kind, a student finds that there has constantly been in England a respectable party, at one time Conservative and at another Liberal, and that respectability has in the main coincided with permanent political success, and the following result ensues. Whoever wishes to form a forecast as to the fortune of English parties, will consider mainly their relation towards the ordinary moral beliefs of the country. If he sees that, on the whole, average good sense and character inclines to range itself on one side or the other of a political controversy, he will augur that the side favored by character is the side likely to win. Many of your readers may probably not agree with the estimate I should myself form as to the weight in point of character of the two parties into which the English political world is gradually dividing itself. One thing is, I conceive, undoubted. Conservatism, using that word in a very wide sense and independently of strict party divisions, has, within the last two or three years, received in England a great accession of moral strength; and if the reflections I have indulged in are in any degree sound, this fact is one of primary importance.

AN OBSERVER.

Correspondence.

POSTAL SAVINGS BANKS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The thirty-second report of the British Postmaster-General shows a considerable increase in the business of the Post-office Savings Bank during the year. The total amount due to depositors on the 31st of December was $231,334,515, an increase of $14,401,020 over the previous year. In addition to this, the balance of Government stock held by depositors at the close of the year was $11,893,323, making the total sum due to depositors $243,227,837, distributed over 3,535,650 separate accounts.

The number of new savings-bank offices opened during the year was 350, making the total number on the 31st of December 8,106. The greatest number of deposits made in one day was 48,568, and the largest amount deposited in one day was $605,490, which was deposited on the 1st of January. The Government stock investments were 17,133 in number, and the amount of stock purchased was $4,166,393, showing an increase of 5,604 in the number of holders. Eighteen hundred and eighty one provident, friendly, trade, and other societies obtained authority last year to invest their funds in the Post-office Savings Bank, and 200 penny banks also obtained authority to open accounts. A circular of the Education Department was recently issued, drawing the attention of all school boards to the desirability of instituting a penny savings bank at each of the public elementary schools.

A further effort was made last year to induce the hop-pickers who go down to Kent to avail themselves of the Post-office Savings Bank. The scheme, however, failed; for the hop-pickers say they go for pleasure, just as the better classes go to the seaside, and that the money received barely pays their expenses.

A staff of Post-office clerks attended when the workmen employed in constructing the Suakim-Berber Railroad returned home and were paid off. The total sum deposited by these men was $6,053, and, considering the class to which they belonged, it is surprising they deposited so much.

In Canada, the Bahamas, the Cape of Good Hope, Queensland, New Zealand, Victoria, New South Wales, South Australia, and Tasmania the Postal Savings Bank is flourishing; while the following statement of such banks in the Continental countries shows their results:

Austria has 428,753 depositors, with a total amount due the depositors of about	$7,000,000
Belgium has 402,836 depositors, with a total amount due the depositors of about	28,000,000
France has 641,323 depositors, with a total amount due the depositors of about	23,000,000
Italy has 1,015,328 depositors, with a total amount due the depositors of about	28,000,000
Holland has 90,798 depositors, with a total amount due the depositors of about	18,000,000

Even in Japan the Post office Savings Bank has been in existence some years.

At the Postal Congress held at Lisbon it was decided, on the proposals of the French Delegate, to convene an International Conference on Post-office Savings Banks, with the idea of forming a Postal Savings Bank Union and devising a scheme of international transactions.

With such illustrations of the long-continued and widespread success of postal savings banks,

is it not time for our Government to give its poor the advantages of this system by opening postal savings banks at each money-order office? If the citizens are commended who establish one successful savings bank, what honor shall be awarded our Congressmen who open 20,000 (?) savings banks? The justification for our Government adding this function to its other duties is (it seems to me) as strong as is its justification for carrying the mail; and probably most of the arguments in favor of Government post-offices could be adduced in favor of Government postal savings banks.

I venture the suggestion that the national Government might, while there is a surplus, lend the money thus deposited to the State governments, or buy their bonds, in amounts equal to the deposits made in their respective States. Thus the two-fold allegiance of the depositors would be reinforced, and the number of those pecuniarily and directly interested in the solvency and stability of both their State and the national Governments would be increased. HORACE J. SMITH.

MONTREUX, SWITZERLAND.

WOLSELEY ON LEE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of March 31, Gen. F. A. Walker criticises very severely the recent article of Lord Wolseley on Gen. Lee, published in the March *Macmillan*. Gen. Wolseley is accused of writing trash unworthy of anybody above a subaltern, and our British cousins are denounced for their ignorance and incapacity in all matters connected with our civil war. Gen. Walker's last words in regard to Wolseley's criticisms are that they are "silly, empty, and vain."

As Lord Wolseley is, and has been for years, the most distinguished officer in the British Army, has conducted with success campaigns in widely separated regions of the globe, and has risen by his talents to the top of his profession among our British cousins, who, though ignorant and incapable in military criticism, are still among the respectable military powers of the world, we were not a little surprised at this savage critique, and have re-read Lord Wolseley's article to see, if possible, wherein consists its offence in the eyes of so distinguished a military historian and critic as Gen. Walker. We have not been able to find any just ground for Gen. Walker's indignant criticism, and that you may see how different things look when viewed from different parallels of latitude, we add the following.

Lord Wolseley's article (which is a review of Gen. Long's recently published 'Memoirs of Lee') gives a sketch of Gen. Lee's personal life and character rather than of his military career, which could not be treated in so brief a space. The English soldier, with graceful and genial pen, portrays Lee's character from boyhood, declares him one of the only two heroes he has ever personally known, and states his deliberate conviction that Lee was not only the greatest soldier of the age, but the most perfect man he had ever met. Now there is nothing new or strange in all this, to one-half of our country at least, for it fully accords with the estimate placed upon Lee by the Southern people. His countrymen have admired, loved, venerated him not so much for his splendid talents as for that high virtue, that finished manhood, which constitute him in their conviction the fitting exponent of their civilization. To them he is the worthy representative and successor of Washington. It is pleasant for them to know that the recognition of his greatness is steadily widening, that impartial observers from the outside are able to descry his true lineaments through the clouds of misfortune and defeat. Lord Wolseley is but expressing in simpler language the opinion long since given by the accomplished English scholar, George Long, who, in his translation of the 'Thoughts of Marcus Aurelius,' after applying to Lee the line

"Victrix causa Deis placuit, sed victa Catoni,"

speaks of him as "the noble Virginian soldier whose talents and virtues place him by the side of the best and wisest men who sat on the throne of the imperial Cæsars."

Gen. Walker selects two instances to show Lord Wolseley's silliness as a military critic. First, Wolseley speaks of McClellan's army as hopelessly at the mercy of Lee's when the former began its retreat to Harrison's Landing, after the seven days' fighting around Richmond. After some strained criticism about the meaning of Wolseley's words, Gen. Walker goes on in a vein which would indicate that it was Lee and not McClellan that had the worst of it in this famous campaign. He thinks Lee's army "was on several occasions more at the mercy of McClellan than McClellan's army was on any one occasion at his (Lee's) mercy." Now, there are people, above the grade of subalterns, too, that agree with Gen. Walker, but we think they are few and rapidly becoming fewer. There has never been any doubt in the South that the operations referred to resulted in a great defeat to a large and well-appointed army which was ready to close in upon the Confederate capital; there was no doubt at the time in the minds of President Lincoln and his advisers as to the discomfiture of McClellan; and the importance of the victory gained by Lee has been generally recognized by foreign critics. But to come to the exact point, as to the condition of the Federal Army on its retreat from Malvern Hill to Westover (Harrison's Landing), Lord Wolseley is not alone in thinking that if a prompt and vigorous pursuit had been or could have been made, immense damage might have been inflicted upon the retreating forces. Lee himself says of the campaign that, "under ordinary circumstances, the Federal Army should have been destroyed." Stuart believed that if the Confederate infantry had followed him promptly to Westover, McClellan might have been overwhelmed, and Jackson thought that a great opportunity was lost by the delay. Gen. Hooker, one of the bravest and most dashing officers in the Federal Army, says of the retreat from Malvern (to which he was strongly opposed): "It was like the retreat of a whipped army. We retreated like a parcel of sheep—everybody on the road at the same time; and a few shots from the rebels would have panic-stricken the whole command." Gen. Casey says of McClellan's condition July 3: "Had the enemy come down and taken possession of those heights [the Evelington Heights overlooking Westover, where Stuart had placed a gun or two] with a force of 20,000 or 30,000 men, they would, in my opinion, have taken the whole of our army, except that small portion of it that might have got off on the transports." The Committee on the Conduct of the War report that "nothing but a heavy rain, thereby preventing the enemy from bringing up their artillery, saved the army there from destruction." Surely, Lord Wolseley is not "empty" or "silly" because found in such company!

And next about Fredericksburg. We believe Lee and Jackson were right in twice deeming a victorious attack on a Federal army placed on the south bank of the Rappahannock and under the protection of artillery on the Stafford Heights impracticable. But it is only fair to admit that this is a question with two sides to it. There is probably no point in Lee's military career (excepting Gettysburg) that has been more frequently criticised than his failure to attack Burnside on the 14th and 15th of December, 1862. In the South he has been often blamed for it, and foreign critics have frequently spoken of it as a blunder. Gen. Palfrey thinks Lee "probably decided wrongly"; and a British line officer, in one of the best descriptions of this battle we have seen, compares him unfavorably with Hannibal at the Trebia for losing so great an opportunity. The signal and astonishing confession of defeat that Burnside made by his retreat on the night of the 15th at the head of 100,000 fighting men, and his abandonment thus of a campaign but five days old and marked by no full trial of his strength, has, we think, misled many writers into an overestimate of the possibilities of Lee's situation; but he is, to say the least, a bold critic who denounces the judgment of the leader of the English Army as silly and empty for thinking that Burnside might have been crushed.

Gen. Lee once said: "The general who never made mistakes never fought any battles." The same truth may readily be applied to historians and critics. Lord Wolseley has written an appreciative article on Gen. Lee, which gives an idea of his personal character that is in no way exaggerated, and an estimate of his military capacity very high, it is true, but not higher than that entertained by Lee's own countrymen, by many foreign critics, and, we believe, by not a few of those who fought against him. Lord Wolseley has no doubt made mistakes, but these, like Gen. Walker's errors in his admirable 'History of the Second Army Corps,' are not material enough to affect either the value or the charm of the work. W. ALLAN.

MCDONOGH, MD., April 6, 1887.

CONVENTUAL PASTIMES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of March 24 a correspondent suggests, apropos of the memoirs of the Princesse de Ligne, that the pranks which she describes as perpetrated within the walls of the Abbaye-aux-Bois may be "the natural result of the ennui of convent life." Of course, I cannot answer for the Princesse de Ligne or the Duchesse de Mazarin and the convent life of their day, but I think I can safely say that nowhere in the world is the spirit of ennui so weak an agent as at the convent school of modern times. Every hour, every minute is provided with its occupation or its recreation, varied and interchanged with admirable judgment, while there is abundant outlet for animal spirits in active out-of-door exercise and indoor games, where every healthy and legitimate form of amusement is freely encouraged. I think if any one had come in upon us children during recreation time at the French convent where I spent the happiest hours of my school life, they might have thought they had struck Bedlam, but they would not have found anything suggestive of ennui. On a rainy day, when there is no prospect of "I spy" or "prisoner's base" or "hare and hounds" in the garden, and between one and two hundred healthy and hard-worked girls are turned loose in the schoolrooms and recreation halls to enjoy themselves to their hearts' content, the result is something that eye hath not seen nor ear heard elsewhere. Shouting, singing, romping, screaming, one band dancing a quadrille to the music of their own voices in one corner, an exciting "tug of war" going on in another, a large party "going to Jerusalem" pell-mell through the halls, a wild scene of confusion in the schoolrooms, girls scrambling over desks and crawling under benches in a frantic game of "hide and seek," besides various small side shows in the way

of "jump-rope," "grace-sticks," and "class-ball," with perhaps an impromptu charade being acted in some retired spot—all noise that is the mere ebullition of youthful spirits, all honest and genuine fun, is permitted to the full. It is only when an element of roughness or trickery or irreverence begins to show itself that the hand of the law is laid upon us gently but firmly. The nuns themselves often take part in our quieter recreations in their simple, cheery, gracious way.

Outside of recreation time the discipline is exceedingly strict, but most loving, while heart and soul are thrown into the work of making study attractive to us by a most thorough and interesting system of oral instruction. What girl who leads a regular life, with abundance of simple food and active exercise, with early hours, rising at six and going to bed at half-past eight winter and summer, with eight or nine hours daily of study and instruction, diversified with classes in music, painting, dancing, and calisthenics, and three times a day a safety-valve to her spirits in the shape of such recreations as I have described—what healthy-minded girl could find time for ennui? Her inner nature is attracted and sustained by the beauty of the daily devotions—the same, yet ever varying—of the most soul-satisfying of earth's religions. She is surrounded by teachers whose devoted lives and silent example of self-sacrifice, whose kind, indulgent charity and tender motherly care of and interest in herself cannot fail to rouse her warmest admiration and affection. What girl is so constituted that, under these conditions, she could be driven by sheer ennui to the committal of such unmaidenly and irreverent, not to say sacrilegious tricks as were, we will hope, piously invented rather than faithfully described by the pupils of another generation?

My own personal experience of conventual life in France has been in the schools of the Sacré-Cœur and the Assomption, but at one time I had an intimate friendship with a young French girl who was a pupil at the same Abbaye-aux-Bois which the Princesse de Ligne has touched up in so lively a manner. We compared notes over our school experiences, which we found to be much the same. My friend was full of enthusiasm for the nuns of the Abbaye-aux-Bois. She described the austerity of their lives as something appalling to human nature, yet they were cheerful, happy, and affectionate to the highest degree. Perhaps I ought to have said *therefore* rather than *yet*, for all who are familiar with monastic life know well that cheerfulness, happiness, and loving kindness are the sure fruit of that same austerity. My friend was then, in 1879, a vigorous, blooming girl of seventeen, an heiress and a beauty, intelligent, frank, and truthful, full of fun and spirits, yet always graceful and courteous towards her elders and fervent in the practice of her religion. She was certainly a good advertisement for the Abbaye-aux-Bois of to-day. She confided in me her eager desire to become a nun. "In the Abbaye-aux-Bois?" I asked. "Oh, no," she replied, laughing, "I haven't the grace for anything so terribly austere, but I never should be happy in a worldly life, and the idea of marriage makes me shudder; so I think I shall be a Sister of Charity." I asked if her family would approve of such a step. "They approve of the religious life in itself," she answered, "but they don't approve of it *for me*. That is quite another thing! They will oppose any such idea bitterly, and Heaven only knows if I shall have courage to carry it out." I heard of her a great deal in Paris society the next winter, where she was greatly admired for her beauty and accomplishments, but pronounced "cold and reserved" by those who did not know where her heart was. Three years later the courage she feared would fail her, and the grace she had thought wanting, both came to her, and, clad in bridal robes and veil, surrounded by her family, her friends, and the loving instructors of her youth, she consecrated herself to God for ever in this same "terribly austere" Abbaye-aux-Bois.

H.

April 4, 1887.

A DISREPUTABLE REVIEW.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I desire to protest, through your columns, against the unrestrained blackguardism of which the *North American Review* has of late been the vehicle. The "Letters to Prominent Persons," by Arthur Richmond, have all been marked by a noticeable lack of ordinary courtesy, and by personal spite, but the letter in the April number addressed to James Russell Lowell certainly deserves much more severe criticism. It is, without contradiction, one of the most disgraceful and bitter personal attacks ever made upon a political opponent, and it is difficult to realize that a periodical like the *North American Review* can lend its pages to such stuff. The decadence of the *North American* during the past few years has indeed been obvious and sad enough; but what must be the feeling of intelligent and courteous men when they see this once famous review employed as the organ of bitter personal attacks, which would do credit to the lowest partisan sheet? In the interests of decency and our reputation in other countries, let public sentiment frown severely upon such prostitution of high literary position.—Yours respectfully,

S. B. Platner.

Cleveland, O., April 5, 1887.

WHY NOT FORGET BLAINE?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Paul Janet, I believe, somewhere quotes another professor as saying, in the midst of some religious controversy, "Il ne faut pas lutter contre la religion; il faut l'oublier." Is it not about time for the *Nation* to adopt some such maxim in regard to Mr. Blaine's alleged Presidential aspirations? The frequent mention of that painful subject in the *Nation* is something of a surprise to me. Supposing the Republicans should commit the stupendous folly of nominating Blaine in 1888; why should the friends of Cleveland be sad? Does not the *Nation* confidently expect that Cleveland will be the nominee of the Democratic party? Can the *Nation* have the least anxiety as to the issue of another contest between these antagonists? Why not encourage the Republicans in every possible way to renominate Blaine, and thus make Cleveland's calling and election doubly sure? Or, if that is not the proper thing to do, may we not hope to see Mr. Blaine's name disappear from the columns of the *Nation*, at least until, by accepting the Republican nomination, he becomes once more a public character? Edward Olson.

Chicago, April 2, 1887.

[Our correspondent seems to forget that our objections to Mr. Blaine's nomination have all along been largely based on his character as a man. Consequently, we consider it a discredit to the country that any party or large body of persons should in any manner express their belief in his fitness for a great public office. We oppose his nomination not simply because we wish to keep him out of the White House, but because we think he ought not, with his record, to be in public life at all.—Ed. Nation.]

THE NEW JERSEY CHANCELLORSHIP.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The comment of the *Nation* last week voices, though in more temperate terms than most of us would use, the indignation felt in all parts of our State at Gov. Green's refusal to reappoint Chancellor Runyon, and the amazement, on such refusal, that he should pass by our many able, deeply-versed equity lawyers to hunt up one for Chancellor comparatively unknown, whose chief practice has been in the criminal courts as prosecutor and judge.

Because Chancellor Runyon refused to prostitute his great office to partisan ends, the blighting influence of Abbettism struck him down. The loss is the State's, not his. He can readily earn at the bar a larger income than he received as Chancellor, and with less labor.

This action of Gov. Green is but another nail in the coffin of an appointive judiciary. No party convention would have dared to refuse a renomination to such a judge as Chancellor Runyon. When the appointment of judges is used as patronage parcelled out in advance of nomination by the candidate for Governor, all that is claimed for an appointive judiciary is gone; but when, as in this case, it is used simply as a weapon in a factional fight, the viciousness of the method is so startlingly shown as but to hasten its doom. In an election by the people the weight of a proper public sentiment can be brought to bear on nominating conventions, and if it fail in one, it is not likely to in the other. The voter has at least the choice of one of two candidates. In an appointment by the Governor, the case of Chancellor Runyon shows that the wish, though almost universally expressed, of all most interested is powerless even to retain an upright, able, and popular judge. H.

Camden, N. J., April 11, 1887.

ARCHÆOLOGY AT ATHENS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Greek Archæological Society is making thorough work of the excavations on the Acropolis. The soil has been carefully removed down to the natural rock over the entire northern half of the hill, and, after every stone and potsherd has been examined, the débris is thrown over the wall. The area between the Erechtheum and the Parthenon now shows the naked foundation walls of Dörpfeld's pre-Persic temple. The east wall of the Parthenon crepidoma is exposed to the light to the depth of thirty feet, where the Acropolis rock falls away to the south at an angle of forty-five degrees. The lower courses of this substructure are entirely free from curvature.

Three important discoveries have been made this month at the angle of the north wall close by the Erechtheum: (1) under a large stone ten feet below the surface of the ground an archaic statue, surpassed by only one other in the Acropolis Museum in size and antiquity; (2) a peculiar flat bronze statuette with both sides finished, and bearing the attributes of Athene, of beautiful workmanship; (3) a fragment of an inscription belonging to the early part of the fourth century B. C., with the name of Æschylus as author, Xenocles as choregus, and [Philo]cles as archon—confirming the Scholiast's accuracy in dating the production of the "Agamemnon." The uncovering of the back of the drums which are built into the north wall reveals unmistakable signs of haste in the construction of the wall at this part.

The Greek Society has also done valuable work the past autumn in laying bare the Amphiareion and theatre at Oropus. The proscenium of the theatre, rising from the clay floor of the orchestra, consists of engaged Doric columns, the intercolumniations of which were filled with stone slabs. It was pierced by a single door in the centre, and finished by an entablature supported by projecting brackets. The architectural

evidence all goes to show that the drama was here performed both by actors and chorus on the floor of the orchestra, between which and the upper scene structure no external means of passage were provided.

The explorations on the Acropolis of Mycenæ have resulted in the discovery of a series of walls similar in plan and construction to those of Tiryns.

At Volo, the beehive tomb has been recently excavated, the construction and contents of which are found to be similar to those of the tomb at Menidi. At Pagasæ and Demetrias Hellenistic walls have also been lately found.

Besides continuing work in these places during the summer, the Greek Archæological Society plan to resume operations at Eleusis and Epidaurus.

The French School has utilized the presence of a man-of-war in the Peiræus harbor by employing its crew in the excavations at Eetioneia, the object of which is the discovery of the temple of Aphrodite. The work of the French at Delphi cannot begin until the legal difficulties of expropriation have been settled, involving many months' delay.

The German School has lately sunk some trenches in the public land about the Theseum, seeking for evidences of the location of the Agora in that region. The work was unavailing, however, except as it showed the great depth of soil which has accumulated on the ancient level between the Pnyx and the Areopagus.

The English School has been examining the foundations of the Olympieum. There are evidences that the front colonnade consisted of eight columns instead of ten, a discovery which throws light on Vitruvius's allusion, "Athenis octastylon templo Olympio." About seven feet below the floor of the temple of Zeus erected by Antiochus the pavement of the Peisistratus structure has been discovered this month.

The American School is about to begin the work of excavating at the theatre of Sikyon. The corner-stone of the school was laid March 12 in the presence of many American, Greek, English, and German scholars, residing or visiting in Athens, and members of their families. Prof. Martin L. D'Ooge, the present Director, after describing the history and purpcses of the school, introduced Drs. Petersen and Leaf, who spoke for the German and British schools respectively. The ceremony was performed by our Minister to Greece, Servia, and Rumania, Mr. Walker Fearn, to whose hearty interest in the enterprise, as well as his personal relations with the Greek Government, the acquisition of the land and extensive municipal improvements in its vicinity are largely due. Mr. Fearn's speech of acknowledgment, addressed to the King of Greece and his ministers, was responded to by Mr. Dra gou mis, Secretary of State, who dwelt on the cordial friendship existing between the two countries, the flags of which were floating side by side above his head. W. L. C.

ATHENS, March 21, 1887.

TRANSFORMATION OF NAMES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Another instance of singular transformation of names is given in the *Historical Magazine* (ii, 181) for June, 1858. It is as follows:

"A village was commenced some years ago on land belonging to Mr. Shepherd, near the Governor's then residence, and, in compliment to the proprietor, called *Shepherd-ville*. This was literally translated by the French into 'Bergerville.' The English next seized on this latter name, and converted it into *Beggarville*, which again is now turned back into French and called *Village des Quêteurs!* A vile calumny, adds M. Ferland, which it will be difficult to explain in a century hence."—*Notes sur les Registres de Quebec*, p. 54.

SAMUEL A. GREEN.

MASSACHUSETTS HISTORICAL SOCIETY, BOSTON, April 9, 1887.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: For those of your readers who understand German a few striking instances of transformation of our German family names may be of some interest. A well-known German name is *Rollfuss*, the final syllable of which seems to be equivalent to *Fuss* (foot); but this name is derived from *Rolf* (*Rudolf*); for in the times when German names used either to be translated into Latin or, at least, to take a Latin ending, *Rolf* became *Rolfus*. Later on, when the origin was forgotten, this was changed to *Rollfuss*. Likewise *Parvus*, translated from the German name *Klein* (Little) became *Barfuss* (Barefoot). In certain parts of Germany I have heard the ugly name *Kuhstoss* (Cow-kick), which seems to me to be a disfigurement of the Latin *Custos*. The forefathers of Mr. Kuhstoss very probably had the name of *Wächter* (Watchman). But still more amusing is the history of the name *Pflaumbaum* (Plum-tree). The bearer of that name, a gentleman dwelling in a well-known commercial town of North Germany, some time ago applied for leave to change his name to *Blei* (Lead). He referred to the chronicle of his family, which proved that one of his ancestors, named *Blei*, chose to have the Latin translation of his name *Plumbum*. To his descendants, who had no knowledge of the Latin language, Plumbum sounded like the low German *Plumbôm*, which in high German is *Pflaumbaum*.—Yours respectfully, RUDOLF TOMBO, Ph. D.

113 EAST 110TH ST., NEW YORK, April 11, 1887.

Notes.

A POSTHUMOUS insurance for great men against incompetent or disreputable biographers would cheer many a deathbed. Every admirer of Edwin M. Stanton, for example, must regret that his life is to be written by George C. Gorham, formerly Secretary of the United States Senate. We are bound to add, though we do so with regret, that Mr. Stanton's family have selected or given authority to Mr. Gorham. This is not the case with the Life of Beecher in preparation by Joseph Howard, jr. Mr. Beecher's wife, son, and son-in-law have undertaken the only biography which will have the sanction of the family. It will be published by Charles L. Webster & Co.

'Mosby's War Reminiscences, and Stuart's Cavalry Campaigns,' by John S. Mosby, is announced by Geo. A. Jones & Co., Boston.

D. Lothrop & Co. have in press a translation of De Vogüé's 'Russian Novelists'; and 'Life among the Germans,' by an American girl student.

'Woodland Tales,' by the author of the 'Buchholz Family'; and 'Reminiscences of a Grandfather; or, the Recent Past Viewed from a Southern Standpoint,' by Richard Hooker Wilmer, Bishop of Alabama (whose dedication is to Jefferson Davis), will shortly be issued by Thomas Whittaker.

Ticknor & Co. announce for publication on April 16 'Ancient Legends, Mystic Charms, and Superstitions of Ireland,' by Lady Wilde ("Speranza"), with a chapter on the ancient races of Ireland, by the late Sir William Wilde, in two volumes.

Charles Scribner's Sons have in press 'Word-Studies in the New Testament,' by Dr. Marvin R. Vincent; and 'In Ole Virginia,' by Thomas Nelson Page. The American edition of the 'Life and Writings of Anne Gilchrist,' by her son, will bear the imprint of Scribner & Welford.

'A Romance of Providence; being the History of the Church of the Strangers,' by its pastor, the Rev. Chas. F. Deems, will be published by Wilbur B. Ketcham.

If the stale anecdotes out of books, the weak satire of the medical profession, the overdone invalidism, and the catalogue of a model library *à la* the best hundred books, had been left out of 'A Club of One' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), there would have remained some few pages of commonplace observation on trivial matters. The "Club" consisted, it seems, of One; it was an excellent limit. We find nothing else in the volume that calls for special commendation.

'Notes on the New York Law of Life Insurance,' by Charles B. Alexander (Baker, Voorhis & Co.), is the modest and accurate title of a thin volume, of a little over a hundred pages of text, which will be useful to any one who wishes to know the main points of the law of New York on the subject named. It does not pretend to be a formal treatise upon the subject.

Mr. J. C. Summers's 'Who Won?' is a handy official record of the yachting season of 1886. It contains much other pertinent information in regard to this form of sport, like the "Chronology," which goes back to 1844, when the New York Yacht Club was formed; or like the tide-tables, or the signal code, or the weather-service's mnemonic rhymes, etc. There is an "indotype" of the *Mayflower*, and colored flags in great variety. The little volume is prettily printed.

We observe no other changes in the new edition of Loomis's 'Index Guide to Travel and Art Study in Europe' (Scribners) than the admission of advertisements—not puffs—at the end, and the replacing of two small maps of London and Paris by larger folding ones. To the excellence of this illustrated work we have frequently called attention during the past five years.

'Professor Johnny,' by "Jak" (Crowell & Co.) is one of that excellent class of stories for boys which do not depend upon exciting incidents for their interest. The greater part of the book is taken up with the description of the doings of children at the seashore, in the course of which the author manages to introduce considerable information about the elements of chemistry.

Indexes multiply, and indeed there cannot well be too many of them—"'scusin'" (as they say down South) the triple index to (the old) *Scribner's* and the *Century* (1870-85), where one alphabet should have unlocked the thirty volumes. The Leonard Scott Publication Co., Philadelphia, began with January a Quarterly Index to their reprints of the *Contemporary*, *Nineteenth Century*, *Fortnightly*, *Blackwood*, *Edinburgh*, *Scottish*, *Quarterly*, and *Westminster*, and also to their own publication, *Shakespeariana*. This is a real service, and we cannot doubt that it will be supported. The entries are by subject, with classifications, as, Art, Biography, Books Reviewed, Irish Question, etc. The authors' names are given where they can be, with the month, volume, and page of the periodical in parallel columns.

Mr. J. H. Hickcox's 'Catalogue of Government Publications' (Washington, 906 M St.) has, for want of adequate support, not been issued monthly of late. The thick No. 7–12 of vol. ii is before us, with index and supplement—the latter giving the titles of all the public acts passed at the second session of the Forty-ninth Congress. Mr. Hickcox states that 34,486,926 copies of all publications were printed during the fiscal year 1885–86, at an average cost (engraving and binding included) of 3 cents per copy. In this department of Congressional activity, as in Nature, enough cannot be had without too much; but Mr. Hickcox justly remarks that the wasteful excess

of Government printing is partly the result of ignorance of the probable demand. The law permits advance orders for public documents at a fixed price, but makes no provision for informing the public as to the documents about to be issued. Mr. Hickcox purposes to make such announcement a new feature of his Catalogue, and feels justified at the same time in enlarging his subscription price to $5. We sincerely hope he will obtain the requisite support.

In the April number of the *Book Buyer* Mr. Laurence Hutton begins a series of papers on "extra-illustrating"—Grangerizing, as it is technically termed, after the author of the 'Bibliographical History.' These pleasant essays will be amply illustrated.

In the April *New Englander* a general account is given of the late Wilhelm Scherer's library, which has been purchased by Adelbert College of Western Reserve University, at Cleveland, O. It is very diversified, but is particularly strong in comparative and Germanic philology; phonetics; German and French literature; Goethe literature; history, and philosophy.

In the *Overland Monthly* for April one may read a long and appreciative notice of the late Prof. E. R. Sill, a frequent contributor to this magazine, as he was an occasional writer for the *Nation*. His Pacific Coast friendships appear to have been very strong and enduring. Many examples of his verse are cited in the paper in question.

A very fair inquiry into the ownership of a second folio of Shakspere owned by Mr. C. F. Gunther, Chicago, and having pasted on a fly-leaf a seeming autograph of the dramatist, is made in *Shakespeariana* for April, by Mr. E. P. Vining. The genuineness of the autograph is left undecided.

The *Revue Internationale* for February 25 contains the fourth instalment of the extracts it is publishing from the 'Journal intime' of Benjamin Constant. This number is doubly interesting—first, for what it reveals concerning his novel of 'Adolphe,' and secondly for the continuation of the story of his relations with Mme. de Staël, constantly becoming more and more tempestuous. It is the story told over again of Voltaire and the Marquise du Châtelet, of Alfred de Musset and George Sand, of Liszt and the Comtesse d'Agoult; but told at the moment by one of the two actors, with all the fire and passion of a very present irritation. Quite as vivid and dramatic as these volcanic ruptures and appeasements are the passages concerning Mme. Dutertre, becoming more frequent and more ardent throughout the number, and finally culminating in a secret marriage, May 9, 1807. This is the date now given in a foot-note, but it was formerly given, apparently by Constant himself, as June 5, 1808. The question of dates, however, and even of the authenticity of certain previously published memoranda of Benjamin Constant for the years immediately following the close of the present extracts, is a very complicated one, and will add greatly to the interest of that part of the journal in which Mme. Récamier is about to appear.

A new review is announced which will interest Romance philologists. It will be called the *Revue des Patois Gallo-Romans*, and will be under the direction of M. J. Gilleron and the Abbé Rousselot. It promises also to appeal to the Folklorists by publishing popular tales, songs, and proverbs collected within the limits of ancient Gaul and of the past and present French colonies where there may be traces of French dialects or traditions. This last is a comparatively unexplored field.

The last number of *Petermann's Mitteilungen* contains an account by Dr. Plagemann of the mountain basin of the river Cachapoal in Chili, and an interesting description of a recent journey to the district of Fayum in Egypt, by R. Buchta. On the northern shore of the lake Birket el Kerun, regarded by most geographers as the ancient Moeris, he visited the extensive ruins of a Roman city. In an immense mound of fragments of pottery, there were numerous pieces of vases with a superb turquoise blue glaze, and very white glass richly enamelled. In a supplementary number is given an account of a journey in the mountains of Daghestan, by Dr. Radde of Tiflis. It has very full details as to the flora and ornithology of this little-known province, as well as entertaining descriptions of the village life of the hardy and unruly Lesghians.

Sir Francis de Winton, Administrator-General of the Congo Free State from 1884 to 1886, describes, in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for March, a curious religious and social revolution among the Balubas, a tribe living on one of the southern tributaries of the Congo. They have given up their fetish worship, and, in order to put a stop to the excessive drinking of palm-juice wine which accompanied their religious rites, they have cut down all their palm trees. Drunkenness and theft have been made capital crimes, and "the sole punishment" of the country is "the smoking of hemp, the culprits under the sentence of death being compelled to smoke it until they dropped."

There has just been published in Stockholm the first part of a work entitled 'Three Years on the Congo,' descriptive of the part taken by the Swedes in the founding of the new State, thirty-three having been officers of the various stations in addition to missionaries and travellers. Of the three authors, one, Mr. Gleerup, has just returned to Europe after crossing the continent from west to east in seven months. So great an interest has been awakened in Sweden in African colonization that an expedition has been organized to acquire territory in some yet unappropriated part of the country south of the desert of Sahara. The expedition, which will start from the Cameroons, is expected to be absent about a year, and will include several scientific men.

Phonetische Studien is the title of Wilhelm Vietor's new journal of scientific and practical phonetics, with contributions in English, German, and French (Marburg; New York: Westermann).

We have received from Rand, McNally & Co., Chicago, a "new official railroad map" of the United States and Canada, folded in covers; and a new edition of their Commercial Map of the same countries, likewise folded, but on a larger scale, viz., fifty-five miles to the inch. The latter exhibits counties and railroad stations as well as most of the principal towns to a remarkable degree of fulness.

Somewhat more than a year ago we spoke of the several series of *Indici e Cataloghi* begun to be issued by the Italian Ministry of Public Instruction, the fourth being the Palatine Codices of the Royal National Central Library of Florence, of which Dr. D. Chilovi is prefect. This has been edited upon the list already published by Palermo in his 'I Manoscritti Palatini di Firenze ordinati ed esposti' (1853–1868), by Prof. Adolfo Bartoli, who has had occasion to repair the omissions and errors of his predecessor in describing these manuscripts anew. They number 488 in all, and five instalments only bring us to No. 252. It is no mean pleasure merely to glance at the abstracts, in which an abrupt line launches the mind upon a sea of speculation as to what may follow in the text, or what go before. Thus, the legend of St. Apollonius (Palat. 38) begins: "Uno Santo padre, il quale si chiamò appollonio e stava in thebaida"; and a homily of St. John Chrysostom's (22) ends: "Giammai non potranno nuocere a colui el quale da se medesimo non è offeso." Especially is the imagination free in the case of the sonnets and other verse signalized by their first lines, like the "Ongni barbuto non è degli Armini," of Bindo Bonichi. There are numerous copies of the rhymes of Petrarch and of Dante, of Lorenzo de' Medici, etc. The sixth series is complete in a single *fascicolo;* it is a list of the political journals of the peninsula which the press law compels to be deposited in the National Library—"raccolta importantissima di fonti non ispregevoli per la storia generale e particolare." In the seventh series is begun a catalogue of the valuable Codici Panciatichiani, never before undertaken. It starts off with Dante, Petrarch, Boccaccio.

M. Alcide Darras, *docteur en droit*, has just published a bulky work, 'Du Droit des Auteurs et des Artistes dans les rapports internationaux' (Paris: Arthur Rousseau; New York: F. W. Christern). This is a complete statement of the present condition of international copyright throughout the civilized world. A glance through its pages will suffice to show that in the recognition of authors' rights the United States lags far behind nations which we are wont to look down on as stagnant and effete. Perhaps the most profitable passage of M. Darras's book just now for us Americans is the account of the copyright relations of France and Belgium. For a long time Belgium was to France much as the United States is now to Great Britain—with the important exception that Belgium had very few authors of her own, and had therefore to rely on France for her literature. In spite of trade protests, Belgium at last signed a treaty with France in 1852; and the evidence is now abundant that the Belgian trade has not suffered in any way by the recognition of the French author's rights and by the abolition of pirating, but that it has, on the contrary, prospered under the new state of affairs.

W. R. Jenkins, New York, has added 'La Belle-Nivernaise,' by Alphonse Daudet, to his very pretty collection of "Contes choisis." It will interest the young as being the story of an old boat and its crew, the crew being one man with a wooden leg. It may interest the old as having something of Daudet's manner, mitigated for the occasion. When it is considered that 'La Belle-Nivernaise' was published just before Christmas in Paris for ten francs, and that it is now offered for 25 cents, the American public may be said to be promptly and cheaply served.

In the *Nation* of March 24 we noticed the first volume of the new edition of Pascal's complete works, to be edited by Prosper Faugère. This veteran of Pascal literature has just died at the age of seventy-six. He made his début in letters in 1835, with an essay on the life of La Rochefoucauld-Liancourt, and later obtained the highest academic honors by papers on L'Hôpital, Gerson, and Pascal. In 1844 he published what may be considered as the *editio princeps* of the 'Pensées,' thanks to his judicious and honest use of the original manuscript. He also published the letters of Pascal's two sisters and those of his niece, besides an edition of the memoirs of Madame Roland, and the letters of La Mère Agnès (Arnauld) of Port-Royal. He was also the author of various occasional pamphlets of a semi-political character, and a contributor to the *Temps* and the *Correspondant*.

Nadson, who died on the 29th of January, was the most sympathetic and gifted of the young Russian poets. He began writing at the age of nine. His poems, when first published in the newspapers, became very popular among the mass of readers, after having been joyfully welcomed by a small private circle, and on their appearance in book form he became a great favorite. His mother was descended from some legendary Tatar khan; he suspected his grand-

father or great-grandfather (as he says in an autobiography, prepared a couple of years ago) to have been a Jew. Ill health forced him to leave the army in 1884, and seek the shores of the Mediterranean and the Crimea, after having vainly tried to fill the post of teacher in a village school and secretary to a journal. He was suspected of feigning ill health and melancholy for the sake of art, and the attacks upon him were numerous and savage, the last having appeared only three days before his death. He was born in 1862, and had just passed his twenty-fourth birthday at the time of his death.

The publication of Turgeneff's letters to P. V. Annenkoff, while it does not materially supplement the volume issued in 1885 by the Society for Aiding Needy Authors, sets him in a somewhat different light. His judgments of literary productions are almost invariably unfavorable, which is not the case in the volume referred to. He is almost always in need of money, and a great part of his correspondence seems to have been devoted to this subject. Of his own work he speaks occasionally, though not at length. Of 'Fathers and Sons' he writes in 1862: "I can only say that I stand in utter amazement at its effect. It is not that I rejoice—there is nothing in particular to rejoice at—but for the first time I am seriously pleased with my work, although I have a feeling that I stand on one side, and that some one else, who had to do it, and into whose hands I and my romance fell, dashed it off." "Trebly dyed nonsense" is the term which he applies to Victor Hugo's 'Travailleurs de la Mer.' When reading Count Tolstoi's 'War and Peace,' his comment is: "Impossible, impossible, impossible!" (as nearly as the word can be rendered). His meaning is explained in another letter. He objects to "the monotonous harping on the same identical sensations, such as, 'Am I, or am I not, a coward?' and the psychology in general, while admitting that the history—the focus—is admirable, and that all the military and social descriptions are of the first order. "Such another master as Tolstoi does not exist among us," he says.

—The two issues of the 'American Catalogue are, it is well known, to be continued at five-yearly intervals from 1884. Meantime the book trade has naturally desired something more convenient than the bound volumes of the *Publishers' Weekly*, or than the collection of catalogues known as the 'Publishers' Trade-List Annual.' An experiment has therefore been made which is interesting, first of all, on the mechanical side. The scheme of 'The Annual American Catalogue, 1886,' involved an alphabetical arrangement by authors of all the book entries in the *Publishers' Weekly* during the year in question, with full titles and descriptive notes (sometimes extracts from critical notices). To reset these would have cost more than could be recovered by sales, and the ingenious device was resorted to of deftly pasting the entries together in their new order, in double columns corresponding to a page of the *Weekly*, and obtaining a plate from these by means of photography. We should add that a further economy was attained by printing direct from the hardened gelatine plate, thus dispensing with metal. The result is of course inferior to the ordinary press work, but much less so than might have been expected; and while continuous reading would not be agreeable to the eye, for reference the print is distinct enough. So much for the first half of the Catalogue. Mr. Bowker was not content to stop there, but has added an index by author, title, and subject, thus meeting every want of the bookseller. This portion had to be set anew. The publishers themselves contribute lists of their issues for 1886. Whether the 'American Annual Catalogue' for 1887 will ever appear, depends on the reception given to this forerunner. The trade can hardly be so indifferent to its own advantage, or to the disinterestedness of the compilers and publishers, as to make this first volume unremunerative.

—Mr. Edward Atkinson continues his popular economical papers in the April *Century* by putting and answering the question, How much more would the laborers get if they should take all the profits? He estimates that they now obtain nine parts in ten of the entire product of the country, while of this last tenth a considerable portion also eventually goes to them. He charges a very large part of the present discontent to a misuse of the figures of the census of 1880, and himself passes some noticeable criticisms upon these figures as they stand, independently of any ignorant handling of them. At the end of his analysis he makes the points that the money value of what the laborers are straining for is much smaller than is supposed by them, and that the prospective usefulness of this sum by its application to production is greater, when left in the hands of the capitalists, than would be the case if it were dispersed among the laborers. The effectiveness of capital under the present rules of distribution brings about that increase of production which is the real gain and underlies the advance of the working classes. The position is stated with much force, but with too little clearness for the ordinary reader; the large class of those who are interested, but only slightly familiar with the general subject, are the writer's proper audience. He expresses his views of the present prosperity of the country in broad terms; never has there been, he says, so large a product at so low a cost relative to the investment, so low a rate of profit on capital maintaining activity, so high a rate of wages in proportion to the hours, a dollar that would buy so much; and, finally, never has the workman received so large a share of the total product. In view of all this, he concludes that "the disturbers of labor have about exhausted their temporary power of mischief," and that the "organizations" are "now assuming their true and beneficent function, to wit: that of schools of inquiry." This last, certainly, must be set down as optimistic.

— The *English Illustrated Magazine* for April (Macmillan) contains some original Sheridan papers, which were saved at the time of the Drury Lane fire in 1809, and, after remaining for sixty years unknown, are now first published. The new matter, which is a selection from the whole mass, consists of letters written to Sheridan by his wife, from the time of their secret marriage in France in 1772 to her death in 1792. Many of them are love letters, and one reads the story of the romantic attachment of the young lovers, and of their hard-hearted parents' persecution and intrigue to prevent their union, as if it were a sentimental novel of that time. It is a delightful exhibition of natural feeling, in a style that has become to us as artificial as the opera, and revives the dead past most dramatically. The letters written in the latter portion of their wedded life are more important for Sheridan's memory, as their general mood of confidence and affection puts an end to the statement that he had alienated her heart and made her miserable by his irregularities. The correspondence will light up future biographies. A memorandum of Sheridan's, also given, clears up somewhat the mystery of his purchase of Drury Lane of Garrick and Lacy. It has to do only with the affair with Lacy, but it seems that Garrick was the holder of the large mortgage on his partner's moiety and let it remain, and that the sale was practically forced and the price exorbitant. The share of Garrick as friend and adviser in this transaction lends more color to the old report, discredited by Moore, that he stood behind Sheridan in the first instance and made the terms easy to be met. The account of the second purchase is minutely rendered, with some comments by Sheridan. The whole article is an admirable piece of biography, and shows its hero in an attractive light, without making either a caricature or an idol of him.

—The *Overland Monthly* for March has a timely and interesting memorial of Virgil Williams, one of the pioneers of art in California. It is by a deaf and dumb pupil of Williams, and is mainly a collection of the notes of instruction, written in order that the deaf mute might read. Mr. Williams's life was passed in what is in the main an excellent milieu for an artist who has acquired a system and mastered the indispensable technique, but a bad one for a beginner, viz., Rome. In the old days much more than now, the Eternal City attracted more than any other locality the artists of all countries. One did not have much opportunity to learn what was most important to learn, viz., sound technical methods, but the city was most picturesque in its ensemble, surrounded with material which seemed to have grown up by the rules of art on purpose to make pictures, and the galleries were full of works by the old masters which were considered the types that all young artists must follow. But Rome was especially attractive to the speculative painters, men who dreamed much and thought much about art in the abstract, and occasionally one met men who, never having painted a tolerable picture, had their heads full of the philosophy of art. This intercourse made a kind of education of which the Caffè Greco was the university, and there in the winter evenings general assembly was held for the benefit of who would participate. Like many American artists of that day, Williams passed those years of his life when, if ever, a man is learning a method, in Rome, where no method could be learned; and, like most American artists of his day, he had a good theoretical idea of art without ever attaining a high position as a painter. His ideas, as recorded by his deaf-mute pupil, have now and then the stamp of his school in incisive clearness. There is a note on Fortuny which was prophetic. "When I said that Mr. Moore was most enthusiastic about Fortuny, saying that he was the greatest painter of all ages, Mr. Williams wrote out: 'I am aware of that, but I think the school of Fortuny is a fashion.'" This is so true that today even in Rome, where Fortuny reigned supreme, his influence has entirely gone—he is out of fashion. Many of Williams's sayings will be recognized by all who are to the manner born as sound maxims of art: "No one with an artistic temperament but experiences periods of great dejection and corresponding elation—we must take the bitter with the sweet. If the ecstasy of drunkenness were not followed by reaction and pain, the whole world [the whole world that has the artistic temperament] would be continually and gloriously drunk." "That book ['Ruskin on Painting'] is very pleasant reading for young ladies, but you will get no practical benefit from it. The author is a charming descriptive writer, but a conceited and prejudiced old ass—he is in art what Carlyle was in literature—both of them captious, arrogant, prejudiced, egotistical, and clever men." "You (I was three months working at Venus of Milo [*sic*]) have one thing to congratulate yourself on, that you have learned to love this Venus. It is only the artist who really appreciates her beauties. It is a custom among dilettanti to gush over her, but they only follow the lead of artists." But, as if to enjoin due caution in regard to the judgments of a man whose intellectual value was mainly that acquired from his association, he couples with just recommendation of the 'Thoughts on Art' of Hamerton, Jar-

ves's 'Lectures on Grecian Art'—books which, so far as first-hand and secure opinion on art are concerned, are the antipodes of art literature.

—*Les Lettres et les Arts* (Paris: Boussod, Valadon et Cie.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons) offers a new aspect to its readers with every fresh issue. This time it is more novel than usual. The one serious article of the number for March is as fantastic, at least in its suggestions, as a very serious writer could well make a very serious subject. It is "Le Philosophe Érasme," by M. Jules Zeller of the Institute, the historian and critic, and it continues to a certain extent another article by him which appeared in the *revue* for April, 1886, "La Renaissance en Allemagne." The illustrations are all after original engravings by Hans Holbein, even the ornamental letters at the beginning of paragraphs being from the alphabet of his "Dance of Death." Some pages of music, "Pantomime," by Victorin Joncières, and a sonnet and landscape, both by Lansyer the artist, precede and follow this article, separating it from the rest of the contents of the number, which is entirely fiction, contrary to the custom of the *revue*. Of this, by far the best contribution is the first part of a story by M. Paul Perret, "Mademoiselle de Bardelys," one of the very few returns to the historical romance of the first half of the century that have been made in recent years, and a very successful attempt to combine the interest of the heroic adventures of the past school with the depth of sentiment of the present. The style is that of a few writers among the *impressionistes*, but not carried to any offensive excess; and the illustrations, of which there are many, are impressionist also in the extreme, but they are certainly effective. They give the idea of a richness and vividness of coloring, and an intensity and depth of expression, which are surprising when the really dim colors and vague outlines are carefully observed. Very unlike these, but in another way quite as fantastic, is the frontispiece, a portrait in water-colors, by Boutet de Monvel, of Mlle. Hélène de Rothschild, a little girl four or five years old, in which this artist's curious combination of excessive realism with excessive conventionality is conspicuous. Nothing more unreal as a work of art could be produced, and yet the little childish face in the midst of it all has an almost startling effect of life and reality.

—The 'Antiquities of the Minusinsk Museum: Relics of the Age of Metals,' by D. Klementz (Tomsk, 1884), and an Atlas of the same (1886), both published by Ivan Kuznetzoff, are books of interest to archæologists. The Minusinsk Museum has only been in existence for about ten years, although the district of Western Siberia in which it is situated has long been an object of curiosity to scientific men, archæologists, and naturalists, on account of its natural features and the interesting remains of antiquity found there. A brief account of the founding of the Museum is given by Mr. Martyanoff. At first, as the funds were inadequate, there was no thought of collecting local antiquities, but during the Museum's first year of existence a gift in that department from Mr. Kuznetzoff was followed by others, so that the authorities felt it to be their duty to go on. In the course of six years, only 600 rubles have been expended in the acquisition of antiquities, yet the archæological section now contains 3,630 articles, principally of copper, bronze, gold, silver, and iron. The catalogue before us, which contains a topographical chart of the valley of the Yenisei, confines itself to descriptions of the plates, an account of the archæological remains of the district from personal observations, sundry facts about the peoples who anciently inhabited the Minusinsk region, etc. "The Upper Yenisei," Mr. Martyanoff says, "is separated from that great source of the culture of antiquity, China, by a long series of steppes and nomad settlements. The ruins which have descended to us from the ancient inhabitants of the Minusinsk region consist, (1) of funeral mounds, scattered all over the southern part of the Yenisei Government, North Mongolia, the Altai region, and West Siberia; (2) of the remains of ancient constructions, earthen walls, the ruined remains of irrigating canals, stone carvings, statues, inscribed stones, cliff rock faces covered with drawings and inscriptions, abandoned excavations and mines. In addition to these, ancient iron, gold, silver, bronze, and stone implements are constantly being turned up in agricultural operations and in the river drift, all over the southern part of the Yenisei Government. In one word, there are here rich treasures of archæology, which remain almost completely unknown up to the present day." Mr. Kuznetzoff gives his own impressions of some of these, amplifying the description and classification of the tumuli given by Radloff, and says that studies on the subject have been very fragmentary and insufficient. He also furnishes a description of the opening of these tumuli, mines, and ruins, and of the objects found in them, as well as of statues, miscellaneous articles, and pictures. The catalogue contains a list of metal objects, supplemented by a description of some of clay, bone, etc., with the places where they were found, and exact measurements both outside and in. This is the first scientific work of the sort to make its appearance in Siberia.

ROBERT E. LEE.—I.

Memoirs of Robert E. Lee. His Military and Personal History, etc. By A. L. Long, formerly military secretary to Gen. Lee, afterwards Brig.-Gen. and Chief of Artillery, Second Corps, Army of Northern Virginia; together with incidents relating to his private life subsequent to the war, collected and edited with the assistance of Marcus J. Wright, formerly Brig.-Gen. Army of Tennessee, and agent of the United States for the collection of Confederate Records. Illustrated 8vo, pp. 707. New York: J. M. Stoddart & Co. 1887.

SEVERAL volumes of Memoirs of Gen. Lee, either military or personal, have been written, but none of them can be said to be fully authoritative. The present one has certain advantages over most of those that have preceded it. Its writer, Gen. Long, as military secretary to Lee at the beginning of his career in the Confederate armies, had some positive advantages in his intimate relations with his chief, and has been able to give many incidents illustrating his personal character and habits of mind which are both interesting and valuable. It is going rather far, however, to claim, as the publishers do, that it is in substance a "consummation" of Lee's own purpose to write his autobiography. The book is still a compilation, in which the work of others has been freely used, though the material is welded together so as to make a fairly smooth-flowing narrative. The authoritative biography of Lee is yet to be written, and it has been stated that Col. Charles Marshall, the General's last military secretary, is selected by the family for the task. The greatest value of Gen. Long's book is found in the reminiscences of his personal association with Lee, and in his reports of the conduct and opinions of his chief as they were seen and heard by himself. The narrative of Lee's early life and his service in the army of the United States prior to the civil war is also more full than usual, and therefore more acceptable.

It is probably impossible for any writer, whether a Northern or a Southern man, to make an impartial estimate of Robert E. Lee's character as a man or as a soldier. The earnest Union man cannot wholly ignore the question of duty to the national Government owed by its military officers in 1861; and his mind refuses assent to the proposition that to throw off the uniform and take arms against the flag under which he had been educated and served as a soldier, involved no moral wrong. The earnest Confederate, on the other hand, exaggerates the preëminence of his hero, and hardly stops short of apotheosis in his praises. The time will doubtless come when the characters of our civil war will be analyzed with as impartial a criticism as that with which we now deal with the Commonwealth men and the Royalists of the seventeenth century, and with as little prejudice based upon sympathy or antipathy; but it is not yet. We owe it to our intellectual self-respect to make the sincere effort to be fair in our judgments and to put off our prejudices, but we also owe it to candor to admit that complete success in the effort is hardly possible.

When the civil war opened, Robert E. Lee was fifty-four years old, and Lieutenant-Colonel in the army. He was already beyond the age which was regarded as best fitted for command in the field, for the domination of ideas derived from Napoleonic history was then complete in our army, and men would have laughed at the idea of a campaign like the Franco-Prussian one, in which hardly a single general officer of either army was much less than sixty. But Lee was a man of most temperate life and robust body, and was younger than most men of his years. His only field service had been in the Mexican war, and almost the whole of his military life had been spent in duty as an engineer. His mind was sound and well-balanced, his personal character was pure, he was a sincerely religious man, dignified and reticent. The general testimony of those who knew him best would seem to make his reputation as an officer a solid and trustworthy one more than one of brilliancy or what is called genius. His family descent and his marriage into the Custis family gave him consideration and influence, as they naturally might, and jealousy might easily argue that he owed no small part of his standing and prestige to such accidents of fortune. The truth, however, seems to be that he deserved all the reputation he had, and that those who came nearest to him were most impressed with his worthiness and fitness for larger responsibilities than any he had borne. Gen. Scott's partiality for him was well known, and designated him without exception as the fittest man to succeed himself in the chief command of the army.

Arlington, the inheritance of Mrs. Lee and the home of Lee and his family, was in what had been the District of Columbia till the part south of the Potomac was ceded back to Virginia, and it would be hard to find a man who might more properly be considered a citizen of the United States rather than a citizen of any State. His life-long service in the army, his indirect connection with Washington's family, his home at the national capital, all seemed to separate him from local ties and bind him to the whole country.

In the case of Gen. Scott, himself a Virginian, somewhat similar circumstances made friend and foe feel, as he felt himself, that no State had any claim upon him; he belonged to the United States. There was, however, this difference, that Scott had no children, while Lee had a large family of sons and daughters, some of whom were in early manhood and womanhood when their father had to make his momentous decision. That this may have been, nay, that it probably was, the turning-weight in

the balance, may be fairly concluded from Lee's own words. Social influences were almost omnipotent in the South in those days, and the young of both sexes far outran their elders in making secession sentiments the test of social standing. A man of prominence with a large family circle found his judgment and his purposes drawn by numerous strong cords of influence which the childless or the isolated would not have felt. The enthusiasm of youth committed itself, heart and soul, to a cause that graybeards sadly wagged their heads over, and often made their own only with reluctance.

Lee was as far as possible removed from being a secessionist in theory. He was a slaveholder, and looked upon the anti-slavery movement as an aggression and unjustifiable; but he did not regard secession as either the practical or lawful remedy. He wrote to his son in January, 1861:

"Secession is nothing but revolution. The framers of our Constitution never exhausted so much labor, wisdom, and forbearance in its formation, and surrounded it with so many guards and securities, if it was intended to be broken by every member of the Confederacy at will. It is intended for 'perpetual union,' so expressed in the preamble, and for the establishment of a government, not a compact, which can only be dissolved by revolution, or the consent of all the people in convention assembled."

Still, he added that if the revolution should come and the Union be in fact disrupted, "I shall return to my native State and share the miseries of my people, and, save in defence, will draw my sword on none."

At the time he wrote this letter he was on military duty in Texas, where for the most of the preceding year he was in command of the Department; Gen. Twiggs, the Commandant, being off duty by reason of ill health. There, Lee used the same language to his friends, as we learn from the conclusive testimony of Charles Anderson, brother of Gen. Robert Anderson and afterwards Governor of Ohio. Col. Anderson has published his reminiscences of the events attending the pretended secession of Texas, in a pamphlet entitled 'Texas Before and on the Eve of Rebellion.' He was a personal friend and sincere admirer of Lee, and received as much of his confidence as any one was likely to receive in such a time from a man who was struggling with the terrible problem of duty in such a case, and who was by nature one whose "grave, cold dignity of bearing, and the prudential reserve of whose manners, rather chilled over-early or over-much intimacy." He gives us as the substance of Lee's statements to him the following: "If Virginia stands by the old Union, so will I. But if she secedes (though I do not believe in secession as a constitutional right, nor that there is a sufficient cause for a revolution), then I will still follow my native State, with my sword, and if need be with my life."

No sooner was Lincoln elected than Gen. Twiggs, although in no better health than during the year before, resumed command. This was on the 27th of November, 1860, and it seems clear that it was done by direction of Floyd, then Secretary of War, a Virginian of different fibre from Robert E. Lee, and who was quite capable of conspiring with Twiggs and with the secession element of Texas to surrender the troops and the property of the United States, of which they both were officers. Lee could not be used for such a purpose. The surrender was finally made, as Anderson informs us, not to the State authorities of Texas, but to a committee appointed by the Knights of the Golden Circle, who were then conspiring to revolutionize the State against Sam. Houston, the Governor, who was too much of a Union man for them. These gentry even informed Col. Lee "that, unless he would then and there engage to resign his commission in the United States Army, and to take one under the Confederate authority, he should not have transportation for his effects (which were bulky and valuable) to the coast." This Lee himself told to Anderson "in greatest agitation of indignation." He scornfully rejected such terms, and left his personal property behind him, requesting Anderson to try to have it forwarded after him at his private cost.

Lee reached Arlington, on his return from Texas, some time in March, 1861, and was registered in the Adjutant-General's office as on leave, awaiting orders. He seems to have avoided society, and even to have held aloof from Gen. Scott. He was painfully awaiting the effect the Southern revolution might have upon Virginia, and reflecting upon the difficult task of deciding his own course. The most authentic account of his interview with Scott (for there seems to have been but one) is given by Gen. E. D. Townsend in his 'Anecdotes of the Civil War.' Gen. Townsend was then upon Scott's staff, and says that on the 18th of April the General asked if he had seen Lee lately, adding, "It is time he should show his hand, and, if he remains loyal, should take an important command." Townsend wrote a note to Lee intimating Scott's wish to see him at headquarters, and on the 19th Lee called. By Scott's desire, Townsend, who was at a desk in the same room, remained and was witness to the conversation. Scott urged the duty laid upon all to declare their position, and his opinion of the fatal mistake made by those who resigned from the army to take part with the seceding States. To repeated forms of putting this, Lee made no reply, and Scott, naturally interpreting the silence as proof of an unfavorable purpose, said, probably with some asperity, "I suppose you will go with the rest. If you purpose to resign, it is proper you should do so at once; your present attitude is an equivocal one." Lee then responded, "General, the property belonging to my children, all they possess, lies in Virginia. They will be ruined if they do not go with their State. I cannot raise my hand against my children." It is fair to interpret his silence as evidence of the severity of the internal struggle which had now come to a crisis, and not to a moody antagonism. There is no doubt that he deeply loved the Union, and that he regarded secession as unjustifiable revolution. In an agony of conflicting emotions, it was personal sympathies and feelings which most powerfully affected him, for he did not wish Virginia to secede, and had no political sympathy with those who were trying to force her to go with the South. It therefore most naturally took to his mind the concrete form of personal and family ties, binding him to a fate which he accepted, but could not affirmatively choose. It was not that he desired to go with the revolutionists, but that he could not fight against them, since this would involve raising his hand against his children.

The resignation which he wrote on the 20th of April refers to the interview as on the 18th (two days thus intervening), and says: "It would have been presented at once, but for the struggle it has cost me to separate myself from a service to which I have devoted the best years of my life and all the ability I possessed." He ended by saying, "Save in the defence of my native State, I never desire again to draw my sword." The mental process we have tried to portray appears in a letter to his sister, Mrs. Marshall of Baltimore, written on the same day with his resignation, and which is also quoted by Gen. Long. He says:

"The whole South is in a state of revolution into which Virginia, after a long struggle, has been drawn; and, though I recognize no necessity for this state of things, and would have forborne and pleaded to the end for redress of grievances, real or supposed, yet in my own person I had to meet the question whether I should take part against my native State. With all my devotion to the Union, and the feeling of loyalty and duty of an American citizen, I have not been able to make up my mind to raise my hand against my relatives, my children, my home. I have therefore resigned my commission in the army, and, save in defence of my native State, with the sincere hope that my poor services may never be needed, I hope I may never be called on to draw my sword."

On the 22d of April the Virginia Convention confirmed his appointment as "Commander-in-chief of the naval and military forces of this commonwealth," and the President of the Convention, fitting his words to what it may be presumed he knew of Lee's frame of mind, declared that "Virginia placed her sword in your hand upon the implied condition—which we know you will keep to the letter and in the spirit—that you will draw it only in defence." Lee, in his reply accepting the position, again reiterates, "I devote myself to the service of my native State, in whose behalf alone will I ever again draw my sword."

Lee's character and subsequent career cannot be thoroughly understood unless we take full account of all the opinions and feelings which have thus been described. He was not using words at a venture, but meant all he said. He saw a revolution going on, he scouted the idea of a right of peaceable secession, he intimated that the South was exercised over supposed as well as real grievances. He had not lost his love for the Union, he avowed his feelings of loyalty and duty as an American citizen. But Virginia had taken the fatal step, and he could not decide to raise his hand against his relatives, his children, and his home. He resigned, hoping, as he himself afterwards wrote, "that some way would be found to save the country from the calamities of war," and with "no other intention than to pass the remainder of my life as a private citizen."

But events were moving rapidly, and a few days brought the call to lead in the defence of Virginia as an independent commonwealth. The costly and painful first step had been taken, and this seemed to follow logically from the other. He accepted the call, as we have seen, with the express reservation that he would act only in defence. Another short period (it is hard to realize that it was but two or three days), and Virginia entered the Confederacy. Lee's position was now anomalous, and we can easily believe he sincerely hoped to solve it by a return to private life. He was at the head of the Virginia forces, under a Virginia commission, but Virginia's troops were put at the disposal of the Confederacy. He did not take the field. Johnston and Beauregard already held Confederate commissions, and were in command of the troops gathering at Manassas and in the Shenandoah valley. Lee confined his labors to the organization and equipment of Virginia regiments, and it was not till after the battle of Bull Run that he accepted the commission of General in the army of the Confederate States. The time may come when we shall know something of his mental struggles and experiences during those three months: at present we can only conjecture them. The fatal logic of events had fastened Virginia to the revolutionary policy her people never approved, and Lee's defence of home had, step by step, become the championship of the cause he had declared legally unconstitutional and practically unwise and unnecessary.

TIME REFERENCES IN THE DIVINA COMMEDIA.

The Time References in the Divina Commedia, and their bearing on the assumed date and du-

ration of the Vision. By the Rev. Edward Moore, D.D., Principal of St. Edmund Hall, Oxford, and Barlow Lecturer in University College, London. London: David Nutt. 1887. 16mo, pp. 134, with seven tables.

A FEW questions in literature are of perennial interest. Every generation will have its own library concerning the composition of the 'Iliad,' the allegory of the 'Divine Comedy,' the various readings of Shakspere's plays. The discussion of these problems is the more alluring and entertaining because there can be no hope of a solution of them that shall be final and universally satisfactory. Now and then some Wolf, Grote, Witte, or Coleridge brings such learning or imagination to bear upon the interpretation as to clear away many a difficulty, while he still leaves many unexplained. But, besides these main questions, there are subordinate ones, offering, very likely, a wide field for difference of opinion, but which well-applied industry and careful investigation may hope to solve. Their solution depends not so much upon keenness of literary insight and delicacy of literary perception, as on thorough examination of the text and intelligent inquiry into its significance. The little volume which Dr. Moore has just published, on the 'Time References in the Divina Commedia,' is an excellent example of good work in elucidating a matter on which great difference of opinion has existed, and yet about which a correct conclusion is of considerable importance for the proper understanding of the scheme of Dante's journey in the spiritual realms.

The question divides itself in two; the first relating to the date of the journey, the second to the time which it occupied. It is certain that there was no lack of clearness or definiteness in regard to these points in Dante's own mind, and certain, also, that his narrative is so consistent throughout that a positive conclusion in respect to them is to be arrived at, provided his statements concerning them be properly interpreted. These statements, however, are not only very numerous, but are often very obscure and susceptible of more than one interpretation. The mentions of time in the course of the journey refer sometimes to the position of the sun, sometimes to that of the moon, and the interpretation of the latter depends, of course, on the year in which the Vision took place and on the day of the month on which it is assumed to have begun. The turning-point of the discussion is therefore in respect to this year and to the day.

The evidence, both direct and collateral, that the year of the Vision was 1300, is convincing. The time of year was about the spring equinox (Inf. i, 38-40); the actual day on which the poet entered the Inferno was Good Friday (xxi, 112). It was on the morning of this day that, after a night passed in the dark wood, during which the light of the full moon had sometimes been of service to him (xx, 127), he undertook the ascent of the hill whose shoulders were touched by the rays of the rising sun (i, 16). Brief as is his account of his attempt to ascend it, this occupied many hours, so that not till late in the day, having retreated to the base of the hill and abandoned his undertaking, was he met by Virgil and encouraged by him to follow him as his guide through "the eternal place." The day was going (ii, 1) as the poets set out for the entrance of Hell. Dr. Moore bids the reader "observe in passing how significantly Dante enters the Inferno at nightfall, and both Purgatory and Paradise at daybreak, and, moreover, the earthly paradise as well."

The day, as we have said, was Good Friday. But did Dante intend the ideal Good Friday—that is, the 25th of March, which, according to a widespread belief, was the actual day of the crucifixion, as well as the day of the creation, and, according to the Julian calendar, of the vernal equinox, or "did he follow ordinary custom and refer to Good Friday as generally observed, which would be, in fact, April 8, in the year 1300"? In case the former supposition be adopted, he must have falsely assumed the existence of a full moon on the evening of March 24; while in case we assume the latter supposition as correct, we find that, according to the calendar of 1300, the full moon fell on the evening before Good Friday, as Dante describes it as doing. In this year, however, the full moon by the calendar was two days later than the real full moon, and the new question arises whether Dante attended to the absolute fact, or to the commonly received statement and understanding of it. The answer to this question is, as might be expected of a poet writing for a popular audience, that "all his allusions are to be connectedly and consistently explained as referring" to the date of the *calendar* moon, and not to that of the *real* moon. "To have adopted," says Dr. Moore, "any other than a popular computation of familiar celestial phenomena would not only be poetically superfluous, but positively misleading." Yet many commentators have puzzled themselves and their readers by endeavoring to adapt Dante's references to the moon to its astronomically correct position, and have endeavored to interpret the poem as if it were intended to have the accuracy of a scientific treatise.

Assuming, then, that the poet adopted the actual Good Friday of 1300 as the date of the day on the evening of which he entered Hell, and that he followed the calendar in its date for the full moon, we may reasonably assume further that Dante would find it sufficient for such exactness as was required by his poem to calculate, in a rough and popular way, the retardation of the moon behind the sun at about fifty minutes for each complete day. "Further, we should not be many minutes wrong if, at a distance of about twenty days from the calendar equinox, we assumed sunrise to be about 5:15 A. M., and sunset about 6:45 P. M." Taking for granted these various assumptions, we proceed, following Dr. Moore, to see how the principal time references of the poem agree with this scheme; and since it is impossible, within the limits of our space, to set forth his argument at length, we condense its results in the following table for the benefit of students of the poem who may not have access to Dr. Moore's essay:

INFERNO.

I., 16, 37. "The time was the beginning of the morning" (37). Sunrise, Good Friday, April 8.

II., 1. "The day was going," as the poets approach the entrance of Hell.

VII., 98. "Already every star is sinking." Past midnight, as Dante and Virgil leave the fourth circle.

XI., 113. "The Fishes are quivering upon the horizon." The constellation of the Pisces is setting, about 4 to 5 A. M., Saturday, April 9, as the poets descend from the sixth to the seventh circle.

XX., 125. The moon is setting, past 6 A. M., as they are leaving the fourth bolgia of the eighth circle.

XXI., 112. 7 A. M., in the fifth bolgia.

XXIX., 10. "Now the moon is beneath our feet." About 1 P. M. The poets are leaving the ninth bolgia. Dante "avoids all mention of the sun during his passage through the Inferno," and describes the hour by referring to the position of "the face of the lady who rules here" (x., 80)—that is, Hecate, who in Heaven is Luna.

XXXIV., 68. "But the night is reascending," as the poets depart from Hell, at the beginning of the night of Saturday.

XXXIV., 96. "And now the sun returns to middle tierce"—that is, about half-past 7 A. M. "This rapid change of twelve hours is due to the passage through the centre of the earth, as explained by Virgil in lines 106-118." The time, by change of hemisphere, has been put back twelve hours, so that it is now again the morning of Saturday. The reference to the sun indicates that Hell has been left.

XXXIV., 139. "Thence we came forth to rebehold the stars." The passage from the centre of the earth to its surface at the Mount of Purgatory has occupied (in brief narrative) the whole of the new Saturday and the night following. It is now early in the morning, before dawn, of Easter Sunday, April 10.

PURGATORIO.

I., 19-21. "The fair planet that to love incites, was making the whole orient to smile." Dawn, Easter Sunday, as the poets arrive at the shore of Purgatory.

II., 1. Sunrise. "Now had the sun reached the horizon," as the boat with the celestial pilot appears.

II., 55. "On every side the sun was darting forth the day," when the poets are addressed by the new comers.

III., 16. "The sun was flaming red," as Dante and Virgil approach the foot of the mountain.

IV., 15. "Full fifty degrees the sun had risen," 8:45 to 9 A. M., as they enter the upward path.

IV., 137-8. "The meridian is touched by the sun," as the poets go on through the Ante-Purgatory.

VII., 43, 85. "The day declines"; "the lessening sun seeks his nest." Still are the poets in the Ante-Purgatory.

VIII., 1. Twilight, in the Valley of the Kings.

VIII., 49. "The air was darkening." The end of the first day, Easter Sunday, in the Valley.

IX., 1-12. Moonrise, between 8:30 and 9 P. M. Falling asleep of Dante on the grass.

IX., 13. Early dawn of Easter Monday. Vision of the eagle.

IX., 44. "The sun more than two hours high," about 7:30 A. M. The poets at the door of Purgatory.

X., 14. Moonset, during the passage of the poets through the rocky pass from the gate of Purgatory to the first ledge.

XII., 81. Just past midday. "The sixth handmaid of the day returns from service," as the poets are leaving the first ledge—that where Pride is punished.

XV., 1. Past three o'clock P. M., as they pass from the second cornice, where Envy is purged away, to the third, which is that of Anger.

XV., 141. The sun is getting low: as they enter the bitter smoke of this ledge.

XVII., 9. The sun "was now setting" as they pass out of the smoke, and the stars "are appearing on many sides" (72) as they go up to the fourth ledge, where Sloth is punished.

XVIII., 76. "The moon, almost to midnight late," as a band of the slothful hurry by the poets, and, when they have passed, Dante falls asleep.

XIX., 1-6. Description of the hour before dawn of a new day—Tuesday, April 12—in which Dante has a vision of the Siren.

XIX., 37-39. "Full already of high day were all the circles of the sacred mountain" as the poets approach the entrance to the fifth ledge, where Avarice and Prodigality are punished. "Observe," says Dr. Moore, "the admirable fitness with which D. times his progress so that the time spent in the *Cornice* where *Accidia* or Spiritual Sloth is punished, is exactly coincident with the hours of night—'the night when no man can work.'"

XXII., 118. The fifth handmaiden of the day "was at the pole," guiding the car of day as

Dante and Virgil are passing along the sixth cornice, that of Gluttony.

XXV., 1-3. About two o'clock indicated by the position of the sun, when the poets ascend the narrow stairway by which they pass to the seventh ledge, or that of Lust.

XXVI., 4-6. The sun is getting low as they proceed along this ledge.

XXVII., 1-5. "The day was going"; 63. "The sun departs and the evening comes"; 70-72, the darkness gradually closes in; 89-90, the stars were shining bright, as Tuesday, April 12, the third day spent in Purgatory ends, and, the poets having attained to its summit, Dante falls asleep and has the vision of Leah. 109. The dawn of the next day, and (112) "now the darkness fled away on every side," and the sun shines upon Dante's forehead (133) as he enters the Earthly Paradise.

XXXIII., 104. "The sun was holding the meridian circle" when Dante is led by Matilda to drink of the waters of Eunoë, restored by which he is "Pure and disposed to mount unto the stars." This was at noon of Wednesday.

PARADISO.

The Paradiso affords no such indications of time as are given in the Inferno and the Purgatorio, for in Paradise the poet has passed from time to eternity, and to a realm where there is no need of the dividing light of sun or moon, for there is no night there. Dante, however, in vv. 37-45 of the first canto of the Paradiso, indicates the earthly morning as the time when he entered Paradise; and if *mane*, the morning, is to be taken here in its natural sense, the interval from the noon of Wednesday to the morning of Thursday is not accounted for, and the imagination of the reader must fill it as best it can.

Two passages in the Paradiso, canto xxii, 151-153, and canto xxvii, 79-87, suggest the passage of time on earth during the poet's vision of Paradise, but the indications they give are vague; it is difficult, if not impossible, to draw from them a precise reference to time, and, so far as they admit of a literal interpretation, it is, as Dr. Moore says, "rather local than temporal." The whole situation is purely ideal. But Dr. Moore is inclined to infer from these passages that the stay in Paradise occupied a single earthly day, and that Dante found himself on earth again on the evening of Thursday, April 14; the Vision having thus occupied precisely seven days. "The completeness and propriety of such a period would not fail to strike one so constantly impressed by the mystic significance of numbers."

Such, in brief, are the main conclusions of Dr. Moore's treatise. They are supported throughout by keen and discriminating argument, and they afford a consistent and, in the main, a satisfactory solution of the many difficult problems presented by the subject in its various aspects. Many points of interest, more or less closely connected with the chief topic, are incidentally touched upon in the discussion, and, whether all its conclusions be accepted or not, the student will find the little volume of great service for the understanding of the poem.

AN ORIENTAL STORY-BOOK.

The History of the Forty Vezirs, or the Story of the Forty Morns and Eves. Written in Turkish by Sheykh-Zâda. Done into English by E. J. W. Gibb, M.R.A.S. London: Redway; New York: Scribner & Welford. Post 8vo, pp. 450.

THERE is a fashion in literature, as in other things, and just now the fashion seems to be for popular tales of all descriptions. The four quarters of the globe are ransacked for nursery tales, which the learned laboriously comment and the public read for all that. Undoubtedly many of these tales are worthy of a place in more permanent literature, and, even when stripped of their pseudo-mythological or "survival-of-savagery" character, constitute no uninteresting branch of study. Still, there is danger of overstocking the market, and risk of wearying the mind of the reader with interminable variations of familiar themes. There are, however, certain great cycles of stories which are not only interesting in themselves, but valuable for the history of culture. Besides, they afford an unusually fascinating field for the student of comparative literature, because, belonging to the class of written literature, their diffusion can be traced with much greater accuracy than is possible in the case of stories handed down by oral tradition alone. In the latter case we can simply say that such and such tales are found in such and such countries, but how or when they came there is a question that would puzzle anybody but Prof. Max Müller or Mr. Andrew Lang. In the former case we have exact, or approximately exact, data in the shape of translations, by which the stories in question were diffused within historical times from one land to another. It is to this class of works, and to one of the most interesting of the class, that Mr. Gibb's translation of 'The History of the Forty Vezirs' belongs.

The Oriental estimate of woman has never been a high one, and probably found its justification in the results of the systematic ignorance and seclusion in which women were kept. Stories of woman's craft have always been popular in the East, and the idea of connecting a number of such stories by means of another tale employed as a frame is peculiarly Oriental. In the work of which we are about to speak, a king loses his wife and intrusts his son, the issue of the marriage, to a wise man or number of wise men to be instructed. The father meanwhile marries again, and the son is sent home to his father by the master, who first casts the son's horoscope and warns him of an approaching danger from which he can escape only by remaining silent a certain length of time. The king is disconsolate at finding his son a mute, as he supposes, and turns him over to the stepmother to try her art in making him speak. She falls in love with the youth, and, on his repelling her advances, accuses him to his father of an attempt upon her virtue. The king condemns his son to death, but, as the latter is led out to execution, one of the masters (or one of the king's ministers) begs for a delay, and narrates a story to prove the craft of woman and the inexpedience of killing the prince upon the queen's testimony alone. The queen in turn tells a story to show the danger of allowing the youth to live. Such is a brief outline of a story book of which Görres ('Die teutschen Volksbücher,' p. 154) says: "It sprang originally from the Indian mountains, whence from primeval days it took its course as a little brook, and flowed ever more westerly through Asia's wide fields. And, while it made its way for thousands of years through space and time, swelling wider and wider in reaching us, out of it whole generations and many nations have drunk; and, having passed to Europe with the great migrations, it has now also in our day and generation obtained such a wide circle of readers, that, in regard to its celebrity and the magnitude of its sphere of influence, it reaches the Scriptures, and surpasses all classical works."

The work in its simplest form is known as the 'History of the Seven Sages,' or 'Book of the Seven Wise Masters,' and contains, besides introduction and conclusion, fourteen stories, one by each of the masters and seven by the queen. In some versions the queen relates but six, and the prince the concluding one; in others the masters relate more than one story each. Of Indian origin, the book was brought to Persia and translated into Pahlavi; from Pahlavi into Arabic about the middle of the eighth century; from Arabic it was translated into Syriac, Old Spanish, and Hebrew; and from Syriac into Greek. There are also Persian versions, the genealogy of which is not so clear. In the course of time, as was the case with the 'Arabian Nights,' the frame was preserved with more or less care, while the stories varied in the different versions; so that some fifty-four stories are now to be found in place of the original fourteen.

In all of the Oriental versions (and the European ones based upon them), with three exceptions, the number of masters or vezirs is seven. These three exceptions are: the Turkish romance of the 'Forty Vezirs,' the Persian 'Bakhtyâr Nâma' or 'Ten Vezirs,' and the Hindu 'Alakeswara Katha,' in which there are four ministers. The last-named version has not been translated. The second, it may be interesting to American readers to know, was translated into English by "A Citizen of Philadelphia" in 1813 (a MS. note on the title-page of the copy in the possession of the reviewer states that the translator was Dr. Charles Caldwell). The third has been partly translated into French and entirely into German, and, from the incomplete French version, into English under the title of 'Turkish Tales' (1708, not 1809 as Mr. Gibb states). This latter version is now happily replaced by Mr. Gibb's scholarly work, which not only presents the original in its entirety, but also gives a number of additional stories from MS. sources, thus furnishing an indispensable companion-volume to Dr. W. F. A. Bernhauer's excellent German version, 'Die vierzig Veziere' (Leipzig, 1851).

The Turkish version, as the title indicates, differs from the other Oriental ones in the number of the king's ministers who relate stories to postpone the prince's execution, each relating one, and the queen forty, making eighty in all, besides the introduction and conclusion. A more important difference is found in the stories themselves, which, with few exceptions, are entirely new; two only, Nos. 3 and 59, being found in other Oriental versions of the 'Seven Wise Masters,' and two, Nos. 11 and 29, in the Occidental ones. Many of the remaining stories are familiar, being found in the great collections of Oriental tales; many, too, are taken from the Jewish and Mohammedan mythologies. Some, however, are peculiar to this collection, and are not found, to the reviewer's knowledge, in any other. One, with a moral, is about a king's son who could not learn his lessons because his mind was ever on a shop in a bazaar where hung many lamps, and the lad thought only of how many he could break at one blow with his stick. The king at last gave him a stick and sent him to the shop to break as many lamps as he could, offering to pay for all the damage done. The prince dealt his blow, satisfied his longing, and returned to his lessons. In our modern world the lamps, we take it, which must be broken, are foot-ball, etc., and the king's conduct may be commended to college presidents. Even the familiar stories contained in the book have something novel about them, as in the version of "The Matron of Ephesus" (the sixth Vezir's story), etc. We have not the space to mention even briefly the new and interesting stories of this version, many of which will be very acceptable to the student of comparative literature. Several tales Mr. Gibb has left untranslated; some others are too free to warrant placing the book in the hands of young people. Of the work of the translator it is possible to speak in terms of the highest praise. His English is racy and idiomatic, and yet adapts itself well to the Oriental fancy of the original. He has performed his task in the most scholarly manner, and earned the gratitude

not only of the general reader, but also of the student to whom the original would be a sealed book, and who has here in a perfectly trustworthy translation a most valuable addition to his stock of Oriental tales. It is to be hoped that Mr. Gibb will continue his labors in this field, and give us a translation of other Turkish stories, notably the jest-book of the famous Nasr-eddin.

The English and Scottish Popular Ballads. Edited by Francis James Child. Part IV. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

ONE-HALF of this great work has now been completed with the conclusion of this part. In it are included thirty-one ballads with their introductions and variations, and about twenty pages of additions and corrections. In purely literary quality the pieces in this part, we are disposed to say, are on the whole inferior to those contained in any one of the three preceding. But if the literary interest is inferior by comparison, there has been no falling-off in the character and extent of the editorial work. The same exhaustive study has been placed upon a ballad of slightest importance as would have been given to one the literary value of which has recommended it to the favor of successive generations. Some idea of the extraordinary thoroughness with which the work has been done, as well as of the labor required to do it, may be gathered from one or two illustrations. Of the ballad of "Lamkin" there are twenty-two distinct versions given; of that of "Johnie Scot" there are sixteen. This, moreover, does not include certain verbal variations which are duly recorded.

Such facts as these, however, represent the labor rather than the learning and ability displayed in the carrying out of this great undertaking. The latter is something that can only be appreciated fully by the specialist. Still, the value of this collection is made distinctly higher to every student by the unhesitating manner in which Prof. Child pays his respects to the alterations and additions with which the words of the simple old ballads have been disguised or overlaid. For in investigations of this kind it is not merely the possession of greater knowledge that comes into play—in that respect the present editor has admittedly no equal. Far more important for that particular purpose are the correctness of judgment and the keenness of insight which enable him at once to detect the difference between the spurious and the genuine. Against literary emendations of traditional ballads the editor has all the hostility of the scholar, and all the aversion of the man of taste to the "sentiments of transcendent elegance," as he somewhere expresses it, with which the originals are apt to be decorated. For the sake of completeness he gives, for instance, in an appendix a version of "Young Waters," as contained in the collection of Buchan, an editor who, he tells us, can generally be relied upon to produce a longer ballad than any one else; but he characteristically adds that it is printed for much the same reason that thieves are photographed.

It is curious to see in these old ballads the recurrence in past ages of the feelings that are prevalent to-day. Of the many illustrations that might be given, one is perhaps worthy of special mention now. Those who spend any time in the examination of the stories that find a wide and almost exclusive circulation among the working classes, can hardly have failed to be struck by the frequency with which the interest of the plot turns upon the inequality of position that prevails between the lovers in the tale. In them the hero and heroine fall in love and marry, not in their own station, but above it or below it. A similar way of looking at life appears in these old ballads, and bears witness to the uniformity with which, in all periods and under all forms of expression, the sentiments of men repeat themselves. For higher literary effect it is noticeable that only one of these two conditions is tolerated. "No offence seems to be given," writes Prof. Child, "when King Cophetua weds the Beggar-Maid, but when the Lady of the Strachey marries the Yeoman of the Wardrobe good taste is shocked." It may be that something more than taste has been affected, that a deeper note has been touched which records unconsciously the accumulated wisdom of the race. It may be that this literary aversion to one of these two conditions is, after all, due to the fact that the experience of mankind has shown that, while the superior husband often elevates the inferior wife, the inferior husband is almost sure to drag down to his level the superior wife.

As time advances, the merits of this great collection are coming more and more to be known and recognized. Unless new sources of traditional ballad literature are brought to light—which is not a thing to be expected and hardly to be imagined—the present work will remain for all time the final one upon the subject. It is hardly necessary to say to those familiar with the preceding parts that this, like them, is printed in accordance with its value, and that its appearance does the fullest credit to a publishing-house which has long been honorably distinguished for the excellence of the typographical execution displayed in its publications.

A History of the Papacy during the Period of the Reformation. By M. Creighton, M. A. Vols. III and IV. London: Longmans; Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1887.

DR. CREIGHTON'S third and fourth volumes carry the work down to the point at which histories of the Reformation used to begin, to the year 1517. We are indebted to him for bringing clearly home to English readers the consciousness that what we call the Reformation is not the work of Martin Luther and his followers, but the resultant of a great complex of forces, social, political, intellectual, commercial, and religious. It is the gathering of these forces which forms the background of the four volumes before us. We say "the background," because Dr. Creighton never forgets that he is writing the history of a single institution which must necessarily occupy the foreground of his picture. In a way, this has been a misfortune for the author. Perhaps it would not have been possible for him to select any one point of view from which the whole field of human progress during the Reformation time could be so well surveyed as the point of view of Rome. At the same time, it is clear that the papacy was either in opposition to the most fruitful tendencies of the day or else was swept along by them. Its fatal defect was that it neither originated nor directed them. In telling the story of the papacy, therefore, one is forced constantly to leave the really great currents of human development and turn aside into what is, after all, a by-path.

In the first two volumes Dr. Creighton dealt with the great conciliar movement of the fifteenth century, which at one time seemed likely to drive the papacy out of existence. As compared with that great movement—the expression of the right of Christian Europe to settle its own church problems in its own way—the attitude of the papacy seems petty and trivial to the point of contempt; and its victory at Constance and Basel was not the triumph of real power, but the supremacy of mere inertia over a factious and disunited opposition. In the second two volumes the papacy is again shown in its relation to a great European movement, the triumphant humanism of the third generation. This time it does not oppose, but lets itself be quietly drawn into the movement of the intellect on its secular side, without a thought of what must be the consequence to its own highest interests. Once more it is not the papacy, but a process inevitably hostile to it, which claims our chief attention. It is not Rome, but Florence, which is the real centre of the Italian intellect. The splendid displays of Nicholas V. and his successors were only a varnish of modern ideas on a culture essentially mediæval still. Again the story of the papacy is one of vulgar intrigue for landed possession, for the building up of a papal state, for the settlement in life of sacerdotal bastards.

Dr. Creighton has gone into the sources of all this unedifying story with great diligence and tells it with great fairness. He follows the personal fortunes of each Pope with entire accuracy, and yet one can almost feel the sense of relief with which he turns to such an episode as that of Savonarola, or the work of Michel Angelo, or the expedition of Charles VIII., as a part of the greater life of the day in which the papacy as such could not share. With the method of the author we have before now expressed our satisfaction. It is the method of a man working with the best tools of modern scholarship, and with a steady purpose to keep in view the true historical meaning of events. It is not his mission to abuse the institution he is describing, but to show it as it was. The indictment against the papacy becomes all the more convincing from this very absence of passion in the historian. One feels that the author has not, like his chief modern opponent, Janssen, a thesis to prove, but that one is to be left to draw one's own conclusions from a calm statement of well-proved facts.

The appendices at the close of each volume give valuable information as to sources, and discuss several important controversies with scholarly thoroughness. The world of scholars will look forward with great interest to the appearance of future volumes, which shall deal with the Reformation in its stricter sense.

Römische Ikonographie. II. Die Bildnisse der römischen Kaiser: Erster theil, Das Julisch-Claudische Kaiserhaus. Von J. J. Bernoulli. 8vo, pp. xiv and 438; with thirty-five plates and fifty-nine illustrations in text. Berlin and Stuttgart. 1886.

BERNOULLI'S 'Ikonographie,' the second volume of which has recently appeared, treats of an important subject in such a thorough and masterly manner that it deserves to be widely known among our classical teachers and others interested in Roman portraiture. The care with which it is compiled, and the completeness of its illustrations, give the book a place among the classics of archæology; and while there may be differences of opinion as to individual questions with which it deals, there can be little doubt that it will remain for many years the standard authority on its subject. Bernoulli's 'Aphrodite' (Leipzig, 1873) showed that he possessed the patience which characterizes the work of the best German scholars; and as the same quality distinguishes the present book in a preëminent degree, it is hardly probable that anybody will attempt to improve upon it until the material bearing upon the subject is very largely increased. The sumptuous publication of E. Q. Visconti, completed by Mongez ('Iconographie Grecque,' 3 vols. folio, Paris, 1811, and 'Iconographie Romaine,' 4 vols. folio, 1817-26) was, as Bernoulli says, epoch-making; but the rapid accumulation of iconographic monuments during the last sixty years, the increase in the facilities for studying and comparing them, and, more than all, the development in the methods of archæological investigation during this period, have amply justified Dr. Ber-

noulli in undertaking this heroic task Of his success thus far we can only say that the second volume quite fulfils the expectations raised by the first ('Bildnisse berühmter Römer,' Stuttgart, 1882). In the care and thoroughness with which he has searched every nook and corner for material, he satisfies Carlyle's definition of genius.

The second volume treats of the five emperors of the Julian-Claudian house, and those members of their families of whom portraits survive. Julius Cæsar having been included among the "famous Romans" of the first volume, the present one begins with Augustus, and we can most easily give our readers an idea of the plan of the work by describing this chapter. It opens with a list of thirty-four of the principal events in the life of Augustus, with their dates, as a help in fixing the dates of the portraits examined later. Then follows a summary of the descriptions of his person and character, from the accounts of Suetonius, Tacitus, and other writers of the time; and with these are compared the heads which inscriptions establish beyond doubt as portraits. Of these the most important are the coin-types, because they are contemporaneous, and, though often of little artistic merit, they give at least the general character and shape of the head and features, thus serving as a basis in testing the authenticity of larger uninscribed monuments. Next comes an enumeration of the portraits mentioned in ancient authors and inscriptions, which is of great value to the historical student. Of these Bernoulli has collected thirty-one allusions to specific works, besides such general statements as that of the seventy silver statues of himself which Augustus melted down for the benefit of his temple of the Palatine Apollo. The most important section is that which follows—a list of the extant portraits of Augustus. Only those who have attempted to construct a list of this kind can form any conception of the amount of energetic labor and patience required to make it satisfactorily complete. It comprises ninety-seven statues and busts, thirty-eight gems, six reliefs, one wall-painting, and one bronze seal—a collection of one hundred and forty-three monuments in all. This, of course, includes not only those the authenticity of which has been doubted, but others which Bernoulli believes to be Augustus, though they are generally known under other names. Finally, these portraits are compared and classified—in the case of Augustus, according to the age at which he is represented—and their merits and claims are critically discussed. Bernoulli agrees, by the way, with those who have preceded him in considering the famous statue from Prima Porta, now in the Braccio Nuovo of the Vatican, as the finest of all the extant portraits of Augustus.

As would be expected, the material relating to the other Cæsars is less abundant, yet the author has collected fifty-eight statues and busts of Tiberius, twenty-three of Caligula, thirty-six of Claudius, and forty two of Nero; and numerous gems and other representations of each of them. Of the other members of the house Livia, Drusus, Antonia, Germanicus, and the Agrippinas are treated at length, and in all cases it is evident that the investigations have been limited only by the amount of material it was possible to collect.

But the merit of the book does not end with the collection and assortment of materials. The same care that characterizes this feature of it is equally manifest in the critical examination of the real and supposed portraits. It is too often a fault with German works of this class that their merits cease with their compilations of facts, and the student is either left to draw his own deductions from these, or is given a summary in which the bending of facts to fit preconceived opinions is unhappily apparent. Bernoulli's book is open to neither of these objections. Every monument receives its due amount of attention, and, where the author differs from commonly accepted theories, his arguments are stated in a simple and forcible manner, which, if it does not always convince, carries great weight. This is especially notable in his discussion (p. 381) of the so-called Agrippina, the sitting statue in Naples, which he unhesitatingly repudiates as a portrait of that empress. As is well known, this statue received its appellation from Visconti and Mongez, who identified it by comparison with certain of her coins. Bernoulli asserts that in this instance the testimony of coins amounts to nothing, because of the discrepancy in their representations of her, which he illustrates on plate xxxv, Nos. 1–6. He also maintains that there is no distinctive resemblance to the statue of Agrippina in the Lateran, identified by an inscription, and also that the statue is that of a woman much older than Agrippina, who was not more than forty-four years of age when she died. He therefore relegates it to the position now occupied by many a formerly "imperial" portrait, and labels it "Sitzende Matronenstatue" (pl. xxii). It is also interesting to note that he does not follow R. S. Poole in considering the beautiful "Klytie" bust in the British Museum as a portrait of Antonia, the daughter of Marcus Antonius, but thinks it more likely to have been some famous beauty of the imperial epoch—not, however, of the imperial family.

The illustrations form an important feature of the book. The thirty-five plates are in heliotype, which is well adapted for rendering the texture of the originals, and has the advantage of a mechanical process in that it transcribes facts much more exactly than a draughtsman can—a matter of the utmost importance in the identification of portrait-busts, as those who have had to depend upon Visconti's book are well aware. To the plates, however, the text illustrations are decidedly inferior. These are from drawings, mostly of a very sketchy character, and lack the absolute accuracy alluded to above, which is a chief essential where the object of the illustrations is to bring out minor points of difference in a number of portraits of the same individual.

Sne [Snow]. By Alexander Kjelland. Copenhagen. 1886.

In the literary arena Norway takes the prize in the race between Denmark, Sweden, and Norway. For the Christmas trade Ibsen wrote a play, "Rosmerholm," Lie a story, 'The Commander's Daughters,' and Garborg a story. After a silence of two years, Kjelland, the youngest of the four great prophets in the present literature of Norway, appears in two works, the story, 'Snow,' and a drama, "Three Couples" (*Tre Par*). This was all the more surprising as it had been rumored that he had lost both inclination and ability for further production, and that his literary career was ended. No evidence of either appears in 'Snow.' We there find the same Kjelland as of old. He may have grown in breadth of view and in strength of style, but there is the same tendency, the same love of satire, and 'Snow' is simply a new chapter in the human comedy which he has undertaken to write. If it be true that Kjelland's earlier works have given offence in various quarters, 'Snow' will certainly not tend to reconcile the enemies he has made. Those who have failed to be amused by his clever satirical descriptions of aristocratic merchants and bureaucrats, and have found them one-sided and distorted, will be slow to admit that his delineation of a priest, the chief figure in 'Snow,' is true and justifiable. Besides, priests are usually privileged characters in society, and we seldom find them held up to ridicule in elegant literature. That an author now and then, perhaps himself a priest or preparing for the priesthood, has cracked a little joke at the expense of the priestly dignity, is not to be taken into account, since all readers understand it to be a joke. Kjelland does not write in jest. His Daniel Jürges is an eminent, highly respected priest, fit to be made bishop when a vacancy occurs, an excellent type of his class; and when Kjelland discusses him we realize that he has the whole clergy and not merely Daniel Jürges in view. And we know that Kjelland is not in love with the priests. He regards them as a link in the chain of office-holders who run the Government machine without being in sympathy with the people, and he makes ideal claims on Jürges that seem to us to transcend the limits of human nature. He marshals a mountain of sins of commission and omission, and is a most unmerciful judge. He lashes the priest directly in what he makes others say to him, and indirectly in what he lets him say and do himself. Throughout it is evident that Jürges has to bare his back for his brethren in office.

Jürges is drawn with life and power. As a young graduate, he was lionized in the society of the capital, and in due course of time he leads to the altar the belle of the city, and takes her with him to one of the small fishing towns in the northern part of Norway. He hopes to be of some help to the plain people there, but, after a few years, he abandons the place without having made any impression whatever. His next parish is larger, and consists mainly of well-to-do peasants, but he has no better luck there. He does not understand the art of associating with peasants, and they look upon him as a sort of hostile authority against whom it is necessary to be on one's guard. Then Jürges retires from the obscure life of a priest, and comes out more conspicuously to battle with the disbelief and sin of the age. He takes charge of the religious department of the leading paper in the capital. In this position he finds abundant employment for his knowledge and talents, and he soon becomes known throughout the kingdom. He has a son who is a petty edition of himself. The son becomes engaged to a beautiful and rich girl of the capital; but whereas his mother, transplanted to the northern fishing town, soon lost all independence before the authoritative, domineering egoism of her husband, Gabriele is a step higher in the scale of evolution, and has the courage to demand of her lover that he shall not enter the priesthood. Johannes, who looks up to his father as his ideal, feels sure that Gabriele will change her mind when she is introduced to him in his home. Johannes and Gabriele accordingly go to his father's house. Then comes the struggle between the two, Daniel Jürges and Gabriele, the representatives of two forces in the community—the old orthodoxy, on the one hand, and modern liberal thought, on the other. The Church conquers and draws the doubting youth represented by Johannes to itself, while Gabriele, who resolutely breaks her engagement and leaves the house, regains her freedom and independence, and thus escapes the slavery of Daniel's wife. This is the thread of the story, which is told with all the vivacity, skill, satire, and earnestness of which Kjelland is capable, and that is saying a great deal.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allinson—Penrose. Philadelphia. 1681-1887. A History of Municipal Development. Philadelphia: Allen, Lane & Scott.

Anderson, Dr. J. History of the Soldiers' Monument in Waterbury, Conn. Printed for the Monument Committee.

Annual American Catalogue. 1886. Being the full titles, with descriptive notes, of all books recorded in the *Publishers' Weekly*, 1886, with author, title, and subject index. *Publishers' Weekly.*

Armytage, Dr. T. A History of the Baptists. Bryan, Taylor & Co.

Arnold, H. P. Memoir of Jonathan Mason Warren, M. D. Printed for Private Distribution. Boston: 1886.
Bartholomew, J. Gazetteer of the British Isles, Statistical and Topographical. Scribner & Welford.
Beardsley, Dr. E. E. Life and Correspondence of Samuel Johnson, D.D., Missionary of the Church of England in Connecticut, and First President of King's College. Third ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.50.
Bercy, F. Livre des Enfants. W. R. Jenkins.
Butterworth, H. Ballads and Stories for Readings with Musical Accompaniments. Cincinnati: John Church Co.
Campbell, Helen. Prisoners of Poverty: Woman Wage Workers, their Trades and their Lives. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $1.
Cowdin, J. R. Elsie's Wedding, and Other Poems. 2d ed. Illustrated. Brooklyn: D. S. Holmes. $1.
Cox, Dr. S. The Bird's Nest, and Other Sermons for Children of all Ages. Thomas Whittaker. $1.50.
Disterdieck, Dr. F. Handbook to the Revelation of John. Funk & Wagnalls.
Field, M. Brutus Ultor. Henry Holt & Co. 40 cents.
Fifty Standard Songs for Bass Voice. With Piano Accompaniment. Cincinnati: John Church Co.
Gunter, A. C. Mr. Barnes of New York: A Novel. Desbler, Welch & Co. 50 cents.
Hackner, Rev. W. Socialism and the Church; or, Henry George vs. Archbishop Corrigan. Catholic Publication Society Co.
Heron-Allen, E. Practical Chirosophy: A Synoptical Study of the Science of the Hand. Plates and Diagrams. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Ladd, Prof. G. T. Elements of Physiological Psychology. Charles Scribner's Sons. $4.50.
Littell's Living Age. Vol. 172. January-March, 1887. Boston: Littell & Co.
L'Œuvre de Victor Hugo: Extraits. Édition des Écoles. Paris: Hetzel-Quantin; New York: Christern
Loomis, L. O. The Index Guide to Travel and Art Study in Europe. Illustrated. Charles Scribner's Sons. $3.50.
Lyall, Edna. Knight-Errant: A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.

Fine Arts.

THE ACADEMY EXHIBITION—I.

THE sixty-second annual exhibition of the Academy of Design is on all sides conceded to be nearly the best ever held in the history of the organization. It is not difficult to find the reason why, which is the exclusion of the numerous feeble works that have been so noticeable a component part of previous exhibitions. It cannot be set down as an exhibition distinguished by any considerable number of important works; on the contrary, there is a striking absence of such works. What pictures there are in the exhibition are well hung, and that fact goes a long way toward securing a favorable judgment for it. It gives a good all-around aspect, and makes the good canvases look their best and the mediocre ones unobtrusive. The members of the Hanging Committee, too, this year have not been unmindful of the valuable effect that may be obtained by suitable accessories, and have covered the upper part of the unsightly wooden walls with plush hangings, and in various ways have taken advantage of the aid of quiet decoration to set off the pictures.

The south gallery, the largest in the Academy building, and the one in which, from force of custom, we expect to find the most important pictures, is in this exhibition without a picture in what, from force of custom also, is considered the place of honor. There is no single picture in the centre of the south wall. Three or four small pictures are on the line at this point, and Mr. Freer's excellent "Portrait of a Lady" is placed in the middle over these. But this is not exactly the place of honor. Whatever may have been the reason why the Committee did not distinguish a single picture by giving it the coveted place in the centre of the line in the south gallery, it is a pity that there was not some one member of it able to carry the votes of the others with him and put Mr. Winslow Homer's "Undertow," No. 393, in that place. The picture deserves the honor. Though not remarkable for powerful drawing nor for any especially beautiful quality of color, this picture has a force about it, an air of truth, a fine sculpturesque quality of modelling, that puts it far beyond the ordinary well-done sort of work that we are bound to praise for its honesty, but which does not excite our enthusiasm. In this picture there is a breath of great art. Small though the canvas be, unconventional though real as the composition is, with its four figures in a row, and eccentric as is some of the drawing, this picture is tremendously effective. Were Mr. Homer a younger man and thoroughly trained in his art, as every painter must be as a matter of course to get to the highest rank, a wonderful future might be predicted for him. As it stands, sincere, honest searcher after truth as Mr. Homer is; poet, painter, and sturdy realist, at the same time, like Millet; distanced as he might be by a man of the same temperament but better equipped; faulty as his work is in some respects, we cannot but accord to Mr. Homer a very high homage. His "Undertow," by its virility, its truth, its sincerity of intention, outranks every picture in the Academy exhibition.

In the south gallery also is hung Mr. T. W. Dewing's "Days," No. 313. The picture is illustrative of Emerson's noble verses. That it is illustrative is the first point to be noted about it. That it is preëminently decorative rather than pictorial, as the word is generally understood, is the other important point. Here are four or five figures of women in clinging draperies, a man in the background to the left of the picture, a suggestion of something like a landscape, particularly prominent being a sort of wall-like arbor of leaves and flowers. The picture is by no means realistically treated. There is no attempt at out-door effect as it is understood by the followers of the modern school. The values are left to take care of themselves, local color is entirely subordinated to the effect of the ensemble, a color scheme is taken up and carried through without regard to truth and nature. There are no facts—there is only fancy. It is fancy, however, of the better sort. One has a wholesome contempt for those poets in paint who, having no control or mastery over the rudiments of art, yet strive to express a poetical idea, as it might be understood by a literary man, on canvas. There are many examples of such poets in paint in contemporary art, especially in England. Mr. Dewing has little in common with these. First and beyond everything his figures are drawn. They are tenderly painted. One feels an earnestness of intention in their execution, an honest desire to make them beautiful and truthful at the same time. It is the work of a man who knows his art. It is beautiful, indeed, in its sweet refinement, in its graceful delineation of type, in its harmonious whole. To judge it in two words, it is not a picture: it is an admirable decorative panel.

Looking at the Academy exhibition as a display of native art, and trying to draw conclusions as to its status therefrom, it is a difficult matter to place this work of Mr. Dewing. Had the painter remained in Paris, where he studied, and grounded himself thoroughly in the principles of painting (for Mr. Dewing was noted in the schools as a skilful draughtsman and able painter), it is more than probable that he would have given his best efforts to a realistic subject. In New York, as in London, there is a strong undercurrent of the literary idea in art. We have not yet, even as artists, got to the point of caring for a fine *morceau* rather than a fine idea. In hard words, after all, the best criticism of a picture of Christ on the Cross may be expressed in this wise, for instance: "The chest is luminous and well in relief, the arms are well drawn, the movement is good and the legs belong to the body; the head is well constructed." Apply this sort of criticism to the great pictures of the world and they will always bear it. There are brutal pictures of the Crucifixion and there are refined ones; but they must be good from the point of view of the soulless technician, or they will not live. It is not unjust to say that the predominance of the so-called "poetical idea" in art, which really means the literary idea, if carried very far, will kill good art. Realism in its best sense, as Rembrandt or Velasquez understood it and expressed it, must be adhered to and always kept in view. There can be no other foundation to build on, and those who search for something else will go astray. To return to our subject, though Mr. Dewing's canvas is not distinguished by such qualities as those we have named, it can be very highly esteemed as a piece of decoration, and as such it must be accorded a due meed of praise. Judged from the decorative point of view, it is excellent. "Days" is easily among the best things in the exhibition.

In judging of the excellence of an exhibition of pictures as well as the standing of the school of painters whom it represents, no better test can be found than portraits. Under such conditions as are forced upon American artists it is almost in portraits alone that an opportunity can be found to estimate their abilities as painters of the figure. Doctors always disagree, it is said, except they be the very best doctors, when they sink their small differences and find themselves in accord on essential points. The painters of portraits in the Academy, those worthy of mention at least, seem to come very near to agreeing as to how to paint a portrait, and to cite some of these amounts to a verdict of approval. Mr. F. P. Vinton's "Portrait of Theodore Chase," No. 227; Mr. J. Carroll Beckwith's "Portrait of a Gentleman," No. 403; Mr. W. M. J. Rice's portrait, No. 290, a full-length figure of a lady; Mr. Eastman Johnson's "Portrait of a Lady," No. 363; Mr. J. Alden Weir's portrait, No. 147, a child in a white dress in an interior; M. de Munkacsy's "Portrait of Doctor McCosh," No. 333, and "Portrait of Mr. Henry G. Marquand," No. 347; and Mr. F. W. Freer's "Portrait," No. 339, already mentioned, are all painted with a due regard for values, proper drawing, and an intention to depict the sitter on canvas in as lifelike and at the same time artistic way as possible. These are all good portraits. To discriminate, it may be said that of all of them Mr. Vinton's and Mr. Beckwith's portraits are the most lifelike and the best as regards drawing and construction; that Mr. Rice's is the most showy, but perhaps the least sincere; that Mr. Freer's is the best in color; that M. de Munkacsy's are the most perfunctory and at the same time the cleverest; and that Mr. Weir's, being a successful attempt to make a portrait and a picture at the same time, is the most charming. It has been many a long day since such a good lot has been seen on the Academy's walls. In Mr. Wyatt Eaton's "Man's Portrait," No. 429, there is less realism and a striking lack of harmony between the light on the head and hands and that on the clothes, but a fine sort of impression of character; in Miss Maria Brooks's "Portrait of Mr. E. L. K.," No. 386, there is a notable solidity of painting combined with a certain looseness of construction; in Miss Rosina Emmett's "Portrait," No. 437, a half-length seated figure of a lady, a considerable quality of color, but rather weak drawing; and in M. Paul Rajon's pastel, "Portrait of Mrs. K.," No. 5, a great deal of cleverness in the handling of the medium, and a pretty, though not very truthful, color scheme. Altogether the portraits are of the most interesting things in the exhibition. It is gratifying to see so goodly a display of them, to find so many that are good, and to see that the Hanging Committee has given them good places. It is certain that a portrait as a piece of painting is as interesting as any other sort of picture. True, these are not for sale, but are we not getting beyond the state in which an art exhibition is considered a market? No doubt we are, and the Academy jury this year is to be congratulated on having made a famous advance in the right direction.

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 339

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS 332

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:
The Importance of the Finish 334
The Drink Bill, Formerly and Now 334
Getting their Eyes Open 335
After the Ironsides on a Tricycle.—II 336

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:
Notes on the Windward Islands 337
The Coercion Bill 338
The Conquest of Upper Burmah 339
Dumas on Victor Hugo 340

CORRESPONDENCE:
The Cincinnati Election 341
Archæology in the Mediterranean 341
Composition of the New Reichstag 342
Psychic Plagiarism 342
Transformation of Surnames 342

NOTES 343

REVIEWS:
Robert E. Lee.—II 346
Old English Letter Foundries 347
The Dawn of British Trade to the East Indies 348
Sir Philip Sidney 349
Biographical Annals of the Civil Government of the United States 349
Les Origines de l'Ancienne France 349
The Story of Persia 350
Agriculture in Some of its Relations with Chemistry 350
Microscopy for Beginners 350

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 350

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 21, 1887.

The Week.

MR. EDWARD ATKINSON, in an interview published by the Boston *Herald*, says that the Inter-State Commerce Act, if it can be enforced, will have the effect to increase the average charge for railway transportation in the country—an effect precisely opposite to that which was intended. One of the examples cited by him is the increased charge on the wool of California, which must pay a much higher rate for carriage to the Eastern manufacturers than before. It is doubtful, indeed, if it can be carried at all by railway. If it cannot be so carried, it must come by water, and the vessel-owners will be able to charge any rate up to that which the Commerce Act compels the railway to charge. Probably the act will have the effect to increase the importation of foreign wool, for, as Mr. Atkinson observes, the low rates on the "long haul" have been brought about not by competition among the railways nor by competition of the railways with water routes, but "by the paramount competition of product with product in the principal markets." It is this and not any choice of their own which has given such low rates to the long haul on the wool and fruits of California, on the wheat of Dakota, the corn of Kansas, and the cotton of Texas. The very phrase "charging what the traffic will bear," Mr. Atkinson shows, grew out of the necessity of *lowering* the rates to meet this superior, this domineering competition of product with product in the markets, and not out of any supposed desire to raise the rate to the highest figure the merchant or manufacturer could pay.

When the Inter-State Commerce Bill was pending we pointed out the fact that the long and short-haul clauses would operate as an inter-State protective tariff. The Ohio wool-growers have not been slow to perceive its value in this sense. They are said to be preparing a protest against granting the petition of the California wool-growers, who have asked that the clause in question be suspended as to their product, representing that its enforcement would be absolutely ruinous to their industry. The Ohio wool-growers are alive to this fact also, and they are accordingly strenuous in insisting that the law be strictly enforced. The producers of raisins in California have discovered that the Commerce Act serves to nullify the tariff on foreign raisins by increasing the freight charge to Eastern markets to a point equal to the customs duty. The sugar-refiners on the Pacific coast, who have been enabled, by getting their raw sugar from the Hawaiian Islands free of duty, to send their product as far east as St. Louis, have likewise struck the snag of the Commerce Act, and have put in a petition that the long and short-haul clause be suspended as regards sugar, to which the Eastern refiners who pay duties equal to 100 per cent. ad valorem on raw sugar, have very properly objected. The salmon canneries of the Columbia River will be heard from soon, and it will be in order then for the fishermen on the Atlantic coast to stand up for a strict construction of the law.

The applications of the railway employees and of the travelling salesmen to the Commerce Commission, for a construction of the new law on the subject of free passes and free extra baggage, serve to show what an enormous deal of work the Commission are likely to have before them. The Supreme Court of the United States, with its four years' arrearages of undecided and unheard cases, will be a marvel of promptness and activity by comparison with the Commission. The two petitions present eight separate questions, and some of these are divisible into two or three parts. The Commission were enabled to answer all of them in a summary manner by saying that no authority had been given them to decide suppositious cases, but only those which come up in the practical working of the law. Thus the answers to the eight questions, with their variations, are merely deferred. They will all come up again, and must then be answered after more or less argument pro and con. Attention is drawn by the petition of the railway employees to the magnitude of the deadhead tax on the railways. It appears that passes are customarily granted to the employees of the railway and their "immediate families," also more or less to the employees of other railways, also to officers and employees of railways out of employment and seeking situations, also to associations of railway officers and employees travelling to and from their meetings and conventions, also to the immediate families of delegates to such conventions. In fact, it would seem that all railway officers and most railway employees have their "hats chalked" all over the United States. The Commerce Act is very stringent on the subject of discriminations in the transportation of passengers, and it makes no exception in favor of railway employees. The railway companies themselves appear to be nothing loath to observe this clause.

It would not be surprising if the next Congress should witness a struggle between the commercial classes of the country and the railways, the former seeking to repeal or essentially change the Commerce Act, and the latter to keep it in force. The great virtue of the act to the railways is that it prevents the secret cutting of rates. Such cutting has been the cause of the breaking of all the agreements to maintain rates in the past. It has undermined all the pools. It has driven pool commissioners frantic, and has led railway managers to doubt the very existence of virtue. Competition has been, and is always when freight is scarce, so savage that no dependence could be placed upon the word of anybody who had the authority to issue a way-bill or to make a freight contract. The pools, having no legal character and no standing in court, could not enforce their agreements against their own members. Consequently, they went to pieces almost as fast as they were formed, until Mr. Fink in desperation asked for a law of Congress to legalize and regulate such contracts, and was willing to make concessions in return for it at which railway managers would have stood aghast twenty years ago. The Commerce Act goes far towards supplying what Commissioner Fink wanted. It does not legalize pools. Indeed, it abolishes them. But it gives what no pool ever had before, viz., publicity, together with the power of the Sheriff and the Grand Jury to ascertain the truth and to punish the guilty.

The controversy between the principal Eastern and Western railroads on the question of paying commissions on the sale of passenger tickets undoubtedly has its mainspring in private and personal interests. It is said that at least $2,000,000 per year is involved in the dispute. This sum is now diverted from the treasuries of the railroads or the pockets of the travelling public to those of the commission men. If the commissions were not paid, the railroads would get the full fare, or they could afford to reduce passenger rates, and probably would do so whenever they should believe that the commission system was dead beyond hope of resurrection. Now, the question is, why do the Western roads fight so stubbornly to maintain the commission system? The Inter-State Commerce Law is flatly against it. If commissions can be paid for passengers, they can be paid for freight also, and to any extent, and the agent or broker can divide his commissions with the shippers in any way he chooses. In other words, the law may be completely nullified by making rebates at the point of shipment and calling them commissions. We cannot conceive of any motive for retaining the commission system in the West in the face of the law and in defiance of the protest of the Eastern roads, unless the commission men themselves are making a "square divide" with somebody.

There was something at once comic and pathetic in the Republican banquet which was served up in Boston on Saturday. Distinguished Republicans from outside the State had been invited, but with remarkable unanimity they all declined to attend. This threw the burden of speechmaking upon Senators Dawes and Hoar, and they improved it to a most wearisome length. We can conceive of no more heartless use of a banquet than to entice several hundred men to it, and then to turn loose upon them two such lugubrious orators as Dawes and Hoar. They both stood up and said at great length the same things that they had been saying with more or less fulness for the past five or ten years. There was not a ray of freshness or a gleam of a new idea in either speech from beginning to end. The quality of Mr. Dawes's speech can be inferred by the following sample from his introductory re-

marks: "The atmosphere we are breathing here to-day is so surcharged with genuine Republicanism that there can be little need of either tonics or stimulants. The spirit of the olden time is upon us again. The cause is again, as of old, paramount, and the individual subordinate. I congratulate the Republican party of Massachusetts, so largely represented here to day, upon the harmony and earnestness everywhere manifest—sure precursors of success."

Mr. Hoar's speech was in the same line, as the following familiar passage will show: "The Democratic party represents and is controlled by the opinions and purposes as they are to-day of the men who, twenty years ago, thought rebellion, secession, and slavery were right; and the Republican party represents and is controlled by the opinions and purposes as they are to-day of the men who, twenty years ago, thought rebellion, secession, and slavery were wrong." After an hour or more of this kind of oratory, other but brief speeches were made, and then Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge, with the late untoward result in Rhode Island in mind, quoted with depressing effect:

> "I hold it truth with him who sings
> To one clear harp in divers tones,
> That men may rise on stepping-stones
> Of their dead selves to higher things."

This confession that the party was dead was received in silence, and Mr. Lodge went on to explain that its death was merely seeming, that it has suffered disaster chiefly because of the "petty personal dislike which is shown towards candidates." Mr. Lodge's stepping-stone of the party's dead self is not high principle, but loyalty to the candidate, no matter what his character. He is going to help the party to rise to "higher things" by reelecting Gov. Ames next fall, and by waging unrelenting war upon all Independents and reformers of whatever name or character.

The *Independent*, we are informed, is to contain an editorial note this week identifying "Arthur Richmond," the blackguard contributor of the *North American Review*, with Gail Hamilton, the great "lady Junius" of the Blaineites. It is intimated by a hint in the *Tribune*, that there are two Arthur Richmonds in the field, and, therefore, the *Independent's* discovery will not conflict with the theory that the other "Arthur Richmond," who attacked Mr. Bayard in the *Review*, was Mr. William Henry Hurlbert. If this be true, we must say frankly to all the blackguard writers in the country that they are not treating Mr. Allen Thorndike Rice, the editor, with due consideration. They should not presume too much on his simplicity or his infirmity. The way they are behaving in dumping their rubbish on him, and getting paid for it, reminds us of a story which the late James T. Fields used to tell of a certain storekeeping New England deacon, one of whose friends related, "That he warn't so fore-handed as he used to be, because his eyesight failed him about a year ago, and as soon as they heerd tell on 't they began to bring him in the counterfeit money from fur an' near, and unloaded nigh $200 of the stuff onto him before he found it out."

Iron and steel are again in peril, as we learn from the Philadelphia *Times*, which in turn learns the fact from the Bulletin of the American Iron and Steel Association. The trouble is not a new one. It broke out some weeks ago, but was thought to have been suppressed by timely action of the producers. It proceeds entirely from an excessive advance in the price of rails, enabling the foreign producer to run his stuff in, despite the existing duty of $17 per ton, not to mention ocean freights and other charges. American producers are exhorted to hold their appetites in check, and not to charge so much for rails that the foreigner can come in here and crush us. The Bulletin of the Iron and Steel Association "wisely admonishes them that the large volume of importations means an early and unfavorable influence on home prices," although how that effect is to be produced it does not explain. Domestic rails were selling a year or two ago at $27.50 per ton. They are now quoted at $41.50, at which price it appears that they can be imported. The advance of $14 per ton lets in foreign rails. Now, an unfavorable influence on home prices cannot be produced by any amount of importation at $41.50 per ton, and the presumption is that at any lower price they could not be imported. A hint is thrown out by the Bulletin that there are undervaluations at the New York Customhouse, but it is evident that this suggestion is not much relied upon, because in the same breath the American producers are admonished to "recall the suicidal folly they perpetrated only a few years ago, when the iron trade revived, by advancing prices until they emptied all the surplus iron of Europe upon our markets and bankrupted themselves. Fraud in custom-houses can be readily detected and remedied, but the temptation to inordinate profits for producers is most difficult to restrain." So it would appear.

Within the last few years a change has taken place in the attitude of our Department of State towards American citizens residing abroad. It has, of course, from the first, extended protection to our citizens temporarily residing in foreign countries. But the inclination of the Department for many years was to seize upon any small circumstance as indicating the abandonment of nationality. Indeed, until the present Administration, the only exception which had ever been made to the presumption of such abandonment by long residence abroad was in the case of missionaries. In the cases of all others the rule laid down by Mr. Webster has always been applied. That rule was: "A person found residing in a foreign country is presumed to be there *animo manendi*, or with the purpose of remaining; and to relieve himself of the character which this presumption fixes upon him, he must show that his residence was only temporary, and accompanied all the while with a fixed and definite intention of returning. If in that country he engages in trade and business, he is considered by the law of nations as a merchant of that country." The growth of our commerce has been so great since Webster's day that it is not at all uncommon for a large central firm, situated in New York, for example, to have in various foreign countries "branch houses" presided over by trusted agents, American-born citizens, who must needs live continuously abroad. It is very much to Mr. Bayard's credit that he has not scrupled to place these in the same class with the missionaries. About a year ago he held that such agents were subject to the laws of the country in which the firm is domiciled, and to that country their domiciliary duties belong. He has had occasion lately to emphasize this, and to add that such agents are not only American citizens, entitled to our protection and subject to our laws, but are exempt from all burdens which are imposed by the laws of the country in which they reside upon its citizens, such as poll taxes, taxes on personalty, militia duty, and the like.

It is becoming evident that the movement for church union finds it dangerous to pass from the region of vague sentiment to that of practical proposals. The resolutions of the Presbytery of New York, in the form of an overture to the General Assembly, treat the Episcopal olive-branch as if it were the traditional chip on the shoulder. Under the guise of hoisting a reciprocal flag of truce, they really throw down the gauntlet for new conflicts, with a curious mixture of benevolence and belligerence, assuring the Episcopal Church that its proposed bases of union will do very well for Episcopalians, but will never answer for Presbyterians. In fact, it would seem that the most probable outcome of the modern talk about the cordial feeling between the denominations and the vanishing away of the old distinctions, as soon as approach is made to any positive action, will be a revival of theological and sectarian controversy. This has certainly been the result in the case of the Presbyterian churches, North and South. As soon as men began to speak above a whisper about the possibility of the two uniting, the old leaders flew to their guns again. The *Independent*, the great champion of organic church union, has undoubted reason for its sorrowful conclusion that little if anything can be done in this generation. But why should anything be done? Is any human being harmed by the want of church union?

The notorious Mrs. Howe, the Boston banker, who swindled so many women nine years ago by offering them 90 per cent. per annum on their deposits, has been able to set up her bank again in the same place, and has met with such success that she has actually "skipped" with $50,000. When she was in business on the former occasion, her operations raised the question whether women were or were not more gullible than men, and a controversy of considerable bitterness broke out between the sexes, in which, if we remember rightly, Gail Hamilton played the part of a giantess and struck heavy blows for woman. We do not believe the discussion had any decided result one way or the other. The illustrations of gullibility which each side was able to produce were very impressive, but, as well as we remember, the balance between them was almost, if not quite, even. Mrs. Howe's ability to open the bank again and do some business on the old principles among her own sex, tells with

some force in favor of the theory that women fall victims to imposture more readily than men. It must be admitted, however, that since the career of the firm of Grant & Ward has been exposed, the men have had but little to say in favor of their superior business perspicacity. The promises made by Ward were as wild as Mrs. Howe ever made to her depositors, and it was not poor spinsters they took in, but men familiar with the operations of business and the ordinary chances of profit.

The condition in which Messrs. George Riddle and Edgar Fawcett have left the once proud city of Boston, is really pitiable. Mr. Fawcett wrote for Mr. Riddle a play which he confidently declared to be his own masterpiece. Mr. Riddle appeared in it. The public declined to attend save in very sparse numbers, and the critics of the newspapers "jumped upon" both play and actor without mercy. Mr. Fawcett, we believe, left town instantly; Mr. Riddle, shortly after the composition of a farewell address to the city, in which he tells its inhabitants in the frankest manner just what he thinks of them. He says he has no grievance, and he asks neither sympathy nor congratulation, regarding the latter as "hollow and insincere." He wishes it to be understood that he is as indifferent to Boston as Boston is to him, and that no matter what other cities may hereafter say of him as an actor, "Boston will never have an opportunity again of sitting in judgment on me, nor of jumping on me with both feet —and the Boston foot is notoriously large." This neat rap at the physical aspect of the abstract Bostonian appears to have made Mr. Riddle very happy, for he concludes: "I am in buoyant spirits, not at all discouraged, and very hopeful of being able to exist without the suffrages of Boston, whose damnation is purely local." Announcement is not yet made of the locality in which Messrs. Fawcett and Riddle will next appear, and every city in the land will be more or less nervous until it is.

President Hyde of Bowdoin College, in Maine, who is the youngest college president in America, and was a good base-ball player when he was a student himself a few years ago, has been talking very sensibly on the general subject of college athletics. "Anybody who has had experience with a lot of vigorous young fellows," he says, "knows that they must have some way to dispose of their superfluous energy," and he believes that, if they do not have sports, they will expend it on doors and windows. The proof of this is found in the fact that the new gymnasium at Bowdoin has effected a great saving in the College's expenses for repairs, the general average of such expenses having never before been so low as it was last term. Part of the credit for this, it should be noted, Dr. Hyde gives to the jury system introduced by him a year and a half ago, under which, in case any damage is done by bonfires or smash-ups, the jurors investigate, ascertain who is responsible, and assess the persons who did the mischief. Each student is obliged to work in the gymnasium half-an-hour a day four days in the week, the gymnasium work being carefully graded according to the strength and ability of the men; and the system is already working a marked improvement in the College physique. Dr. Hyde approves of base-ball and boating as healthful and manly sports, but questions the advantage of intercollegiate base-ball leagues, on account of their tendency to foster gambling and lower the student to the level of the professional player. For this reason the Bowdoin Faculty encourage games between the several classes in preference to participation in the Maine intercollegiate base-ball league, although they do not prohibit the students from entering the league.

The extraordinary speech which Mr. Joseph Chamberlain made on Thursday last in Scotland seems to indicate either that he has completely got rid of all the political sagacity he ever had, or has finally determined to cut loose from the Liberal party altogether, and enroll himself among the Tories for good and all. Ever since Burke's famous protest against the "indictment of a whole people," the foundation-stone of the Liberal creed has been the assumption that all large bodies or communities are on the whole, if not always wise, at least well-meaning, and desire to be peaceable, and orderly, and respectable. This may not always be true—indeed, it is sometimes far from true; but Liberal politicians in every country in the world feel bound at least to profess to believe it as one of the cardinal articles in the democratic creed. When a country is much ravaged by crime or disorder of a political nature, the Liberal theory is expressed in the words of Sully, that men are never turbulent except through "impatience of suffering," or, in other words, that protracted resistance to or defiance of law is the fault of the Government. It is only high Tories, or German Junkers, or French Legitimists who maintain that a whole community or nation is a pack of thieves or cut-throats, who do wickedness because their nature is corrupt and their desires wholly evil, and that the only way of reducing them to order is by the free use of the dungeon and the scaffold.

Mr. Chamberlain seems to have lost all hold of this central idea of Liberalism. His denunciations of the Irish are worthy of Mr. Chaplin, or the Hon. James Lowther, or any old Tory squire. They are all thieves and assassins together, and they will probably try to assassinate him for denouncing him, but, like a fine old English gentleman that he is, they cannot intimidate him. They may kill him if they please, but they are not going to prevent him and his friends "handing down unimpaired to their children the mighty empire which their forefathers bequeathed to them." When one reads this fustian one can hardly help wondering at the rapidity of his rise from the position of an active and dexterous local politician to that of a leading British statesman. It is, however, doubtless accounted for by his extraordinary skill as an organizer, and his undoubted ability as an executive officer. It is now plain enough, however, that his head was not strong enough for his elevation. Since his revolt against Gladstone, to whose recognition of him he owed everything, the number of those who believed in his sincerity or disinterestedness has been rapidly diminishing, and his increasing fury against the Irish is doubtless due to disappointment over the now admitted failure of the Unionist secession. It has not loosened Gladstone's hold on the bulk of the Liberal party, and the old man's health continues to be provokingly good.

The letter of Parnell about the Phœnix Park murders, of which the London *Times* has printed what purports to be a facsimile, would, of course, be damaging to the last degree if authenticated. But the presumptions are all against its authenticity. The *Times* has been publishing a series of long articles entitled "Parnellism and Crime," trying to show the connection or the sympathy of the leading members of the Land League and National League with the various crimes and outrages committed or proposed by Irish Nationalists during the past seven years, both in Ireland, England, and America. The articles were got up, in the well-known journalistic way, by putting together all sorts of damaging and suspicious facts, pressing all possible presumptions into support of the charge, ignoring everything that makes against it, and giving to all careless or ambiguous phrases the worst possible meaning. The articles have, however, owing to their savage animus, fallen very flat. Neither the Liberals nor the Parnellites have taken the least notice of them. The silence of the Parnellites has been apparently very exasperating to the editor, for he keeps calling their attention to them, and challenging them to take legal proceedings against him. It was in this extremity that he announced that he had something stunning in reserve, which he would produce on some future day. This something appears to be the letter in question.

The principal internal evidence against the authenticity of the letter is that it covers the case far too completely. It is just such a letter as the *Times* would get Parnell to write if he agreed to help it to damage him seriously. In this it closely resembles the campaign stories and letters that "workers" get out in this country a day or two before election. He is a very close-mouthed and cautious man, and yet, merely to satisfy a dissatisfied murderer, he writes a most explicit letter, in plain English, without suppressing a single name or resorting to any sign or cipher, and then signs it, like a man, with his own name in full on another page, so that his correspondent, the *Times* suggests, might tear it off if he chose; but also, it might be added, if he did not so choose, that he might sell it to the Tory press. If his signature be genuine, its appearance on the other page looks as if it was obtained as an autograph. The *Times* has fortified the letter in a very amusing way by declaring in advance that Parnell's denial will be of no use in demolishing it. It will probably turn out to be a clumsy forgery like the Morey letter, and its appearance is made doubly suspicious by the fact that it appeared on the very day on which a division was expected on the second reading of the Coercion Bill.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, April 13, to TUESDAY, April 19, 1887, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND has appointed William J. Allen of Springfield, Ill., to be United States District Judge for the Southern District of that State; Col. Wesley Merritt of the Fifth Cavalry, now Superintendent at West Point, to be a brigadier-general; and Sigourney Butler of Boston to be Second Comptroller of the Treasury, in place of Judge Maynard, promoted to the Assistant Secretaryship of the Treasury.

On April 16 the President appointed Alexander R. Lawton of Georgia to be United States Minister to Austria. Mr. Lawton was appointed United States Minister to Russia in 1885, but his name was withdrawn on account of a discussion of his political disabilities, which were removed by the last Congress. Newton W. McConnell of Tennessee has been appointed Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of Montana, and George S. Peters of Ohio United States District Attorney for Utah.

Secretary Whitney has awarded to the Bethlehem Iron Works Company of Pennsylvania the contracts for furnishing steel-gun forgings and steel-armor plates for new war ships at a total cost of $4,512,938.29.

Gen. Greely, the new head of the Government Weather Bureau, has had prepared, from the records of the last fifteen years, a table of mean temperature, rainfall, etc., on every day of the year. The figures of any current date, by comparison with the mean figures of the last fifteen years on a corresponding date, show how far the temperature, rainfall, etc., of the current date exceed or fall below the normal line; and the mean records of a part of any season, compared with the mean records of the whole of the corresponding season for fifteen years, furnish a basis on which it is reasonably safe to predict the general character of the remaining part. Gen. Greely hopes thus to send to the produce exchanges periodical reports that will be of the highest service in changing their transactions from a purely speculative basis to one of reasonable assurance.

For the first quarter of this year the revenues of the Post-office Department foot up not far from $12,500,000, which is an increase of 9 per cent. over the revenues of the corresponding quarter of last year, and is the largest quarter's business ever done by the Department.

At a reception to ex-Speaker Carlisle at Covington, Ky., April 13, he expressed the opinion that "there has never been a time since 1876 when the majority of the people were not in favor of the principles of the Democratic party"; and he said: "This country is full of vagaries on the powers of Government. Some want it to become a great eleemosynary institution for the care of everybody; some want it to purchase the railroads and telegraph lines; some want it to interfere with the people's private business; some want it to loan money to indigent people. It is impossible to enumerate the schemes to rob the taxpayers for the benefit of somebody else. We must overcome the Socialistic theories abroad in the land. We must stand everywhere for the protection of both capital and labor. We must stand everywhere for the rights of men to do business with their own money in their own way. If the Democratic party does not do this, it might as well cease to exist."

After the defeat of the Prohibition amendment in Michigan, fifty Republican members of the Legislature, in caucus, decided to prepare a bill for high license and local option. Drug stores wishing to sell liquors are to pay the same tax as saloons. The limit of the license was fixed for cities of 10,000 inhabitants and over, $700; for cities under 10,000, $500; for incorporated villages, $100; for townships, $300. A High-License Bill has been introduced in the Massachusetts Legislature, which fixes the price of a first-class license at $1,000, second and third class at $750, fourth class at $500, and fifth class at $150.

Three proposed amendments to the Constitution of California failed of adoption at the polls on April 12. The first provided that the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court should be elected by the judges instead of by the people; the second, that the salaries of certain Superior Court judges should be increased, as well as the salary of the Supreme Court judges from $6,000 to $7,500; and the third, that cities of more than 10,000 population should make their own charters.

Investigation of the recent effort to kill a member of the Illinois Legislature, named Bailey, of which the friends of the condemned Anarchists in Chicago are suspected, has led to the suspicion of an oath-bound organization of Socialists to wreak vengeance (in case hope of saving the condemned Anarchists is lost) on all who have aided in their prosecution.

The Ohio State Centennial Commission, of which Gov. Foraker is Chairman, is making preparations for the exposition to be held at Columbus next year in commemoration of the first settlement of the Northwest Territory.

A very destructive cyclone swept through Belmont County, O., April 14. At St. Clairsville nearly every house was damaged. The churches, banks, court-house, newspaper offices, and hotels were demolished or so badly shattered as to be useless, and many people were hurt. At Martin's Ferry 80 to 100 houses were swept away, and almost 100 families made homeless. Twenty-five people were more or less seriously wounded.

On April 13 Columbia College celebrated its centennial anniversary. There were present many distinguished visitors from other institutions of learning, and honorary degrees were conferred on the following: Degree of Doctor of Letters—Andrew Dickinson White, Merrill Edwards Gates, Francis Andrew March, Richard Salter Storrs, John De Witt, Horace Howard Furness, James Albert Harrison, William Milligan Sloane, Charles Waldstein, William Copley Winslow, Henry Barnard, George William Curtis, Alice Elvira Freeman, President of Wellesley College; George Lansing Taylor, Martin Brewer Anderson, James Hammond Trumbull, Nathaniel Henry Rhodes Dawson, Isaac Hollister Hall, Moses Coit Tyler, George Bancroft, Francis James Child, William Dwight Whitney, Amelia Blandford Edwards, Secretary Egyptian Exploration Fund. Degree of Doctor of Laws—Abram Stevens Hewitt, Julius Hawley Seelye, Benjamin Apthorp Gould, James Burrill Angell, John Call Dalton, Charles Andrews, John Barbee Minor, Simon Newcomb, Charles A. Rapallo, Robert Earl, Maria Mitchell, Director of Observatory, Vassar College; John Chandler Bancroft Davis, Frederic René Coudert, Charles Augustus Young, William Watson Goodwin, Daniel Coit Gilman, Francis Amasa Walker, Morrison Remick Waite, William Crawford Ruger, John Tyndall, Lewis Morris Rutherfurd, Eugene Waldemar Hilgard, Émile Lavasseur, Hermann Ludwig von Helmholtz, John William Dawson, Daniel Manning, Edward Singleton Holden, Moritz Steinschneider. Degree of Doctor of Divinity—Frederick Dan Huntington, George Williamson Smith, Eugene Augustus Hoffman, Robert Brinckerhoff Fairbairn, Albert Zabriskie Gray, Henry Augustus Coit, Phillips Brooks, John Richard McGrath. Frederic R. Coudert of this city, an alumnus of the College, delivered the oration.

Dr. C. W. Bennett of Evanston, Ill., acting for a donor whose name has not been made public, has purchased the Ranke library at Berlin for the Syracuse (N. Y.) University, Mr. V. H. R. Carey of this city, a post-graduate student of Harvard, has given $25,000 to aid in building the swimming bath for the gymnasium. The bath will be 100 feet by 60, and will contain a thousand lockers and a racquet court. An anonymous gift of $25,000 has been made to the Law Department of Yale College, to be used for the furtherance of the study of contracts and commercial law. The fund is to be known as the Phelps Fund, in honor of Prof. Phelps, now United States Minister to England, who was one of the Faculty of the Law Department.

A dinner was given in this city April 14 in behalf of the American School at Athens, to which many distinguished scholars sat down. Mr. George William Curtis presided and delivered the opening address, and speeches were made by Mr. James Russell Lowell and Dr. Waldstein.

Walt Whitman read his lecture in the Madison Square Theatre on "Abraham Lincoln" April 14, which was the twenty-second anniversary of Lincoln's assassination. In the box at the left of the stage sat Mr. James Russell Lowell and Prof. Charles Eliot Norton, and on the right Mr. E. C. Stedman.

The anniversary of Jefferson's birth, April 13, was celebrated by the alumni of the University of Virginia who live in New Orleans. The orator was William M. Burwell, whose father was private secretary to President Jefferson. Though advanced in years, he is an active journalist, and at the last election was the Republican candidate for Congress in the First City District.

The remains of Lincoln were privately taken from their hiding place April 14, and interred in the north vault of the Lincoln monument in Oak Ridge Cemetery, Springfield, Ill. The Lincoln Guard of Honor had kept them concealed since the effort to steal them in 1876. The features were easily recognizable.

Mrs. M. M. Dickey, one of the six surviving pensioners of the Revolutionary war, died on April 12, at Towanda, Pa., aged ninety-six. Her husband died at the age of ninety-six in 1844. James S. Delano, an employee of the Treasury Department at Washington since 1862 until recently, died April 14. He began as a clerk, and rose through the different grades until he became Deputy Second Comptroller. The Rev. Francis W. Tustin, Professor of Greek in Bucknell University, Pennsylvania, died on the same day. The Right Rev. Monsignor William Quinn, Vicar-General of the Archdiocese of New York, died in Paris on April 15. In 1875 he was made Vicar-General and rector of the Mott Street Cathedral, and the labor of building the new Cathedral fell almost entirely on his shoulders, because of the illness of Cardinal McCloskey. In 1879 the Pope made him one of his domestic prelates, conferring upon him the rank of Monsignor. Other deaths are those of John L. Hayes, Secretary of the National Association of Wool Manufacturers, April 18; Chief-Justice David K. Cartter of the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia, April 16; ex-Congressman A. J. Weaver of Nebraska, and Alexander Mitchell, President of the Chicago, Milwaukee and St. Paul Railroad Company, April 19.

FOREIGN.

Mr. Chamberlain made a speech at Ayr, April 14, which greatly excited all parties, and so inflamed the Irish against him that he received many threatening letters. In the course of his speech he said: "The opponents of the Crimes Bill have made an outcry against the repression of liberty. Liberty to do what? To commit theft, to ruin industrious men, to outrage women?" When he was hissed he continued: "This is the spirit of the parties in the Irish Convention in Chicago. That Convention, besides being attended by delegates honestly in sympathy with Ireland, had apostles of outrage and murder, who have paid the outrage-mongers of England. Mr. Redmond, the delegate of the Irish Parliamentary party, explicitly declared that it was the aim of that party to effect the entire separation of Ireland from England, and that their policy was to make the government of Ireland by England impossible." In the House of Commons Mr. Redmond made a personal explanation with reference to his speech at the Chicago Conven-

tion, disclaiming the interpretation of it made by Mr. Chamberlain.

The popular protest against the Coercion Bill in all parts of the United Kingdom has been emphatically expressed. In John Bright's own division in Birmingham, every representative elected to the Two Thousand (the Liberal Association) except Mr. Chamberlain himself, is a pronounced Gladstonian. A resolution denouncing coercion and expressing unabated confidence in Mr. Gladstone was carried. The *Daily News* of April 15 contained eleven advertisement columns of solid signatures, numbering altogether 3,200, of Nonconformist preachers in England and Wales, protesting against coercion, and expressing the belief that "force can be no remedy for political discontent." Earl Spencer, formerly Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, on arriving at Truro April 15, was greeted by a concourse of 20,000 persons, and was presented with an address of welcome. In his reply he condemned the Government's Irish policy and advocated home rule. Sir George Otto Trevelyan, one of the Unionist leaders, and formerly Chief Secretary for Ireland, on April 14 published a letter on the Coercion Bill tantamount to a manifesto against it. He said that the bill was chiefly aimed at politicians and editors opposed to the Government's policy, and added: "The full weight of this terrible but one-sided measure is intended to fall, and will fall, upon the politicians of one party alone. The measure will be administered by those who, beyond all question, are actuated by the strongest Orange sympathies, and it is calculated to exasperate the people without serving any useful purpose." This letter is regarded as the severest blow yet dealt to the Unionist party.

At Limerick on April 17th, 60,000 persons joined in a demonstration against the Coercion Bill, the Mayor presiding.

There was an extraordinary scene in the House of Commons on April 15. Mr. Saunderson, Conservative, accused the Irish members (clearly alluding to Mr. Healy in particular) of associating with murderers. When the Speaker refused to rule the remark out of order, Mr. Healy said: "If the honorable, gallant gentleman refers to me, I have no hesitation in telling him across the floor of the House that he is a liar," for which he was suspended and he left the House amid the cheers of the Irish members. Mr. Saunderson continuing, Mr. Sexton next rose: "I say you are a wilful and cowardly liar. If I meet you outside the door of this House I will cram this statement down your throat and thrash you within an inch of your life." It was clear that unless Mr. Saunderson withdrew his expression, every Parnellite member present would give him the lie direct, and all would be suspended in succession. He withdrew his remark and order was restored. Mr. Healy was, therefore, suspended for contradicting a remark which was subsequently withdrawn by the Speaker's order.

On the second reading of the Coercion Bill, April 18, Mr. Gladstone, in his speech, which was delivered with every sign of vigor, protested eloquently against the scoffs at the American contributions to the relief of the famine-stricken Irish people, contributions to the rent of their landlords, and the like, as scoffs at one of the glories of the United States. He described the bill as directed not against crime but combination. He concluded with these words: "The bill, sir, in my view, is a cup of poison. I will not commend it to the lips of Ireland. It must be offered to them by another hand than mine. To me it will be honor and happiness enough should I be permitted the smallest share in dashing it to the ground." Mr. Balfour's speech was important for his statement that the Government will stand or fall by its Land Bill. The bill then passed its second reading.

The London *Times* on April 18, as a proof of its assertion, at the conclusion of its series of articles on "Parnellism and Crime," that it had documentary evidence of Parnell's connection with crime in Ireland, printed a facsimile of a letter which it said was written by Parnell to Egan to pacify his subordinates when Parnell publicly denounced the Phœnix Park murders. The letter is in a handwriting which does not resemble Parnell's, but the signature, the *Times* asserted, is his. The letter, which is dated simply "15, 5, 82," without an address, is as follows:

"DEAR SIR: I am not surprised at your friend's anger, but he and you should know that to denounce the murders was the only course open to us. To do that promptly was plainly our best policy. But you can tell him and all others concerned that though I regret the accident of Lord F. Cavendish's death, I cannot refuse to admit that Burke got no more than his deserts. You are at liberty to show him this, and others whom you can trust also, but let not my address be known. He can write to the House of Commons."

The letter was the topic of universal conversation. Irishmen emphatically repudiated it, and not one believed it genuine. At one o'clock that night, in the House of Commons, Mr. Parnell described it as "a villanous, bare faced forgery" to influence the division. "I never heard of the letter," he said. "I never directed such a letter to be written. I never saw such a letter before I saw it in the *Times* this morning. The subject-matter is preposterous; and the phraseology, absurd as it could possibly be in every particular, bears evidence of its want of genuineness." Concerning the Phœnix Park murders, he said: "It is no exaggeration to say that if I had been in the park that day, I would gladly have stood between Lord Frederick Cavendish and the daggers of his assassins [cheers and cries of "Burke"]; for the matter of that, between their daggers and Burke. Now, sir, I leave this subject. I have suffered more than any other man from that terrible deed in Phœnix Park. The Irish nation has suffered more than any other nation. I have never had any dealings with Alexander Sullivan, or any one else, in respect to the doings or proceedings of any secret society." This was during the debate on the second reading of the Coercion Bill. In conclusion, taking up his hat, he said, in a strong voice: "I trust in God this nation and this House may be saved from the degradation, mistake, and peril of passing this bill."

Messrs. Parnell and Davitt, and other prominent Irishmen, are making an effort to help the Irish in an industrial way by promoting the organization of an Irish woollen manufacturing and exporting company with a capital of $500,000. Mr. Davitt, while in the United States, received many promises of assistance from importers of woollens

The Rev. Dr. Parker of London will deliver a eulogy on Henry Ward Beecher in Brooklyn on June 24. After that he will preach a number of times in Brooklyn, and will subsequently deliver several lectures in the United States.

The volume of European emigration to America is again rapidly increasing. The railways are running special trains to Queenstown to accommodate emigrants. The emigration from Hamburg to the United States in March amounted to 4,059 men and 1,904 women, whence the total since the new year has been 7,820 men and 3,572 women.

The German Government has issued a decree that all public placards posted in Alsace-Lorraine shall be printed in the German language, but French translations will be permitted. Every Mayor or other official in the provinces suspected of French sympathies has been dismissed. On April 13 the Berlin *Post* published a spirited article on the relations between Germany and France. Referring to the French cavalry evolutions at Lunéville, it said: "These and similar military preparations along the frontier bear the character of provocations, and appear to proceed entirely from a wish to annoy and alarm Germany." *Le Paris* in reply spoke of the German policy as "lying, cynical, and brutal."

Gen. Brialmont, aide-de-camp of the King of the Belgians, recently said: "War is certainly inevitable. But, from what I can gather from all sources, it will not break out so long as the aged Emperor of Germany is alive. He is strongly imbued with religious and humane sentiments, which cause him to shrink from shedding more blood. There is no effort he will not make compatible with the dignity of his empire to avoid an outbreak of hostilities." Gen. Brialmont's opinion is that a Franco-German war would mean the invasion of Belgium, and invasion would mean annexation.

The Czar has rejected the French proposals for an alliance between France and Russia. The French Ambassador, M. de Laboulaye, thereupon offered to resign.

A Frenchman named Nillairand on April 18 stabbed ex-Marshal Bazaine with a poniard at Madrid, exclaiming, "*J'ai vengé ma patrie.*" He was arrested, and is thought to be insane. The wound is reported to be slight.

At the opening of the Italian Parliament, Prime Minister Depretis said that Italy would follow a policy of peace, but, since every other Government was increasing its armament, the Cabinet would ask the Chambers for credits to strengthen the kingdom's defences.

It has been reported from Madrid that leading statesmen and literary men will join influential politicians of Central and South America in advocating closer commercial and political relations between the Spanish countries on both sides of the Atlantic. Their hope is to form a commercial zollverein and political alliance to combat the growing influence of the Anglo-Saxon race, especially in Central America, Mexico, and the West Indies, and to prevent the Panama Canal's falling into the hands of the United States.

The Pope has decided that the Church shall not oppose the Knights of Labor in America. This decision will stand so long as the present method pursued in furthering their aims prevails. The document of Cardinal Gibbons has been endorsed. In Canada, where a mandament had been issued against the Knights, the members of the Order will receive absolution on promise of obedience to future decisions of the Holy See.

Several Arab tribes have detached themselves from the Mahdi's authority and proclaimed one of their Sheikhs Sultan, with a residence at Kassala. They have an organized army of 8,000 men, and the new Sultan has appointed five governors of provinces.

A Somali trader from the Uganda country has brought news that Emin Bey is established north of the Albert Nyanza, and has two small steamers plying on the White Nile. The King of Uganda, a youth of eighteen who has 1,000 wives, refused him permission to pass through his territory towards Zanzibar. It is reported that the messengers sent by Stanley from Zanzibar to Emin Bey were detained by a chief on the way.

The Dominion Parliament opened April 14. The Governor-General in his speech said that the negotiations between Great Britain and the United States on the fisheries question were still in progress, and would, he hoped, result in an arrangement honorable and satisfactory to both nations; meanwhile, provision had been made for the protection of the Canadian inshore fisheries. On April 15 the Hon. Edward Blake said the Government had not treated the Americans as it becomes one people to treat the citizens of another country. He asked what had been done, and what assurance the Government had of a satisfactory settlement. In reply Sir John McDonald declared that the question was such a delicate one to handle in an incomplete stage of proceeding that he could not now give an answer. The Canadian fisheries fleet this season will include, besides the flagship *Arcadia*, two steamships, seven schooners, and the confiscated *Highland Light*, which has been christened *Vigilant*. These vessels carry thirty officers, and sixteen guns, and 130 men.

The Joint Committee of the Mexican Congress has reported in favor of the repeal of that amendment to the Constitution which forbids the immediate reëlection of the President.

THE IMPORTANCE OF THE FINISH.

In a year from this time, the record of the Administration on which it must go to the country will be finally made up. There are already in that record, in the matter of appointments and dismissals, a great many things which the best friends of the President cannot reconcile with his promises and professions, made before election, except by making allowances for the difficulties he has had to encounter from his own party. That is to say, they have had to presume that he tried to do better and meant to do better than he has done, but encountered resistance too great for any one man to overcome. But we feel bound to say that this is one of the excuses, like those that one makes for the shortcomings of a young man, which are only good as long as there remains time for improvement —that is, there are a good many defences and apologies which one can produce, with more or less effectiveness, for an Administration during its first and second years, which begin to wear out in the third, and become mere rags and tatters in the fourth. Unfortunately, when the time comes round to vote, it is the doings of the third and fourth years which people have most distinctly in their minds in forming their judgments.

For these reasons, we who believe firmly in the great superiority of President Cleveland to any of his recent predecessors, in his manner of using the patronage of the Government, cannot conceal from ourselves, nevertheless, that it is in the highest degree dangerous to enter on the last year of his Administration without greatly checking the political activity of some of his subordinates; and not only this, but without giving the public a good many conspicuous examples, between now and June, 1888, of the kind of Administration he had in mind when he wrote his celebrated letter to Mr. George William Curtis and others. A good many gentlemen are, in fact, now preparing for his renomination in ways which will make it extremely difficult for civil-service reformers to go to the polls for him with the alacrity they displayed in 1884. Numerous dismissals have been made or are being made which are just as bad, from every point of view, moral, political, and administrative, as any that occurred under Grant or Garfield, or would have occurred under Blaine. This downward course must be arrested if we are to have 1884 over again. There is still time, but it will soon be too late to make an effective change. No man who has ever sat in the Presidential chair since Jackson's day can less well afford to go before the American people for reëlection with such a record as President Cleveland is now allowing some of his official followers to make up for him. Nobody could afford it who had accomplished even half as much good as he has done.

We cannot now recall any other Administration than his since the war to which such an appeal as this could be effectively made. He has given many illustrations during the past three years of the utility of calling his attention to departures made by his followers from his own programme. What we wish now to emphasize is, that the time during which such corrections and emendations can be made to produce their proper effect on public opinion, is very brief, and must be improved.

THE DRINK BILL, FORMERLY AND NOW.

Mr. W. F. Switzler, Chief of the Bureau of Statistics at Washington, has done a good and timely piece of work by compiling and presenting in his last quarterly report some interesting and valuable figures as to the consumption and cost of liquor in times past and now. The public attention has been so fixed upon the drink evil during the past winter by the controversies over liquor legislation in many States, that a careful investigation of the facts is peculiarly welcome.

The records of the Internal Revenue Bureau and of the customs service furnish the figures as to the quantity of distilled spirits, wines, and malt liquors produced in this country, exported from it, and imported from abroad, so that it is possible to present a reasonably accurate statement as to the amount of each sort consumed in recent years, while less accurate data as to the past are found in the census reports for 1840, 1850, and 1860. The annual consumption in gallons for each of the decennial years and for 1886 is given in this table:

	Distilled spirits.	Wines.	Malt liquors.
1840	43,060,884	4,873,096	23,310,843
1850	51,833,473	6,315,871	36,563,039
1860	89,968,651	11,059,141	101,346,699
1870	79,895,708	12,225,067	204,756,156
1880	63,526,694	28,329,541	414,220,165
1886	72,261,614	22,067,220	642,967,720

The real significance of this table, however, only appears when it is supplemented by one which gives the total consumption per capita of population for the various years, as it is this which indicates the increase or diminution of the drinking habit. Here is such a table:

	Distilled spirits.	Wines.	Malt liquors.
1840	2.52	0.29	1.36
1850	2.23	0.27	1.58
1860	2.86	0.35	3.22
1870	2.07	0.32	5.30
1880	1.26	0.56	8.26
1886	1.24	0.38	11.18

Dismissing as of doubtful value the census figures for 1840, 1850, and 1860, the reports beginning with 1870 show certain tendencies very clearly. Eliminating from the account the divergences caused by the ups and downs which the distilling business experiences, like every other industry and more than many others, and which often cause great differences in the amounts withdrawn for consumption in successive years, it is obvious that there is a steady drift toward a diminution of the amount of "hard liquor" consumed in the country. There has not been a year during the decade beginning with 1876 in which the consumption of distilled spirits per capita was as great as it was in each of the half dozen years beginning with 1870; and the conclusion is unavoidable that Americans as a race drink decidedly less whiskey now than they used to do, the average for the last ten years being but 1.29 gallon, against 1.54 for the previous six. It will surprise many people to find that the use of wine appears also to be decreasing of late, the average having crept up pretty steadily until it exceeded half a gallon per capita in 1880, and then receded to but little over a third of a gallon in the last three years. The consumption of malt liquors, on the other hand, has increased almost thirty-fold in absolute quantity, and nearly ten-fold relatively to population, since 1840, and this increase has been most marked during the past decade, in which the amount per capita has increased nearly two-thirds.

Figures from the 'Statistical Abstract for the United Kingdom' show a similar decrease in the consumption of spirits and of wine in Great Britain of late years, and an arrest, at least, of the beer-drinking habit:

	Distilled spirits.	Wine.	Beer.
1871	1.12		
1880	1.04		
1881	1.00	.43	33.90
1882	1.07	.41	33.65
1883	1.03	.40	33.13
1884	1.05	.39	33.72
1885	1.01	.37	32.79

There would seem from these figures to be no ground for doubt that the consumption of the more intoxicating liquors is decreasing in both England and America. Any candid person who has reached middle life will confess that drunkenness appears to him less common, as it certainly is less respectable, than when he was young, and it is satisfactory to find this impression justified by the most accurate figures which are available. Few people are so fanatical that they will not admit that whiskey is worse than beer, and that a nation is better off when it is reducing the quantity of "hard liquor" it drinks, even if it increases at the same time its indulgence in the lighter alcoholic beverages. It is an interesting fact, by the way, that the consumption of coffee increases with the falling off in whiskey, the average in this country having risen in the past five years from 8.2 pounds per capita to 9.11 pounds.

The report presents a valuable contribution from Mr. F. N. Barrett, editor of the *American Grocer*, published in this city, as to the cost of alcoholic beverages to consumers in the United States. The wildest guesses on this subject are constantly put forth in temperance addresses, and Mr. Switzler has done well to seek an estimate from an intelligent source. We can only summarize briefly Mr. Barrett's methods. He gives good reasons for the belief that 10 per cent. of the spirits distilled is used in the manufacturing and mechanic arts, but he regards this as fully made up for by the water added by the retailer. He therefore accepts 75,000,000 gallons, the average for the past five years, as the proper total, which, at 60 drinks per gallon, and at an average of 7½ cents per drink, makes $337,500,000 for whiskey; beer is put at an average of 609,705,367 gallons, which at 50 cents to the consumer makes $304,852,683; imported wines, 4,100,664 gallons, at $4, $16,402,656; domestic wines, 17,391,343 gallons, at $2, $34,782,686—a grand total of $693,538,025, or, adding a reasonable allowance for illicit whiskey and home-made wines, a round sum of $700,000,000 a year paid by the consumers (the cost to the retailers, it should be explained, being placed at only $300,000,000, which allows a profit of 133 1-3 per cent. paid by the consumers). Mr. Barrett's computation is so well fortified that it would command acceptance of itself, but the value of his $700,000,000 estimate is, of course, enhanced by the fact that so high a

statistical authority as Mr. Edward Atkinson has reached the same conclusion by an independent investigation.

Mr. Barrett estimates the number of people who consume this liquor at 14,925,417, or a trifle above one-quarter of the whole number, and presents the following table of per capita consumption and cost:

Year.	Spirits.		Beer.		Wine.		Cost yearly to consumers.
	Total population.	Drinking population.	Total population.	Drinking population.	Total population.	Drinking population.	
	Gals.	Gals.	Gals.	Gals.	Gals.	Gals.	
1882.....	1.3	5.4	9.8	39.1	.48	1.9	$47 65
1883.....	1.4	5 7	10.2	39.9	.47	1.8	49 20
1884.....	1.4	5 7	10.6	41.6	.36	1.4	49 25
1885.....	1.2	4.8	10 4	40.9	.38	1.5	45 05
1886.....	1.2	4.8	10.9	43.0	.37	1.4	45 90
Average.	1.3	5.3	10.4	40.9	.41	1.6	$47 41

What relation does the expenditure of $700,000,000 for alcoholic beverages bear to the nation's expenditure for food, clothing, and shelter? Mr. Barrett discusses this question, and, estimating that $150 to $200 a year represents the per capita cost of maintenance throughout the country, makes the total for absolute living expenses from $8,790,000,000 to $11,720,000,000. This gives a ratio of $1 spent by the American people for liquor to every $12.55 to $16.74 spent for the support of life.

We regret that Mr. Barrett did not extend his estimate to cover a longer period of years, though we know of no reason to doubt that such an extension would merely have confirmed the conclusion justified by the figures from 1882 to 1886, viz., that the drink bill of the United States relatively to population is decreasing. A statement copied in the report from an English publication proves that this is the case in the United Kingdom, the average cost of liquors per capita (of the whole population, not merely the consumers) being as follows for a series of years:

1870	$18 51	1877	$20 64
1871	19 24	1878	20 46
1872	20 12	1879	18 25
1873	21 23	1880	17 25
1874	21 21	1881	17 58
1875	21 23	1882	17 52
1876	21 66		

All of these figures lead up to the same conclusion, that the consumption of liquor—certainly of the more fiery sorts—is decreasing; that the drink bill of great nations, like the United States and England, enormous as it is, has at least ceased to grow, and apparently has begun to diminish; in short, that civilization has begun to gain the upper hand in the warfare with intemperance.

GETTING THEIR EYES OPEN.

THERE are multiplying signs that the workingmen, who were at first blinded by the "organized labor" movement, are at last getting their eyes open, and beginning to see how badly they have been fooled by their leaders. The unbroken succession of failures in the great strikes started by the Knights of Labor, beginning with last spring, appears to have set the workingmen to thinking. They have turned over in their minds the results of these various ventures, scarcely any of which would have been made except for the organization, and they find that the only people who have profited by the long series of controversies have been the "professional organizers" who run the Knights, and who are never so happy as when they are making mischief.

The attitude of the shoemakers in this city is so significant of the change which is in progress that it merits examination. About a month ago the Knights of Labor issued an order that the men employed in Hanan & Son's manufactory should quit work. There had been trouble in the shop last fall, growing out of the interference of the Executive Committee of District Assembly 91, but on the 16th of February the employees held a meeting and made an agreement to continue work for the coming year at the old rate of wages. On the 16th of March, one Gill and two other members of the Executive Committee called upon the proprietors and demanded the discharge of a man named Dunphy, threatening to order a strike if the firm did not comply. The senior Hanan told Gill, the spokesman, that they would never yield to his demands, because they had been advised that they should render themselves liable to prosecution for damages if they discharged Dunphy. He also reminded Gill that such a demand was unlawful and in violation of the Penal Code, and that those making it rendered themselves liable to arrest for conspiracy. Gill replied that he did not care anything for the Penal Code or the laws against conspiracy, and was able to take care of himself. Mr. Hanan told him to put his demand in writing, and he sat down at the desk and began to write. Mr. Hanan asked him to explain why the demand was made, when he stopped and said: "I guess I won't commit myself in ink." Finding that nothing was to be gained by further discussion, the Executive Committee withdrew and ordered a strike.

Frank P. Campbell, the foreman of the shop, is a Knight of Labor, and so prominent that he is Master Workman of a local Assembly in Tarrytown where his home is; but he seems to be a man with a mind of his own, and, when the order was given to quit work, he refused to budge. Most of the workmen stood with him in refusing to strike when they had no grievance, simply to gratify the whim of an Executive Committee, and the places of the few who left were quickly filled. District Assembly 91 promptly suspended Mr. Campbell as Master Workman of his local assembly for such contumacy, and on Saturday he carried his appeal from this ruling to the office of 49. As he handed it to the Secretary, Master-Workman Quinn stood by, and a *Sun* reporter, who fortunately chanced to be near, gives this account of the interview between them:

> Mr. Quinn—You are working there still?
> Mr. Campbell—I am, and I don't think——
> Mr. Quinn—Oh, you go to blank!
> Mr. Campbell—What power have you got to send me there? Who are you, any way? I am as good a man as you.
> Mr. Quinn—If it had not been for you, your men would have come out.
> Mr. Campbell—Your committee had no right to call my men out. I don't obey such orders, and never will. The men would not come out without cause.
> Mr. Quinn—No wonder they [the proprietors] can go on with their work when such scabs as you work for them.
> Mr. Campbell—I suppose if I sat in beer saloons all day, and smoked cigars which other people paid for, you might like me better.
> Mr. Quinn—I'll black-list you in every shop in the United States.
> Mr. Campbell—I don't care a d—— for you. I can live in spite of you. You are getting $1,200 a year from the Assembly for doing nothing but create trouble for honest workmen, but you get no more of my money to support you in loafing round, wearing fine clothes, and smoking good cigars.
> Mr. Quinn—Don't you wish you could do it?
> At this point Campbell walked out of the office, fearing he might be helped out.

On Sunday about 350 shoemakers, most of them, but not all, from Hanan & Son's, held a meeting to consider the situation. Mr. Campbell made a speech which was so full of common sense that our readers will be glad to see the *Sun's* report of his remarks:

> "It is time that a halt was called upon the leaders of the Knights of Labor, and particularly those of District Assemblies 91 and 49, for they surely are losing their heads. The leaders are in receipt of large incomes, and in order to earn them cause useless and nonsensical strikes. Because I would not break a contract that was signed with the full consent of the Knights of Labor, Quinn threatened me with outlawry. Quinn and Maguire sat in secret conclave at midnight, and the edict, like one issued by the Czar, went forth: 'Peremptorily withdraw Campbell.' It is time the shoemakers put down these men. In the Federation of Labor there will be no secret conclaves, no more meetings in the dead of the night. I told Quinn plainly that it was his $1,200 a year he was after, and not the interests of the men he was paid to protect. It comes to this, that these men must be curtailed in their power to issue edicts to ruin any man who opposes them in their schemes. Of what use was this great sympathetic strike of 49 last February? Go to the tenement-houses on the river front and seek out there the starving children of the 'longshoremen who took part in that strike. Many of them have had no work since, and will not get any either, for their employers were angered at their actions. Could not any capable man see how it would result? War is now brought about that the leaders might draw their salaries more consistently, because they filled a large space of the attention of workingmen. It is better that the workingmen be rid of the Maguires, the Quinns, and the Drurys, than that they and their children should be brought into misery and poverty. John E. Gill, Chairman of the Executive Board of Assembly 91, Knights of Labor, has been but two years a shoemaker; yet he is grand dictator of all the shoemakers in this vicinity, and can say how, when, or where real shoemakers shall work."

After this exposition of the matter it was determined by a decisive vote that those present should form themselves into the "Manufacturing Shoemakers' Protective and Benevolent Union, No. 1," leave the Knights of Labor, and join the American Federation of Labor. In the course of the discussion another shoemaker, Thomas P. Masterson, talked in much the same strain as Mr. Campbell. The only plan for workingmen, he said, was to organize themselves into trade unions. Cigarmakers ought not to say how much money a shoemaker should get. The workingmen had grown tired of the mystical order. When they came to star-chamber business, the people began to watch for crooked work, and without the confidence of the people the order could not stand. "One man near the head of affairs," said Mr. Masterson, "went into a Park Row saloon and got $20 on a forged check, and those are the kind of men that give orders to us. If these are the angels in disguise sent to lift up the earth, the sooner they drop it the better."

At the same time with this revolt against the Knights in New York, an equally encouraging movement in the same direction is reported

from New England. For some time there has been growing discontent among boot and shoe cutters in that part of the country because of the tyranny of the Knights, and they have finally decided to form an organization of their own. A most significant feature of this movement is the fact that the platform adopted takes the ground that "strikes and lockouts are wrong in principle, and tend to work harm, and are not for the interests of either employer or employee, and should not be resorted to until all other measures have failed."

AFTER THE IRONSIDES ON A TRICYCLE. —II.

At Marston Moor the snake had been *scotched* for the Parliament, but not killed. In another year the King was once more in the field, energetic and enterprising. By means of the "Self-denying Ordinance," Parliament swept incapables out of places of command; by means of the "New Model" it invigorated its army in the rank and file. The noble Fairfax, his face honorably disfigured by the scar of Marston Moor, was put at the head, with Cromwell for second in command. Following on the track of Fairfax as he sought the Cavaliers, in June, 1645, I pushed my tricycle through an upland region, until at length, on a point six hundred feet above the sea-level, a tall spire rose before me. I passed through a rather shabby village, and, after a dinner at the inn, during which I admired the beautiful horse-chestnut trees in the churchyard opposite, I turned on my machine northward, and was presently in a by-road, between high hawthorn hedges. A steep declivity carried me from the plateau into low ground through which flowed a brook, a slope down which I rushed with my hand on the brake, while the air rung in my ears. At the foot was a gate at the roadside, opening which I followed a cart path to the "Broad-Moor Farm." In a great field, rising gradually towards the tall spire which I had left behind, I saw to my left, as I made my way rather painfully along the rough track, the Broad-Moor farmer and his men pitching into cocks, ready for the wagon, the heavy windrows of hay just thoroughly cured by the August sun. I went to the group through the stubble on foot, and the strong farmer, leaning on his pitchfork, received me well.

I now stood in the centre of the battle-field of Naseby, on the declivity of "Mill Hill." A mile northward the ground rose from the lowland in an answering ridge, "Dust Hill"; beyond which still another height could be seen, "Sibbertoft Ridge." The names are all as on the battle day, and the appearance of things quite unchanged except that, as at Marston Moor, what was then partially waste land is now thoroughly cultivated, and a few hedges divide what was then unenclosed.

On the morning of June 14, 1645, Fairfax, marching out from Naseby, saw from Mill Hill the flashing pikes and waving pennons of the King just coming into view over Sibbertoft Ridge to the north. Presently they were on Dust Hill, whence the drums and trumpets and even the voices of the captains must have sounded clearly across. Fairfax, withdrawing a furlong or so, into a hollow behind Mill Hill, made his dispositions. To the west, on his left flank, behind "Sulby Hedge" (the name and the hedge are still there), he put the Anabaptist Major of Cuirassiers Okey, who led a force of excellent troops, dragoons, for the time being dismounted, but with their horses close by. Next to Okey ran the left wing under Henry Ireton, once a scholar and lawyer, one of the best brains and stoutest hearts in England, Cromwell's favorite, afterwards his son-in-law, for the first time that day in high command, promoted for his merit from a captaincy over the heads of many older soldiers. Behind a "forlorn hope" of musketeers stood as centre five regiments of foot under the doughty and genial old Skippon, leader of the London trained bands, a campaigner from the Low Countries, whose shout to his men peals cheerily out of the past: "Come, my boys, my brave boys! let us pray heartily and fight heartily. I will run the same fortunes and hazards with you. Remember the cause is for God and for the defence of yourselves, your wives, and your children!" Behind the centre was a reserve under Pride, a foundling and once a drayman, destined to be hereafter the hero of "Pride's Purge," and Hammond, a gentleman and Oxford scholar—impetuous fighters both. So in the "New Model" high and low-born stood shoulder to shoulder. We find the Ironsides on the east, constituting the Roundhead right, six regiments, of which Cromwell held two in reserve. The one destined on this day to be especially noticeable was led by Whalley, afterwards the regicide who fled for his life to New England, the hero of one of the most familiar and picturesque of our colonial traditions (exploded, alas!), the saving of Hadley in the Connecticut Valley from Indian attack, near the time of Philip's War. The baggage was in the rear of Ireton, to the west of Naseby, guarded by a thin line of matchlock men, ranged round it in a circle.

As to the King's array, Rupert, smarting under the recollection of his beating, longed to cross swords once more with Cromwell. He was, however, opposed to Ireton; while Sir Marmaduke Langdale, a thin, serious Yorkshireman, one of the King's best soldiers, had the place the Prince desired for himself. Sir Marmaduke had the drawback of a hasty temper; and now, as the battle was joining, hot words were exchanged between him and his subordinates, a want of union most ill-timed when the points that glinted on the opposite hill-side were those of the Ironsides. Between Rupert and Sir Marmaduke, with a strong reserve behind, the centre was led by Sir Jacob Astley, a fine type of the better Cavaliers, trained by the great Gustavus, his fire not at all extinguished under his gray hairs. One wonders whether, as he stood before his array, he repeated the naïve trooper's prayer which he is said to have uttered at Edgehill: "Lord, Thou knowest how busy I must be this day, but if I forget Thee do not Thou forget me!" The forces on both sides were in number scarcely half of those engaged at Marston Moor, but the troops were magnificent and the leaders the thrice-sifted corn.

As I went over on the field the story of the battle with the kind farmer at my side, I could trace narrowly the position of the two lines—solid English masses facing one another in the middle of the beautiful June forenoon, scarcely distinguishable except that the Cavaliers wore a green sprig and the Roundheads their badge of white. The standards of the former, of course, were far gayer and more numerous. The Puritan ensign is said to have displayed five Bibles on a ground of black. Over the King's centre burned the royal banner of crimson, embroidered in gold with a crown and lion. One troop bore the white silk streamer of the Queen, another a flag of flowered damask; while from the right flew a sky-blue color, that with which Rupert had replaced the one lost the year before by the White Syke.

"Prince Rupert's lodge," an old farm building which tradition makes to have been his temporary headquarters, was half a mile from us, on the opposite rise. Down the gentle descent before it I followed with my eye the track of his horsemen when, thinking Fairfax was retreating as he withdrew behind Mill Hill to form, the Prince spurred hotly forward. Just here to the right it was that Charles, in complete armor, with fine horsemanship, and with all the majesty of men which a King should have, rode along his front. "Soldiers, will you fight for me?" he cried. "All! all!" was the enthusiastic answer, mingled with shouts of "Queen Mary," the watch-word, as the solemn ranks of Fairfax, amid prayers and psalms, pealed "God with us!"

Between ten and eleven, as Rupert descended, Fairfax reappeared on the slope thoroughly ready. We find the same simple but desperate tactics as at Marston Moor. Down either slope masses of horsemen flung themselves upon each other with cries and clashing and awful thunder of hoofs. As the mad flood of Cavaliers swept along Sulby Hedge, the dragoons in ambush behind the dense hawthorn poured in a heavy flanking fire. Okey declared afterwards that, peering through the leaves and the dust, he saw the King himself leading a troop most valiantly. The dragoons gave themselves up for lost. The Roundhead colonels of the left struggled desperately to hold their men, but they were mercilessly overridden and sabred; Rupert's rearing chargers pushed irresistibly onward while the bright blades flashed in the sun, driving before them what soon became a headlong mass of fugitives. So the wave rolled over Ireton. But as always, Rupert went too fast and too far, drawing rein first, with his horses all spent, when he reached the baggage-train beyond Naseby. An eye-witness who sat there within the circle of matchlock men tells graphically how the troopers rode up, the Prince in front in a red Spanish cap: we may suppose that, being out of the mêlée, he had laid aside his helmet, under the hot sun, for something lighter. The captain of the baggage-train, believing him to be Fairfax, asked him, hat in hand, how the battle was going. The Prince asked in turn if he would have quarter; thereat the matchlock men trained their sights upon the intruders, who made no attack.

On the east, Sir Marmaduke, as brave as Rupert, had spurred with his troopers against the Roundhead right; but Cromwell launched against them the regiment of Whalley, who met them in full career, and again the Malignants were given as stubble to the swords of the Ironsides. The ground was here difficult for the Parliament troops, but everything was broken through, till the scene on the west was repeated on the east with the parties reversed. But Cromwell never went too fast or too far. At the centre the foot stood until noon in the closest conflict—mutual volleys, then a rushing forward into push of pike. Sir Jacob held the King's men so sternly to their work that Skippon gave ground. While bringing up succor, he found his armor broken and his side pierced by a bullet; but he shouted that he would not stir "so long as a man shall stand." For a time all seemed lost. Had only Rupert been at hand! But now Oliver, having trampled out Sir Marmaduke, thunders promptly on the royalist rear. Ireton from the west, rallying a party of his routed and overridden men, smites in on the flank, hip and thigh. His horse is shot, his leg pierced with a pike, his face gored with a halbert thrust. Thus maimed and bloody, he is taken prisoner, but presently retaken; and the blow he inflicts is at once repeated by the dragoons, who, galloping across from Sulby Hedge, dash in unopposed. Fairfax, too, is at hand with his life guard. Under the hot noon the Roundheads beat all to the earth, Sir Jacob making his way with difficulty from under the hoofs of the horses. One regiment stands like the "White Coats" in the White Syke Close. Fairfax charges them twice in vain. Struck simultaneously in front and rear, they melt, disdaining to be spared, until the Roundheads meet in their centre, Fairfax himself seiz-

ing their pennon from the hand of its bearer as he falls.

It is said that Rupert, supposing the battle gained, returned at a leisurely pace, his helmet laid aside, while he continued to wear, after his charge, his comfortable cap. Upon Mill Hill he was undeceived; but his horses were blown, his men scattered, and their ardor relaxed. He might even then have helped the hard-pressed Astley; but suddenly, out of the battle-smoke, the reserve of the Ironsides broke upon him, and his formation was shattered. The King, too, before all was lost, flinging himself in front of a fine body of horse which he had held back, addressed them with spirit. "Give one charge more," he cried, "and recover the day." At the same time he put spurs to his steed, and was in the act of leaping forward; but a timid Scotch courtier suddenly laid hands upon the King's bridle. "Will you go upon your death in an instant?" said he. Before Charles could prevent, his charger swerved, and word ran through the troops that they were to wheel to the right. The unfortunate King seemed to set an example of flight; a sudden panic seized all, and a mad rout tore northward. The remorseless squadrons of Cromwell were instantly upon them, and the roads were strewn with slaughtered fugitives. What frenzy of the war-horse! what fierce exulting of the fanatic rider, shouting the war cries of Hebrew Joshua, his weapon heavy as a weaver's beam! The long locks were sweat through and dishevelled, the scarfs and embroidery rent and blood-stained in the agony of that summer afternoon.

"Fools! your doublets shone with gold, and your hearts were gay and bold,
As you kissed your lily hands to your lemans to-day;
But to-morrow shall the fox, from her chamber in the rocks
Lead forth her tawny cubs to howl above the prey!
Where be your tongues that late mocked at Heaven, and Hell, and Fate,
And your fingers that once were so busy with your blades?
Your perfumed satin clothes, your catches and your oaths,
Your stage-plays and your sonnets, your diamonds and your spades?
Down, down, for ever down with the Mitre and the Crown!
They shall tremble when they think of the edge of England's sword;
And the kings of earth in fear shall shudder when they hear
What the hand of God hath wrought for the Houses and the Word."

The Broad-Moor farmer leaned on his fork; the horses caught a few mouthfuls from the windrow. Down there in the cart-path the tricycle waited where Astley must have come forward as the Puritan centre gave way. Just here it must have been that Skippon staggered; from the thorns Pride must have hurried with his succor. I saw that when I had come down the hill with a rush, the air ringing in my ears, I was precisely in the track of Whalley when the Ironsides threw themselves upon Sir Marmaduke. One of the laborers came forward with two corroded bullets in his palm; he showed me where he found them, near where the reserve had charged the flank of Rupert. I bought them for a shilling. They whistled in the hearing of Cromwell; perhaps they came from the pistol of the Prince. As I write these lines, they are my paper-weights. Bidding the farmer good-bye, I pushed the machine across the field through the stubble, with some difficulty, to the western verge. (If one sweats a little at Naseby, perhaps the story grows more real.) A boy who guided me pointed out three or four depressions on the declivity of Mill Hill, still traceable and with a rank growth of weeds about. They are the pits, says tradition, in which were buried the slain men and horses. The officers lie under the spire of Naseby church.

A gate let me through Sulby Hedge to the high road. From the ambush of the dragoons here I took my last look in the light of the late afternoon. There was the sod that had been dinted by Rupert's war-horse, and had drunk the blood of Ireton. No spears that day glittered upon Sibbertoft Ridge; cattle fed quietly in the field where the poltroon hand baulked the King's last charge. How narrow was the chance of victory! For three hours it was a most doubtful fight. Defeat would have been utter destruction for the Independents, for the majority of the nation were about ready to overlook all and restore the King. Victory for the Cavaliers would have been the death of freedom in England, and perhaps not in England alone. The King lost, and this time lost utterly. I remember the Broad-Moor farmer told me his fork was of American make, and I believe the grass had been mowed by an American machine. America has reaped another harvest from that field than one of hay! Naseby is said to be Navelsby, the centre of England. In the history of the English-speaking race, few events are more central than Naseby battle!

NOTES ON THE WINDWARD ISLANDS.

ON BOARD THE BARRACOUTA, March, 1887.

THE first thing that arrests the attention of the visitor to the Windward Islands is the unwonted splendor of tropical vegetation. This may be seen in its greatest perfection in the island of Martinique, but it has been described so often by letter writers, and is examined so minutely and depicted so enthusiastically by Charles Kingsley in his 'At Last,' which is in the hands of every tourist, that I shall not attempt to say again what has been so well said by others. I have not, however, seen any adequate description of the view presented to the eye of the passer on shipboard by the lofty volcanic cones and sloping cane fields of St. Kitts, Montserrat, Nevis, and St. Lucia. The mountains to their summits and down into their craters are embowered in vegetation so dense that it can hardly be penetrated by man. Half way down begins the checker-board of cultivated fields laid off in sugar cane in various stages of advancement, with here and there brown bits of fallow land that give variety to the picture, together with white shining towers of sugar factories and the sweeping arms of windmills. An artist of even less grasp than Church or Bierstadt might make both fortune and fame by putting on canvas these glorious vistas.

The next thing that presses upon the mind of a thoughtful observer is the extreme poverty of the inhabitants—a poverty such as one can hardly form any conception of in the United States. The inhabitants are nearly all negroes and mulattoes. In Barbados 8¼ per cent. of the population are white, but this is quite exceptional. In Antigua the whites are 5 per cent., in St. Kitts, Nevis, Dominica, Grenada, and Demerara (British Guiana) less than 2 per cent. In all the lesser Antilles taken together the whites cannot number more than 4 in 100 of the population, and the proportion of whites is diminishing.

The wage of laboring men throughout the islands is about twenty cents per day of our money—oftener less than more. What can a man buy for himself and family with twenty cents? Suppose that his wife earns as much as himself, and that they have three children—they cannot have a less number if the population of the island is kept good. The commonly reported and commonly received opinion is, that the African laborer of the West Indies lives, or may live, on the spontaneous productions of the bountiful soil and climate, by rooting around in the earth or plucking fruit along the roadway as he goes to and from his labor. The fact is, that the islands do not produce one-twentieth of the food necessary to keep the bodies and souls of these poor people together (*vide* Salmon's 'Crown Colonies of Great Britain'). Nineteen-twentieths must come from abroad, and mostly from the United States of America. Now the question recurs, what can a family of five get to live upon with 40 cents per day (supposing the man and woman have steady employment and no sickness), being obliged to bring the bulk of their food from New York and pay 30 per cent. duties on it—an interesting fact—in addition to freight and middlemen's profits? The corn laws of the West India islands are a greater shame than those of England in the last generation, because the poor negroes do not know what hurts them, and would not be able to better themselves if they did know.

It is said by well-fed people who take a cheerful view of the situation, that the West Indian negro is spared the expense of fuel, and that he needs very little clothing in that warm climate. It is true that the minimum of clothing suffices to protect the body. The very scantiest raiment consistent with decency is the type of all the islands. Nearly all, men, women, and children, go barefooted, and most of the older men show deformities, such as the loss of toes, resulting from the want of protection to the feet. As to fuel, I observed in all the market-places little piles of charcoal, about as much as would serve to boil a teakettle, which were offered at one cent per pile. Nobody bought more than a cent's worth, but when that calls for 5 per cent. of a man's total earnings it must be made account of. Give the American laborer all his fuel and clothing free, and then ask him to work for twenty cents per day—nay, compel him to do so or starve—and what would be the result?

What has brought this melancholy condition of things upon some of the fairest and richest portions of the earth's surface? The amount of wealth produced by these islands in the last two centuries is vast beyond imagination. Why are they now in the depths of poverty? Why are the landowners for the most part bankrupt, while their laborers are on a scale of diet that would be considered in Baxter Street the verge of starvation? This question is not to be answered in a hasty way and after a superficial glance. But it appears to me that if all the produce of a country, however rich its soil, were removed from it every year except just sufficient to sustain the lives of the cultivators and to induce them to rear children, so that there could be no growth of capital there, then if some untoward event, some revolution of industry, should take place, superseding or greatly depressing the chief and almost sole product of the country, the result would be about what is now witnessed in the Windward Islands. The absentee landlord has carried away the yearly produce and spent it in England or on the continent of Europe year after year, and generation after generation. Nothing has been left as a reserve fund. Worse than all, the absentee landlord has had little knowledge of his estate and little care for his laborers. His overseer or local representative has been under the necessity of getting the largest sum out of the property each year, and has not been compelled to make an intelligent forecast of the future from time to time, or able to put his ideas into practice if he should do so. Thus it has come about that sugar-growing is the sole reliance of most of the islands; cocoa is now grown to a limited but increasing extent on Grenada and Trinidad. Orange groves were cut down during the heyday of sugar to make room for cane. It is a fact most strange to the visitor from the United States that oranges cannot be procured among the islands in sufficient number to supply the tables of passing steamers. Our steward took out a supply from New York sufficient to last us to Santa Cruz. After that we went orangeless to Demerara. There we obtained a moderate supply, and a few more at Port of Spain, Trinidad, but we

could find none in the markets at Barbados, Antigua, Montserrat, or St. Kitts. The case was even worse as regards pineapples. One specimen of this delicious fruit was brought on shipboard at St. Kitts as a present to the Captain. Its aroma pervaded the whole cabin and excited the passengers with the expectation of a grand treat, for which they would have paid roundly and gladly, but not another pineapple could be "scared up" on the whole island, nor did we see another until we arrived at Demerara, 600 miles further south. This is mentioned by way of illustrating the utter want of diversified industry and the fatal monopoly of sugar-growing throughout the lesser Antilles.

Well, sugar has come to grief as a paying crop. Two pounds of it will not buy one pound of flour in any of the islands. The wholesale price of sugar is higher in Barbados than at any other port, because the facilities for shipment to foreign countries are greater there than elsewhere. At Barbados the price is $1.80 per 100 pounds, and no money is to be made either in raising or handling it. The absentee landlords are ruined, and the holders of mortgages on their estates are little better off. One of the best estates on Antigua was sold under mortgage while we were there "for a song." There is a universal wail among the whites, and a great outcry against the sugar bounties of Europe, and a great longing for annexation to the United States. The blacks know nothing about governments, either local or foreign, but they echo what they hear from the whites. A mulatto on the island of Montserrat, with marked Irish features and a pronounced brogue, said to me that he "would rather see the flag of New York flying over this island than the flag of Great Britain." He added that he had nothing to say against Great Britain, but that he believed New York would make business better for the people. The secret of the desire for annexation to the United States is that our customs duties on sugar would be thrown off as to the islands, and the price to the seller would be nearly or quite doubled. This is a consideration which overtops everything. There is no political ill-will toward Great Britain in the islands. Nor is there reason for any, unless it be that England, absorbed in affairs of greater moment, gives little heed to them, and allows them to drift whither they will. This is not a just cause for ill-will on the part of the handful of whites, for they constitute a tight monopoly of the Government on each island. The negro knows nothing about government except as he feels its restraining power now and then. If you were to talk to him about taxation, for instance, he would not understand you. An exception must be made of a few, a very few, educated mulattoes on each island, who are shrewd men of business, and are white men for all purposes except color.

The masses are sunk in deep, dense ignorance so far as social and economic laws are concerned. Would it be believed that the working classes of Demerara and Trinidad suffer themselves to be taxed to pay the cost of bringing coolies from Calcutta to compete against them in a labor market which yields wages of only 20 cents per day? This is what has been going on more or less for forty years and is still going on. Seven-tenths of the passage-money of every cooly "apprentice" brought out from India is paid out of the food-tax levied on the negroes of those colonies, and yet they make no complaint. They make no complaint of anything. They are kindly, docile, good-natured, universally polite, deeply religious, and grossly immoral, according to our standards. About 66 per cent. of the births are illegitimate—so I was informed by the Bishop of the northern islands, a robust and hearty and hard-working servant of God, who took passage on our steamer at Antigua, to visit his charges in the Virgin Islands. His explanation of this incongruity was that sufficient time has not yet elapsed since the régime of slavery, when every woman with African blood in her veins was at the command of some white man, and practically of any white man, to eradicate the ideas and customs bred by so gross a system. The negro is religious by nature, but he cannot as yet connect religion and morality together. This is the testimony of all the religious instructors whom I met. There is some progress, however, sufficient to warrant the belief that with a moderate degree of prosperity enabling them to live decently, so that a home life might spring up, more correct ideas concerning the virtue of women and the sacredness of marriage would prevail. At present there is no public opinion among them which condemns illegitimacy. It does not pass with them for a sin. Schools for children are, however, numerous and well attended, and no distinctions of color are allowed or thought of among the pupils.

THE COERCION BILL.

DUBLIN, April 9, 1887.

WE have now before us the text of the "Criminal Law Amendment (Ireland) Bill." As expounded by Mr. Balfour it sounded badly enough; in the columns of the newspapers it read worse; but in the official form, in eleven foolscap folio pages of leaded pica (how innocent the clear type and printing look!) the bill recalls Burke's definition of the Penal Laws: "a Machine of wise and elaborate contrivance, and as well fitted for the oppression, impoverishment, and degradation of a people . . . as ever proceeded from the perverted ingenuity of man." In sober truth, this is a cunningly devised instrument for the political degradation of Ireland. Severe as the bill appears, however, it may, if passed, be administered with timid leniency. But there it would stand, poisoning the relations between the classes and between the countries—an insult to all Irish men and Irishwomen.

To understand its scope, we must read it in connection with the "Whiteboy Acts" which it incorporates. To understand its possible effects, the instrumentality through which it would be administered must be considered. Such an act, applied to a free country during a period of local or sectional disturbance, would have numerous and weighty safeguards in its working which this act would not have in Ireland. Its application here would be in the hands of the Lord Lieutenant. He is independent of the pressure of Irish public opinion. He is generally more or less of a puppet, and, at all events, whether puppet or not (as was well shown in the case of Lord Spencer), is entirely dependent for information and policy upon those by whom he is surrounded at the Castle, for the most part permanent and irremovable paid officials, and upon the class here most opposed to the mass of the people. Next to slave-owners, or the descendants of slave-owners living among liberated slaves, it is doubtful whether elsewhere such contempt and suspicion were ever entertained by one section of society towards another as that which is here felt towards the people by the governing class. That class it is which formulates the opinion influencing the Lord Lieutenant. From that governing class the "resident magistrates" are drawn upon whose judgment would depend the application of the Act. Clause 11, section 6, it is true, provides that one on each bench "shall be a person of the sufficiency of whose legal knowledge the Lord Lieutenant shall be satisfied." What a comment the necessity for this clause is upon the administration of justice in Ireland! It is, however, pretty safe to say that not a single "resident magistrate" would be asked to go through a course of legal training, and not one would be dismissed for deficiency of legal knowledge. And, whether trained or not, they will breathe the same mental atmosphere, read the same newspapers, and be influenced by the same prejudices and considerations as those of the class against whom in the present Irish struggle the mass of the people are pitted. These "resident magistrates" are for the most part the needy scions or friends of wealthy or aristocratic families. They do not mean to be unjust; but they have not been subjected to any legal or mental training to fit them for their posts.

As to the bill itself, the application of which would lie with the Lord Lieutenant, it differs from all previous Coercion Acts, so far as I remember them, in that it would not be limited in time, but would be perpetual. Even where no one is charged with the commission of an offence, magistrates might compel the attendance of persons and hold an inquiry; witnesses not to be excused from answering any question on the ground that the answer may criminate or tend to criminate themselves; such crimination, however, not to be admissible against the witness in any proceeding, civil or criminal. Resident magistrates would be given summary jurisdiction in agrarian cases, and might inflict penalties up to six months' imprisonment with hard labor. Under the incorporated Whiteboy Acts, any twelve persons meeting together and not dispersing on the proclamation of a magistrate, or not dispersing when the magistrate has been prevented from making such proclamation, would be liable to six months' imprisonment with hard labor. The right of political combination and the liberty of the press would be handed over entirely to the Lord Lieutenant by the following sections, which render the following persons liable to six months' imprisonment with hard labor:

"Any person who shall take part in any criminal conspiracy to compel or induce any person or persons, either not to fulfil his or their legal obligation, or not to let, hire, use, or occupy any land, or not to deal with, work for, or hire any person or persons in the ordinary course of trade, business, or occupation; or to interfere with the administration of the law. . . . Any person who by words or acts shall incite, solicit or encourage or persuade any other person to commit any of the offences hereinbefore mentioned. . . . [Under the incorporated Whiteboy Acts] any person or persons who shall knowingly print, write, post, publish, circulate, send, or deliver, or cause or procure to be printed, written, posted published, circulated, sent, or delivered any notice, letter, or message, exciting or tending to excite any riot, tumultuous or unlawful meeting, or assembly, or unlawful combination or confederacy, . . . or directing or requiring any person to do or not to do any acts or to quit the service or employment of any person, or to let or to give up any land."

"It is a plain fact," writes the *Pall Mall Gazette*, "that once the bill is passed, no editor in a proclaimed district will be able to print or comment on any statistics as to the fall in prices without rendering himself liable to imprisonment (with hard labor) for six months, without a jury to try him." Offences declared legal under the Trades-Union Acts would be technically exempted from the operation of above clauses, though it is not clear where the line could be drawn. When desired by the Government, criminals would be tried before special, not ordinary juries. (Ordinary juries are taken from the average ratepayers: special juries from those who occupy premises above a certain value—in Dublin, of £50 rating or about £100 rent, corresponding, probably, to three or four times that amount in one of your business centres.) The venue could be changed to any other county or district than that within which the alleged offence has been committed; and in cases of murder and man-

slaughter, attempt to murder, violence against the person, arson, assaulting or injuring a dwelling-house, however such crime may be described in an indictment, the venue might, by the permission of the Attorney-General for England, be changed to England.

The Lord Lieutenant would be given the power to suppress "any association which he believes to be a dangerous association." He must, however, lay a copy of his proclamation before Parliament, if sitting, before seven days; and if Parliament were not sitting and were not to meet within twenty days, such proclamation would stand for only one week. One week would, however, be amply sufficient to cripple or break up any political association, and certainly no such proclamation would be issued unless with the approval of the Cabinet.

Such are the main provisions of the bill. There is little doubt that this bill, perhaps with some modifications, will be passed into law. The advocates of the measure are not likely to falter in their determination. What can the Opposition do? A powerful feeling may be aroused in England against the measure; with its promoters *Irish* public opinion is of no account. We shall have strong speaking by men like Mr. Morley, and strong writing in the *Pall Mall* and other papers; but what does that matter to the Government, so long as the Parliamentary majority is assured? They are pledged to make the experiment, to stand or fall by the issue, and they will hardly compromise themselves by retracing their steps. The present is different from other great party struggles regarding Ireland. Previous contests were, in the main, between a party that had a certain policy regarding Ireland and a party that had only the negative policy of letting her alone. We now have two parties depending mainly upon a distinct and definite Irish policy. The issue is more momentous than ever before. If Lord Salisbury succeed, we shall not have home rule, and his party will probably enjoy a long term of office. If Lord Salisbury fail, Mr. Gladstone will return to power and we shall have home rule. Neither party can flinch.

The bill has the warm approval of the upper class in Ireland, and, in the main, of the Protestant middle class. Its introduction tends to consolidate and strengthen the National party. Many who had withdrawn from active participation in the details of politics are now again earnestly coöperating in the movement. We cannot accept all the shibboleths of party; but, before such a bill as this, minor considerations are forgotten. Many who a year ago, under the sunshine of a home-rule viceroyalty, were beginning to bud out into Nationalists, have returned to their former proclivities; but men the tendency of whose lives and thoughts were National are more and more decidedly taking sides. The young generation of Protestants is very powerfully influenced towards nationality. The crisis is stimulating anti-Home-Rulers to unwonted exertions in the formation of associations, the collection of funds, the preparation and dissemination of literature. The open expression of their real sentiments regarding the majority of their countrymen will make their position in the country, upon the establishment of home rule, more difficult than it otherwise would have been. If home rule could have been suddenly obtained, these anti-Nationalists could have remained uncommitted by that full expression of their opinions in which they feel safe under the present régime.

On the National side in Ireland there is less bitterness; the position is being regarded with more good humor than at any previous similar crisis. This, of course, arises from the consciousness that we are now in alliance with a powerful English party, through whose assistance we are sure ultimately to win. There are in Ireland elements of disorder and unrest that will tax to the utmost the patience and statesmanship of any rulers, National or otherwise. The weight and influence of the National party desire to be on the side of law and order. Opposition to the bill does not arise from a love of misrule, but from the conviction that disorder can be effectually combated only by an Irish administration for Irish affairs, in accordance with the prejudices and sentiments of the people. The more the subject is carefully considered by liberal-minded Englishmen, the more they will learn that the tendency of such an administration would be surely, if perhaps slowly, towards the establishment of law and order here, and of an amicable and workable relation between the countries, while a coercive policy such as that proposed would have an opposite tendency. If the bill pass and be worked to the satisfaction of the ascendancy class, the middle class in England will be soon disgusted with the measure. If it be not worked to their satisfaction, the present movement will in time compel them to come to some settlement.

I have said nothing regarding the land proposals of the Government. So far as known, they are condemned by Mr. Parnell and by the National party. (It is well recollected that Mr. Parnell has never been belied in his condemnation of any measure relating to Ireland.) An effectual land bill from the Conservative party relying upon the support of the Irish Conservatives is more than we can expect. In any case, certainly no measures accompanied or preceded by coercive legislation can tend to the pacification of Ireland. The miserable hopelessness of the coercion policy must be becoming apparent to Englishmen. The cartoon in this week's *Punch* is very significant—Lord Salisbury, as Sisyphus, at full strain, pushing a huge "Irish problem" up a rocky height, and, underneath, the lines:

"Unending task . . .
Swift roll the years and still the ceaseless round,
The toilsome press up the precipitous ground,
The sullen slow ascent, the swift rebound."

D. B.

THE CONQUEST OF UPPER BURMAH.

LONDON, March 29, 1887.

THE course which events have taken in Upper Burmah has not fulfilled the official expectation. The war was entered upon in the confident assurance that the advent of British rule would be hailed with acclamation by the subjects of King Theebaw. This assurance rested upon a conviction—altogether mistaken, as events have shown—that English rule and English officialism were firmly rooted in the hearts and affections of the people of British Burmah. For a time, indeed, nothing occurred which ran counter to these comfortable opinions. Mandalay, the capital of Upper Burmah, was occupied on the 28th of November, 1885, only eleven days after the British troops had crossed their own frontier. The troops had encountered only the merest semblance of resistance. King Theebaw was deposed, and conveyed to British territory, without, so far as appeared, exciting his former subjects to either pity or anger. And on the 31st of December, 1885, her Majesty's Government informed Lord Dufferin that they "derived special gratification on learning from your Excellency that the British force was welcomed by the inhabitants of the country as a deliverance from past and existing evils, and as the prelude for the establishment of British rule, for which the people, according to the reports received from the commander of the expedition, evinced a genuine desire." This hallucination that any and every free people dwelling in the vicinity of British India is pining to be subjugated and annexed, is one which no amount of experience can eradicate from the bosom of the Anglo-Indian official. It is not of the slightest use for the threatened people to protest that they have no such desire. He waves aside all such protests as merely conventional forms of Oriental politeness He knows better; and he has, under any circumstances, a mission to humanity which he must discharge, whatever their own foolish and ignorant wishes may be. Upper Burmah, accordingly, was annexed, and almost immediately afterwards our troubles began.

What took the Indian Government most completely by surprise was that the most vehement protest against the extinction of the native dynasty in Upper Burmah arose from our own subjects in British Burmah. The deposition of King Theebaw was a signal for the outbreak of a fierce and bloody insurrection among the people whom we had been governing for thirty years—entirely to our own satisfaction. The fact of this insurrection was carefully and successfully concealed from the knowledge of Parliament and the British nation. It was said to be no more than an outbreak of "dacoity." Its real character, however, has been made known in a little book just published by Mr. Mackenzie Smeaton, an English civilian.

"While," he writes, "our army was far away north, on the Irawaddy, a real campaign—and a bloody one—was being prepared for us in the low country. The people do not want us any more than they did thirty years ago. They rose to throw off our yoke, and they are still carrying on a guerilla warfare against us. . . . It has frequently been said that there is no patriotism, no national sentiment among the Burmese. Those who know the country best will, I am convinced, hesitate to admit this. The inhabitants of Lower Burmah have undoubtedly prospered under our government. This they readily allow; but they never bargained for the overthrow of their ancient monarchy. They were proud to know that a Burmese King somewhere ruled a Burmese people; and the allegiance of their hearts was given to the King—not to the British Government."

Lower Burmah at this time was almost wholly denuded of troops, and so general was the revolt that Mr. Smeaton is of opinion that the Queen's Government would for a time have ceased to exist but for the timely appearance of a singular and unlooked-for ally. Among the many races which find a home in those mountains between which the Irawaddy River cuts a way to the sea is that of the Karens. By the Burmese they have always been despised and oppressed as a race of irreclaimable savages; and savages, in truth, they are, but with this peculiarity, that there survive among them traditions of a religion which they once possessed, and which bear a most astonishing resemblance to passages from the Old and New Testaments. It was, moreover, a general expectation cherished among these wild hillmen, at a period long anterior to the coming of the English, that a race of white men were the destined agents for restoring the knowledge of this ancient religion among them. Having this expectation to aid them, American missionaries—the successors of Dr. Judson—have preached Christianity among the Karen villages with a very large measure of success. The Karens have accepted their teaching, not, as in the case of other Asiatic converts, as involving a rupture with a cherished past, but as a recovery of it. So far as Christianity has spread, it has breathed a new life into these wild mountaineers.

"Once," writes Mr. Smeaton, "a village has embraced Christianity, it feels itself a head and shoulders above its neighbors, and all the energies of the people are at once employed in making the village worthy of the name. No labor, no expense are spared. The Christian village must be clean, healthy, neat; it must have the best school and the best church they can afford. Nothing will satisfy till all these are accomplished facts,

Money aid from the missionaries is not sought; the people do it all themselves—plan, contrive, carry out. They are proud of their new condition, and their zeal knows no bounds. Their children must be well dressed and educated, better tillers of the soil, better hunters, better foresters than their fathers, because they are now animated by a new spirit, fired with a new zeal, and their wits sharpened by education."

When the insurrection broke out in British Burmah, these Christianized mountaineers placed their services, *en masse* and without solicitation, at the disposal of the Government. They took the field, under the leadership of their tribal chiefs, and fairly suppressed the revolt by sheer hard fighting and persistent marching.

I have referred to this episode in the latest Burmese war, firstly, because it is almost unknown, and, secondly, because it shows that missionary labor in India is doing more for the consolidation of British rule than is the Government itself. These Karens have been altogether neglected by the English authorities. All places of public trust open to the native population were retained exclusively for Burmese. The Karens were deemed to be an ignorant, savage, and cowardly race, fit only to be hewers of wood and drawers of water. The fact, however, of a common religion ranged them on the side of the English when the more favored race had flung off their allegiance. And so it will be found to be throughout India. The only part of the people that is genuinely loyal to the British Crown—who, in other words, prefer British rule to any other that could be set up in its stead—are the Christian communities. Others may acquiesce in it as the best under the circumstances, but in the case of the native Christian it is the best possible. It is not creditable to the sagacity of Anglo-Indian administrators that they were so long in perceiving this—if, indeed, they do yet perceive it. They were not content to hold aloof from missionary labor: they actively discouraged it, and, till quite recently, subjected converts to Christianity to heavy legal disabilities.

In Upper Burmah, as in Lower, there can be little doubt that it was annexation which stirred up the resistance that we have found it so difficult and costly to overcome. Had we been content to select from the crowd of possible pretenders some other king in place of Theebaw, and to govern the country through him, the people would, in all probability, have concurred willingly enough in the new order of things. But they were not prepared, without a struggle, to be blotted out from the roll of independent people, and the physical features of their country rendered guerilla warfare as easy to them as it was dangerous and difficult for us. The population of Upper Burmah is not more than two millions, scattered over a vast area covering about one hundred thousand square miles. The Irawaddy is a huge drainage channel, running from north to south through the centre of this area, and on both sides of it the country is covered with dense, primeval forest, and seamed and cut to pieces by the innumerable streams which pour into the main river from the mountain ranges on either hand. With the exception of Mandalay, which is fed almost wholly on supplies from British Burmah, there are no centres of population by the occupation of which an invading army could obtain control over a large surrounding district. The villages, thinly scattered here and there, are self-supporting. Roads, as might be expected, there are none, and, when once the rains have set in, all locomotion is well-nigh impossible. The low-lying lands are then under water, and the streams which rush down the sides of the hills are transformed into swollen cataracts, presenting, in the absence of bridges and boats, an insuperable barrier to the movements of troops.

In addition to these natural difficulties, a not less formidable one existed in the extreme simplicity of the social system in Upper Burmah. Among the Burmese there are no nobles, no large landowners, no people of hereditary influence. The constituents of government consisted of the King and his officials. But the authority of these latter depended wholly upon the good-will and pleasure of the sovereign. An official was no sooner degraded than he sank at once into the general mass of the people. The consequence was that when King Theebaw was deported to Rangoon, the entire machinery of administration not simply fell out of gear, but was, as it were, annihilated. An English force nominally held possession of the country, but, scattered as this was over a multitude of isolated posts, and incapable of rapid movement, the influence of the different detachments did not extend beyond the range of their rifles. A new civil administration on the British model was organized at Mandalay, but it was found impossible to place the officials in possession of the districts they were appointed to superintend. These districts were, in truth, merely arbitrary divisions drawn on the map. The "dacoits," as we were pleased to call those ranged against us, moved where they pleased, attacked our posts whenever they thought they could do so with impunity, harassed and intercepted our trains, and were, in fact, masters of the country through all the summer and rainy season of 1886. In the autumn of that year we had (inclusive of military police) a force of forty thousand men collected in Upper Burmah, and Sir Frederick Roberts, the commander-in-chief, repaired to Mandalay to take the supreme command. With these ample means at his disposal, he has experienced little difficulty in dispersing the wandering bands of marauders. It remains to be seen whether, when the rains set in, they will not again collect and recommence their harassing operations.

That the Indian Government is apprehensive of this is seen by the fact that they do not intend to reduce the large force at present garrisoning Upper Burmah. The army of occupation is to be maintained at its full strength during the summer, and there still remain one-half of the territories of King Theebaw whither our influence has as yet hardly penetrated. This portion is known as the Shan States. The Shans are a people more civilized, more determined, and much more capable of united action than the Burmese. The desire of the Indian Government is to avoid all conflict with them. They do not wish to curtail their independence, but merely to obtain from the chiefs of the different States a formal recognition of the British Government as the paramount power. It remains to be seen if they will succeed in this. If they do not, the most arduous portion of the conquest of Upper Burmah has still to be undertaken. The Shan chiefs will not withhold the acknowledgment of British suzerainty unless they are prompted to do so by the Chinese officials in Yunnan, and can rely upon their support. The action of the Chinese has always been the unknown factor when the conquest of Upper Burmah has come under discussion. The fear of what they might do restrained Lord Dalhousie from annexing it at the close of the war of 1853. Should their influence now be cast in the scale against us, the acquisition of Upper Burmah will prove to be that of a white elephant indeed.

R. D. Osborn, Lieutenant-Colonel.

DUMAS ON VICTOR HUGO.

Paris, April 7, 1887.

For a long time the special audience which attends the receptions of the members of the French Academy had heard no interesting "Discours"; in order to create such an interest it was necessary that some criticism should be mixed with the classical and perpetual eulogy—that there should be some gall on the edge of the cup filled with honey. Alexandre Dumas's only speech of this sort had been on the day when he was himself received. It has just now happened to him in his turn to receive a new member, a poet, M. Leconte de Lisle. It was generally known that Dumas did not much appreciate the new school of poetry which goes under the name of the school of the Parnassians, and of which Leconte de Lisle may be said to be the head. He emerged from obscurity only a few years ago, though he was known and most admired in a small circle. I remember well seeing him in the year 1848, after the Revolution. He was pointed out to me as a great poet, but I confess that his verses left me very cold. I felt a little like the man who, after having heard a celebrated pianist, said to somebody who observed how difficult it was to play in such a fashion: "Difficult! I wish it were impossible!" I was unjust. I have since read verses of Leconte de Lisle's which may take a place in a French anthology. His celebrity may be said to be owing to one of these pieces, called "Midi."

Alexandre Dumas tells us, in his speech, that Victor Hugo was walking one day in the island of Guernsey, during his exile. A young French visitor recited to him the verses—

"Midi, roi des étés, épandu sur la plaine,
Tombe en nappes d'argent des hauteurs du ciel bleu.
Tout se tait. L'air flamboie et brûle sans haleine;
La terre est assouple en sa robe de feu."

"What are you saying?" inquired Victor Hugo, when he heard these verses which were not his own. The young visitor continued:

"L'étendue est immense et les champs n'ont point d'ombre;
Et la source est tarie où buvaient les troupeaux;
La lointaine forêt, dont la lisière est sombre,
Dort, là-bas, immobile en un pesant repos.
Seuls, les grands blés mûris, tels qu'une mer dorée,
Se déroulent au loin, dédaigneux du sommeil;
Pacifiques enfans de la terre sacrée,
Ils épuisent sans peur la coupe du soleil.
Parfois, comme un soupir de leur âme brûlante,
Du sein des épis lourds qui murmurent entre eux,
Une ondulation majestueuse et lente
S'éveille et va mourir à l'horizon poudreux."

I wish I could cite the whole piece. Victor Hugo recognized a brother poet, and his visitor recited to him all he knew by heart of Leconte de Lisle; told him who he was—how he had been born in the island of Réunion, in the Indian Ocean; how he lived in Paris, poor, independent, disdainful of money and even of glory. Victor Hugo took a volume which he had himself just published, wrote on it "Jungamus dextras," with his signature, and sent it to Leconte de Lisle. When he returned from his exile, and could again vote in the Academy, he gave persistently his solitary vote for him. Leconte de Lisle presented himself once, and had only the voice of Hugo, to whom he wrote on the same day: "You voted for me; I am elected." The election of Leconte de Lisle took place after the death of Victor Hugo, and may be considered as a last homage of the French Academy to our great poet.

Alexandre Dumas had to make a eulogy of Leconte de Lisle as well as of Victor Hugo. He rendered justice to the extraordinary powers of versification of the author of the trilogy of the 'Poèmes antiques; Poèmes barbares; Poèmes tragiques.' But he criticised the ethics of the Parnassian school. Leconte de Lisle is a Greek lost in our nineteenth century; he wrote in one of his prefaces:

"Since Homer, Æschylus, and Sophocles, who represent poetry in its vitality, in its fulness, and in its harmonic unity, barbarism has invaded the domain of the human mind. Artistically, the Roman world is on the level of the Dacians and the Sarmatians; the whole Christian cycle is barbarous. Dante, Shakspere, and Milton have only the force of their individual genius; their language, their concepticus are barbarous. The progress of sculpture was arrested with Phidias and

with Lysippus. . . . What remains of the centuries which followed the reign of Greece? Only a few powerful individualities."

Leconte de Lisle is at the same time a Greek and a Buddhist: his form is Greek, his verses are sculptural; his thoughts are imbued with a sort of Buddhist sadness and melancholy. He is a pessimist, a pantheist. Man was everything to Greece, and the Greek gods themselves were human. Man occupies but a small place on the modern Parnassus.

"You have," said Dumas to Leconte de Lisle, "been impassible, brilliant, and unalterable, like an antique mirror of polished silver; you have merely been a reflex of all worlds, facts, ages, external things. You do not wish the poet to speak to us of the things of the soul, too intimate or too vulgar. No more emotion, no ideal, no sentiment, no faith, no heart beatings, no tears. Your skies are deserted, your earth is silent, and you suppress in it what is the life of the universe—love, eternal love. Material nature, science, philosophy are enough for you. Certainly the firmament, the sun and moon, the stars, the ocean, the forests, divinities, monsters, animals, are interesting; but I also am interesting—I, the man."

Dumas compares the human soul to the famous *Agnès* of Molière. The innocent pupil of *Arnolphe* tells her old tutor, who wishes her to love him:

"Tenez, tous vos discours ne me troublent point l'âme;
Horace, avec deux mots, en ferait plus que vous."

These "deux mots" are precisely what Leconte de Lisle and his school would suppress.

In his judgment on Victor Hugo, Alexandre Dumas develops qualities which have surprised his greatest admirers. We knew him to be a dramatist, and, in a certain way, a moralist; he has shown himself a true critic. Leconte de Lisle's eulogy of Victor Hugo did not contain a single word on the Romantic school, not a word on Lamartine, on Musset. Dumas reminded him of the existence of these two poets, and professed his great admiration for them. He recited the beautiful verses of Lamartine:

"O Père qu'adore mon père,
Toi qu'on ne nomme qu'à genoux," etc.

He recited also the famous passage of Musset's:

"Celui qui ne sait pas, durant les nuits brûlantes
Qui font pâlir d'amour l'étoile de Vénus,
Se lever en sursaut, sans raison, les pieds nus,
Marcher, prier, pleurer des larmes ruisselantes,
Le cœur plein de pitié pour des maux inconnus," etc.,

and, comparing these spiritual effusions with the prayer of Hugo, "Ma fille, va prier," etc., he showed that the three poets were brothers, that they drew their inspirations from the same source, that they were neither atheists nor pantheists, that they believed in the soul and its immortality.

Referring to the first poems of Victor Hugo, M. Leconte de Lisle had said in his speech that Hugo at one time thought himself a monarchist and a Catholic. Dumas answered that Victor did not think himself such—that he really was what he said then; and he examined by what process of mind he ceased to be a Catholic and a monarchist. This part of his speech is a curious psychological study. He shows Victor Hugo writing at the age of eighteen admirable odes, "Moïse sur le Nil," the "Vierges de Verdun," and continuing during nearly seventy years to write poem after poem, drama after drama, novel after novel. He had a manifest destiny: he was made to write, to receive and to transmit impressions, as the river is made to flow. "Victor Hugo had the essential character of the sublime folly which science tries in vain to classify in its pathology; he had a fixed idea, which was simply this—he wished to be the greatest poet of his time and of his country, and, when he advanced in life, to be the greatest man of all countries and of all times." The unity which is not to be found in his acts or in his work will be found in his iron will. In his first volumes, in the "Odes et Ballades," in his earliest youth, he is never really in love: he knows neither Béranger's Lisette nor Lamartine's Elvire. He could say,

"Je suis maître de moi comme de l'univers."

When he begins to sing of love in his poems, you feel at once that he describes it and does not feel it. Dumas compares him to Jupiter, who sometimes condescended to take a human or an animal form. At the age of eighteen Hugo writes in one of his note-books: "I will be Chateaubriand, or I will be nothing." Chateaubriand had called him "un enfant sublime." At nineteen he writes, in the "Poète dans les révolutions,"

"La gloire est le but où j'aspire."

Dumas studies the development of the personality of Hugo, and says: "He could not tolerate being shut up in forms of government or religion that denied the right to say everything and the chance of being the first. He repudiated monarchy and Catholicism because, in these social and religious forms of the State, he would always and inevitably have had somebody over him. He would have accepted monarchy if he could have become king; he would have persevered in Catholicism if he could have become Pope, and united in himself the Pope and the Emperor, 'ces deux moitiés de Dieu,' as he says in 'Hernani,'"

But this is not all. Why did the figure of Napoleon have, for a long time, such an attraction for him? He had said that Homer was greater than Achilles; could he not, if he sang of Napoleon, become as great, perhaps greater? He first writes the famous "Ode à la colonne," the "Ode à l'arc de triomphe," etc. Later he compares his rock of Guernsey to the rock of St. Helena, and writes that posterity will place the thinkers above the actors, ideas above force. "Les traîneurs d'armées, Nemrod, Sennachérib, Cyrus, Ramsès, Alexandre, César, Bonaparte, tous ces immenses hommes farouches s'effacent." The poet remains alone, between heaven and earth, like Moses on Sinai, like Saint John at Patmos: "The poet is the priest; there is a pontiff on earth, the poet." Louis XIV. said "L'État, c'est moi." Hugo could have said: "Le génie, c'est moi." This popularity became a sort of religion after 1870; he was called "the master," "the father." When he died, a whole people followed his funeral. "Cæsar was put aside," said Dumas, "for his altar; a saint was dismissed to make room for him. [The Church of Saint-Geneviève, the patroness of Paris, was changed once more into a Pantheon.] A million of men accompanied the 'petit char des pauvres,' the last antithesis of the poet, with enormous cars covered with crowns."

Dumas reminded his auditors here that he had himself, with only six other men, followed Lamartine's coffin to the cemetery of Saint-Point; and that there were not more than thirty-three people, himself included, at Musset's funeral. He ended his brilliant discourse by a general description of Hugo's poetical work, comparing it to an immense edifice:

"I hear that many stones will fall from it; it is possible, it is true; but this edifice, which partakes of the Greek tempie, of the pagoda, of the mosque, of the feudal castle, of the Gothic cathedral, of the Oriental bazaar, of the palace of the Renaissance, round which have agglomerated peasants' huts and the houses of workmen and poor people—this edifice is so majestic, so picturesque, so singular, it is cut against the sky in such powerful masses, it has such gigantic vaults in which the wind is heard, it has such high walls flanked with such imposing towers, it has columns of such a pure marble, so many arcades of unexpected curves, . . . the bells of its enormous belfry, which ring the angelus or the tocsin, are made of such a noble metal, fill the air with such majestic waves, and wake such powerful and prolonged echoes in the vast plains and the immense forests which surround it and over which it towers, that you ask yourself at times if, as in the stories of the Middle Ages, God or devil has helped to build it."

Dumas has scandalized some by his criticism of Hugo, he has delighted others; he has astonished all by the unexpected development of his critical faculties. As a dramatist, he is always cutting and often pedantic and dry; as an orator, he has shown a height and a breadth of thought which have been a most agreeable surprise.

Correspondence.

THE CINCINNATI ELECTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In beginning the review of the week in your issue of the 7th instant, you said: "The recent municipal elections in Philadelphia, in Cincinnati, in Chicago, and Milwaukee are excellent illustrations of what can be done toward taking municipal government out of politics. . . ."

This statement is true, undoubtedly, of the three other cities, but I am sorry to have to say that you are mistaken about Cincinnati. Our municipal government is not likely to be taken out of politics until we have a newspaper which will not sacrifice our local interests on the altar of national politics. There was no revolt against either the Republican or Democratic Machine as such at our late election. The Republicans and Democrats each nominated, in the usual way, tickets no better than usual, and the palpable defects in these tickets were, in the usual fashion, whitewashed and denied by their party organs respectively. The labor organizations put forth an appalling ticket, for which their members were ordered to vote, and they did as they were bid. The remainder of our electors voted as they were directed by their respective party organizations and organs, except that probably a few reckless Democrats, realizing late in the day that it was impossible to elect their ticket, voted for the labor candidates. That is the whole story.

The result proved nothing, except that the labor organizations of this city contain more Democrats than Republicans. As for any organized breaking down of party lines, in aid of good government, no such thing has been known here since the days before the *Commercial* and *Gazette* threw overboard their occasional independence to issue a joint party organ for revenue only; and no such deliverance can come to us without the aid of an independent newspaper, which Cincinnati has not. C. B. Willey.

Cincinnati, April 10, 1887.

ARCHÆOLOGY IN THE MEDITERRANEAN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a letter printed under the above title in the *Nation* of October 28, 1886, Mr. W. J. Stillman, while strongly recommending that excavations should be undertaken in southern Italy, discourages an archæological expedition to the Cyrenaica. Mr. Stillman's assertions are made so positively that we should hardly dare to dispute his conclusions, were it not that we have just made an exploration of these very regions with the object of reconnoitring the archæological field and settling the question of accessibility.

The Italian Government, we are told, is most cordially disposed to researches in archæology, and would no doubt materially aid the American Institute in its work. But in our case, at least, the Italian Government has done its utmost to prevent the examination of any site in Magna

Græcia by excavation, even when an application was supported by the owners of the land concerned, and contained the provision that no part of the antiques discovered should be removed from the country.

The case in point was as follows: Digging was undertaken by us at the expense of the Institute, on the site of the great temple of Hera Lacinia, near Croton, last January. This work was begun with the full permission of the local authorities, not in the hope of treasure-trove, but solely for scientific ends. It was presently brought to a close through the direct intervention of the Italian Ministry of Public Instruction—fortunately not before the main objects in view had been attained. The official mandate was carried out with a rigor which could leave no doubt as to the temper of those in power. The objects discovered were taken from a house of a landowner situated within the sacred enclosure, flung into the trenches which had been dug to determine the extent of the edifice, and covered with earth. Among these objects were exceedingly important fragments of the gable sculptures of the temple which it had been our good fortune to bring to light. The vandalism of this act on the part of those at the head of archæology in Italy requires no comment.

In the Cyrenaica, on the other hand, although not "protected by a considerable body of troops," but careful to avoid injudicious pretensions to political significance, we made excursions, both by land and water, entirely unmolested. Representatives of four races showed an equal eagerness to facilitate archæological work, however unauthorized. Cyrene itself, the most remote of the five great cities of the country, lies only eight miles from the sea, and districts much further inland may be visited safely with the customary escort of a single Turkish zaptieh. Indeed, Christian natives generally dispense with such a guard altogether. Your correspondent is, however, quite right in stating that nothing serious can be undertaken without the consent of the Sublime Porte; for, contrary to his assumption, the Arabs are submissive to the Turkish rule throughout the entire vilayet. There is every reason to believe that the Porte would grant a concession for excavation, and the removal of objects thereby discovered, to representatives of a Power from which she has to fear no political designs. It is true, the material difficulties offered to investigation by the remoteness and uncultivated character of the country are immense, but these very circumstances have preserved to us, in the Cyrenaica, a field for archæological discovery incomparably richer than any other province of the ancient world.

JOSEPH THACHER CLARKE.
ALFRED EMERSON.

CRETE, March, 1887.

COMPOSITION OF THE NEW REICHSTAG.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A recent number of the *Berliner Tageblatt* contains a series of statistical statements regarding the composition of the new Reichstag which may, perhaps, be of interest to your readers. First as to the age of the members. The average of all parties taken together is, in 1887, fifty-three years five days, which is a little more than a year above the average of the last Reichstag, chosen in 1885. Of the leading parties, the German Liberals have relatively the fewest old men; 16 per cent. of them are above sixty years of age. On the other hand, 32 per cent. of the National Liberals belong in this category. Of the Centre, 70 per cent. are above fifty years of age. Particulars as to the Conservatives are not given.

In 1885 37 per cent. of the members belonged to the nobility; in 1887, 33 per cent. Of the Poles, 83.3 per cent. are of this class; of the Conservatives, 70 per cent.; of the Centre, 80.5 per cent. The "high nobility," that is, barons, etc., has 33.5 per cent.; the simple *von's*, 46.5 per cent. The Centre has twenty-six members of the former rank to four of the latter; among the eleven "noble" National Liberals is only one of the deeper blue; among the German Liberals is but a single member from the nobility.

Of greater interest for American readers will probably be the classification according to occupations. Here it is possible to make comparisons with our own legislatures, and striking differences are to be noted; as, for example, in the number of lawyers. So far, however, as legal training is concerned, it must be remarked that the "public officials" are to a large extent jurists. This is true, almost without exception, of bureau *chefs* in all departments, mayors, *Landräthe*, and so forth. German *Beamtenthum* is, of course, a more comprehensive term than our "civil service." Our nearest equivalent for the *Landrath* is, perhaps, the presiding officer of the board of supervisors of a county. If not originally appointed, he must at least be confirmed, by royal patent. As for mayors, the election by the city council is subject to royal confirmation, which may be refused on political grounds. The classification according to party and occupation is as follows:

Party.	Clergymen.	Landowners and Farmers.	Merchants and Manufacturers.	Physicians.	Public Officials.	Authors, Editors, etc.	Professors and Teachers.	Rentiers.	Lawyers.	Others.
Ger. Liberals...	—	5	8	—	5	4	3	2	2	2
Centre.....	13	34	12	1	20	2	4	7	3	2
Conservatives.	2	42	3	—	31	—	1	—	—	1
Nat'l Liberals..	—	22	30	4	24	1	6	4	5	—
Imperialists*...	—	19	7	—	12	—	1	1	—	—
Els.-Lothring'n	3	1	7	2	—	1	—	1	—	—
Soc. Democrats	—	—	8	—	—	2	1	—	—	—
Poles.....	—	10	1	—	—	—	—	1	—	—
Scattering.....	—	5	1	1	5	—	—	—	—	—
Totals.....	18	138	77	8	97	10	16	16	10	5

Under "landowners and tenants" is to be understood the interest of large landownership. Adding the seventeen possessors of great estates among "public officials," the "agrarian party" rises to 39.2 per cent. No comfort for American wheat-growers and live-stock men here.

The *Tageblatt* is an organ of the German Liberal party, which lost about half its strength in the recent elections. It classes the Centre, Conservatives, National Liberals, and Imperialists together, as being conservative in fact, and comprising 79.5 per cent. of the Reichstag. It would be a pity not to give its last sentence in the original: "Für Staatsmänner die hauptsächlich das Autoritätsprincip vertreten und den 'Unterthan' hübsch unten halten wollen, muss es eine Lust sein, ein Volk zu regieren, das solche Vertreter wählt."

G. H. HARROWER.

HALLE, April 5, 1887.

*A wing of the Conservative party.

PSYCHIC PLAGIARISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: People have been talking a little, and writers, as usual, expatiating on the bold plagiarism lately perpetrated by H. Rider Haggard, in his recent Lytton + Ebers + Poe extravaganza entitled 'She.' But a far grosser case, it seems to me, is the following:

The Vanity and Insanity of Genius, by Kate Sanborn. New York: George J. Coombes. 1886.

Victor Hugo possibly exceeded all others when, in his poem "L'année Terrible," he paints with startling rhetoric the possibility that God may at last be found to have deceived us all along; that the moral cosmos may be reduced to a chaos, and man, the sport of destiny, expire in a ruined universe. And this is the central point, the idea which stands out for our strength and solace, that Hugo himself may be relied upon to chase and catch the recalcitrant Deity, and to overawe Him by the majesty of his personal appearance and the eloquence of his rebuke. "I shall go for him," is the first statement.

"J'irais, je le verrais et je le saiserais
Dans les cieux, comme on prend un loup," etc.
(Pages 42, 43.)

Essays Modern, by F. W. H. Myers. Second edition. London: Macmillan & Co. 1885.

In one of the last poems of *L'Année Terrible*, M. Hugo paints at great length and with startling rhetoric the possibility that God may at last be found to have deceived us all along — that "the moral cosmos may be reduced to a chaos," and man, the sport of destiny, expire in a ruined universe. What, then, is the central point of this poem? What is the idea which stands out for our strength or solace from this profusion of rhetoric and metaphor? It is—I blush with shame for M. Hugo in writing it down—it is that M. Hugo himself may be relied upon to chase and catch the recalcitrant Deity like a wolf in the forest, and to overawe Him by the majesty of his personal appearance and the eloquence of his rebuke.

"J'irais, je le verrais, et je le saiserais
Dans les cieux, comme on prend un loup," etc.
(Pages 160, 161.)

Now is not this a pretty dark showing against the obscure English essayist, Mr. Myers? To be sure his book was printed the year before Miss Sanborn's; but as it were ungallant to suppose a lady capable of such piracy, this trifling chronological fact only proves that Mr. Myers must be a more than ordinarily skilful plagiarist. And if by some occult theosophic trick of mind-reading or astral-bodying he can steal Miss Sanborn's thoughts and style of expression a year before she confides them to paper, what is to prevent this impudent Britisher doing the same to other inspired Americans? Indeed, if this goes unpunished, may we not expect to see Mr. Myers and kindred pirates printing Howells's new novels, or possibly—ye gods forefend!—even Joseph Cook's lectures, long before the luckless authors can evolve them? Protection, therefore, and national legislation tending thereto are unquestionably the imperative need of the hour.

HENRY W. AUSTIN.

MEDFIELD, MASS.

TRANSFORMATION OF SURNAMES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There are two instances of transformation of surnames that have come to my notice that seem worthy of a place in your already valuable collection. Both instances are of a change from the French, which seems to furnish the greater number of these cases. A Frenchman named *Le Sayre*, because his name was unpronounceable by Yankees, changed it to *Saul*, which came nearest to it of any name he could find in "the Big Book." Another family, named *L'Arrivée*, has for convenience sake become *Cummings!*

J. W. SUTER.

WINCHESTER, MASS., April 14, 1887.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As the *Nation's* columns seem likely to be consulted hereafter as a record on this subject, you may think it worth while to print the following facts, although I sent them some years since to a Boston daily paper.

It is well known that families in the eastern part of Virginia who spell their name Eorought are always spoken of as Darby. I was assured by a Virginian that the families in question were quite ignorant of the origin of this extraordinary state of things. Some years afterwards, the late Bishop of Gibraltar, who took much interest in such matters, confessed to me that it was the most remarkable case he had heard of, but added that he happened to be able to do something towards explaining it. Having married a lady from County Clare, he knew that some families named Enright or Enraght had gone thence to the United States some genera-

tions since; that they belonged to the religious sect of Derbyites (*Darbyites*), and were often insulted in the streets by cries of "Old Darby."

Why Mr. Enroughty, when he grew tired of pronouncing his name differently from the rest of the world, persisted in spelling it in a way no one in the world would hit upon, is and must remain a mystery. A. D.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A correspondent in your issue of April 7 gives us a notice of the curious change of the Lithuanian-Jewish *Yitshak* (Isaac) into the English Hitchcox. The most curious part of it all is that Hitchcox, Hickok, and a dozen other like names all probably stand for Isaac. Ike, Hyke, and other similar country nicknames take the diminutive termination in *ock* and become finally transformed—past ready recognition. So Luke becomes Luckock, Jacob Jacox, Henry (Hank) Hancock, and so on.

Let me add here, if not strictly pertinent, that the third part of the 'New English Dictionary,' under the entry "Bêche de mer," follows the other dictionaries in saying that it literally means "sea-spade." True enough; but it is equally true, and more important, that it is simply a corruption of the Portuguese *bicho do mar*, or "sea-worm." C. W. G.

Philadelphia, April 9, 1887.

Notes.

D. Appleton & Co.'s forthcoming books include 'An Index to the Works of Shakspere,' containing some novel features, by Evangeline M. O'Connor; 'Proverbs from Plymouth Pulpit,' selections made with Mr. Beecher's sanction, and partly revised by him; 'Public Debts: An Essay in the Science of Finance,' by Prof. Henry C. Adams; 'Teaching English,' with detailed examples, by Alexander Bain; 'The Ventilation and Warming of School Buildings,' by Gilbert B. Morrison; 'Principles of Education Practically Applied,' by J. M. Greenwood; and 'Elementary Psychology and Education,' by James Baldwin.

Frederick Warne & Co. have nearly ready an illustrated volume, 'The Queen, her Early Life and Reign,' and a 'Victoria Birthday Book,' illustrated with portraits of the Royal Family.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. publish immediately 'The Blind Brother,' by Homer Greene.

Laughton, Macdonald & Co., Boston, are about to issue the fourth volume of Halkett and Laing's 'Dictionary of Anonymous and Pseudonymous Literature,' thus completing the work, whose authors no longer survive.

'The Order of Words in the Ancient Languages Compared with the Modern,' by Henri Weil, translated by Prof. C. W. Super, will be published in June by Ginn & Co.

D. C. Heath & Co. announce 'Notes on the Early Training of Children,' by Mrs. Frank Malleson.

'Organic Analysis: a Manual of the Descriptive and Analytical Chemistry of Certain Carbon Compounds in Common Use,' by Albert B. Prescott, is in the press of D. Van Nostrand.

The third and final volume (for this year) of the Dunlap Society is Mr. Laurence Hutton's admirably annotated 'Opening Addresses, written for and delivered at the first performances in many American theatres, from Boston to San Francisco, A. D. 1752-1880.' There are more than forty of these addresses, and they are of very varying literary value, but of most indubitable interest. The frontispiece of the collection is a facsimile, printed in blue, of a blue-china plate giving a view of the old Park Theatre.

Few words are needed for the praise of the new Riverside edition of Browning's Works in six volumes (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The two already issued include the Dramatic Lyrics and Dramatic Romances, with "Pauline," "Paracelsus," "Strafford," "Sordello," "Pippa Passes," etc. A fine portrait of the poet accompanies the first. The beautiful typography is condensed but clear, while the page form and the dull olive binding have been carefully and most satisfactorily thought out. At the end we shall have, we are assured, indexes of the contents and of first lines.

The same firm send us a third edition of Dr. Beardsley's 'Life and Correspondence of Samuel Johnson, D.D.,' a timely issue in view of the recent centennial of Columbia College, whose first President Dr. Johnson was.

A second edition has been reached of the 'Report of Commemorative Services with the Sermons and Addresses at the Seabury Centenary, 1883-1885' (James Pott & Co.), a volume of considerable ecclesiastical and historic interest.

Mr. Ernst E. Lemcke's 'Skat' has met with such success as to warrant a second edition, styled 'An Illustrated Grammar of Skat' (B. Westermann & Co.), revised and greatly enlarged, with rubricated title, illustrations, and even a bibliography of this German game of cards. A literary interest is imparted to the contents by a translation from Fritz Reuter's 'Ut mine Stromtid,' describing a Low German card party—a "Boston party"—kept up "until the Rector, making a rough guess at the amount of money he had after all won, and finding that it was about 3 Thalers and 8 Groschen, and since of late luck had been somewhat against him, concluded to stop, rose and said that his feet were cold, putting his booty in his pocket."

'The Annual Statistician for 1887' (San Francisco: L. P. McCarty), contains, as usual, a number of new features for which room has been made by the omission of some things which it is not worth while to publish every year. Probably the most valuable of the new matter in this year's issue is the comparative statistics of the seventeen leading cities of the country. The tables under this head show the number of votes registered and polled in 1886, the number of voting precincts, the strength of the police and militia forces, the number of fire engines, etc., and of firemen, the loss by fires, the value and capacity of the gas and water works, the number and character of the street lights, the vital statistics, the number of murders, suicides, and executions, the length of street railways operated by each sort of motive power, the telegraph and telephone mileage, the number of saloons, the cost of licenses for the sale of intoxicating liquors, the school population and the amount expended for schools in 1886, the annual tax-rate, revenue, and expenditure, the public debt, and the names of the principal municipal officers. The annual publication of the latest attainable statistics, upon the subjects mentioned, for the principal cities of the country would add an extremely useful feature to the 'Statistician.' In future publications it will be possible, we trust, to submit the statistics, received as it is stated these were, from the city officials, to independent criticism by persons well posted upon the details of the municipal governments of the cities in which they live. In this way the danger of making serious errors, several of which we notice in the tables of this year's issue, will be reduced to a minimum.

'Isaac Bickerstaff,' from the *Tatler;* Landor's 'Gebir, and Count Julian'; and Lodge's 'Rosalind,' extend the series of little volumes in Henry Morley's "Cassell's National Library."

The *Westminster Review* succumbs to the spirit of the age and turns monthly, putting on a new and attractive cover, and making altogether a very handsome appearance (International News Co.). It now enlists in its regular service a number of writers on this side the water, beginning with our new Minister to Turkey, who describes the development of religious liberty in America. It will still preserve anonymity in general, but with provision of an "Independent Section" in which articles may or may not be signed, at the writers' option. It will labor consistently for the Liberal cause, and will not be a mere "platform" for chance-assorted essayists.

Among the Shelley scholars who are delivering sentence on the poet's conduct toward his first wife, in view of the Dowden biography, is Mr. J. A. Symonds, who writes to the April *Fortnightly* to the effect that he does not accept the defence that Shelley believed his wife unfaithful before he united himself with Mary Godwin. He thinks that Shelley formed the suspicion afterwards, and clung to it. Every one must have his say over "the blood eagle" of the Dead Prophet (if a reference to Tennyson is intelligible or pardonable in these later days), and we have had ours.

The *Manchester Quarterly* (John Heywood) is a publication of the Literary Club of that city, and is a very creditable one. Mr. Alexander Ireland, whose name is favorably known in this country, contributes a list of books for popular reading, in imitation of the lists of the one hundred best books so numerous of late, but his list comprises many hundreds. It shows distinctly individual prepossessions, but is on the whole a wise and conservative guide. The American department is not without its curiosities; we note "H. D. Howells," the novelist, and "Cable (Negro Life)"; Holmes's poetry. Aldrich, Higginson, and others of note are apparently unknown; the Authors' Club of this city suffers an eclipse well-nigh total; but not so Miss Wetherell and Henry Giles. In fact, the American list is a curious *mélange* of the established reputations and literary mistakes of the last age, with a scattering and uncertain selection of doubtful names of the present. The French and German departments are similarly highly classic, and, with regard to modern days, incomplete. An admirable comical skit on Browning's last volume, and one or two articles of literature and travel, are the only other noticeable features of the April number of the *Quarterly*.

The *American Magazine* (New York: Bush & Son), successor to the *Brooklyn Magazine*, opens with a varied list of contents of a popular character. Mr. W. H. Rideing attempts to do for the Boston literati the questionable service lately rendered by Mr. G. P. Lathrop to his brothers of the quill in this city; but the personal element is comparatively slight, while the un-Bohemian literary life of the young Bostonians is naturally the most striking thing about them in the eyes of an émigré from Union Square, as Mr. Rideing is. Mr. J. T. Trowbridge contributes some reminiscences of his early struggles in literature, in the course of which he describes old Major Noah in a very life-like way and much to his honor.

Our friends of the Audubon Society would do well to copy, from the April *Auk*, portions of Mr. W. E. D. Scott's paper on the "Bird Rookeries of Southern Florida." The writer had been over the ground six years before, when these rookeries were densely populated; but meanwhile the feather fashion for ladies' bonnets at the North had set in, and the result has been little short of extermination. "Birds were killed, and the plumes taken from the back, head, and breast, and the carcass thrown to the buzzards." One man "regularly employed from forty to sixty gunners, furnishing them with all supplies, and giving so much a plume or *flat skin*, for all the birds most desirable." The prices range from twenty cents to two dollars and a half.

Some very interesting notes on Monachus tropicalis, a rare West Indian seal inhabiting the islands known as the Triangles, a hundred miles northwest of Yucatan, are given by Mr. Henry L. Ward in the March number of the *American Naturalist*.

In the *Canadian Entomologist* Dr. H. A. Hagen discusses with characteristic geniality a serious subject—a new library pest, bearing the very innocent name of Lepisma domestica, and which, unlike the Anobium, is very fond of starch. At the same time, Dr. Hagen cannot forbear to renew his warning against the white ant, which both devours the books and brings down the library roof when its attacks on the timbers of a building have gone far enough.

The management of the *American Journal of Philology* gives notice that only fifty-six complete sets remain in the publisher's hands. The price of the seven volumes (now $19) will be advanced after the present year. Applicants should address Prof. B. L. Gildersleeve, Baltimore.

There lies before us the first number of Dr. Daniel Sanders's monthly *Zeitschrift für Deutsche Sprache* (Hamburg: J. F. Richter). It gives every promise of being what our lexicographer contemplated, a veritable continuation of his 'Deutsches Stil-Musterbuch.' It opens, after an Introduction, with a reiteration of Dr. Sanders's agreement with Du Bois-Reymond's opinion, that Goethe in the fundamental qualities of style is in general no model; this being prefatory to a reprint, with great fulness of comment, of Goethe's "Der Sammler und die Seinigen"—which space alone prevented Dr. Sanders from inserting in his 'Stil-Musterbuch.' In this and in similar cases he intends to substitute German equivalents for the foreign words and phrases of the original, in order by means of foot-notes to emphasize the sufficiency of the vernacular. Prof. A. Ledebur has an article on the avoidance of foreign words in the industrial vocabulary. Another relates to the grammatical errors often committed by good writers.

The Massachusetts Historical Society has published an Index of the first series of its Proceedings, numbering twenty volumes and including the years 1791-1883. For its accuracy the fact that it has been prepared under the supervision of Mr. C. A. Cutter of the Boston Athenæum is a sufficient guarantee. The chief criticism which we have to make is, that in the endeavor to be exhaustive the compiler has overburdened the index with numerous entries of the most trivial importance, thereby unnecessarily increasing the size of the volume, with a proportionate diminution of the ease of reference to it.

The 'Catalogue of the York Gate Library' (London: Murray) is a sumptuous volume, richly illustrated, of the geographical collection of Mr. S. W. Silver. This library contains about 5,000 volumes, principally in English, and is especially strong in the collections of early voyages and works relating to the British colonies, but has comparatively few books about this country. The titles in the catalogue are arranged chronologically according to subjects, and references are made to all important papers in the various society publications. There are also indexes of subjects and authors, so that the catalogue, though not very scientifically constructed, will prove extremely useful as a bibliographical handbook of geography.

Mr. Bernard Quaritch appears to have a genuine grievance in that, having purchased of Col. Chester's executor his transcript of the Westminster marriage licenses, at a high figure, supposing them to be unique, the executor sells a copy at a reduced figure to the Harleian Society, thereby preventing a sale to the Society on Mr. Quaritch's part, and producing a rival publication.

A new title has been added to Bohn's Classical Library, in a translation in two volumes of Pausanias's Description of Greece, by Arthur Richard Shilleto of Cambridge (Scribner). It is surprising, when one looks over the list of translations in this library, to see how meagre and inadequate it is—apart from the quality of the translations, which, in the earlier volumes, has in many cases ranked very low. The appearance of the present work, which may be assumed to represent the present high standard of Cambridge scholarship, leads us to hope that others of the less known, but none the less indispensable, authors—as Polybius, Dio Cassius, the *Scriptores rei rusticæ* and *historiæ Augustæ*—will be in time added. It would have been too much to expect a commentary on Pausanias (a work of enormous labor), but it seems a pity that a moderate number of critical notes were not added; enough at least to show the student in what instances the translator has abandoned the Teubner text and adopted "a reading that seemed preferable from any other source."

A 'Bibliothèque de Carabas' is announced in London by Mr. David Nutt (New York: Scribner & Welford), of which the first volume is to be the 'Marriage of Cupid and Psyche,' from the 'Golden Ass' of Apuleius, Englished by William Adlington (1556), and now reëdited by Mr. Andrew Lang, with a discourse on the fable by the editor, with two full-page plates and various head and tail-pieces, and with introductory verses by Mr. Frederick Locker, Mr. W. H. Pollock, and Mr. Lang himself. The ordinary edition is limited to 550 copies, and there will be also sixty large-paper copies.

In 1879 M. Victor Fournel published a solid and abundantly illustrated volume on 'Les Rues du Vieux Paris' (Paris: Firmin-Didot & Cie.); and he has now issued another book closely akin to this in subject and style, 'Le Vieux Paris: Fêtes, jeux et spectacles' (Tours: Alfred Mame et fils; New York: F. W. Christern). In the fourteen well-illustrated chapters of this substantial work M. Fournel considers the mysteries, fairs, minor theatres, puppet-shows, magicians, acrobats, "freaks," trained animals, and "side-shows" of all sorts, from the Middle Ages to the present time; and in the course of his entertaining rambles he sheds not a little light on many points of minor interest in the history of the French theatre.

A publication interesting to book-lovers, and especially to those who are trying to collect the works of what has been called *la génération de 1830*, is the 'Causeries d'un ami des livres' (Paris: Édouard Rouveyre). Nine numbers have already appeared, and the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth are promised for next September. It is an anonymous publication, but it is whispered that it is the work of M. Léopold Derome, a frequent contributor to *Le Livre*. The first five numbers are devoted to 'Les Éditions originales des Romantiques,' poets, prose writers, the *petits Romantiques*, the Romantic sects and *La Bohême*, the works of Heine and of Gérard de Nerval. The sixth number is entitled 'Services rendus par Charles Nodier à la conservation des livres,' and the seventh, 'Les Ennemis des livres.' In the eighth the writer discourses very pleasantly about Sainte-Beuve, the man, the apostle of Romanticism, the book-lover. But he cannot forgive him his abjuration of his old literary creed, any more than he can pardon his unchristian burial or that of Victor Hugo. The last number is about the historians of the Romantic school, Mérimée and Augustin Thierry. To be logical, M. Derome would have to include Henri Martin and Michelet, but probably he would think that their abjuration of what he calls "la forme laïque du catholicisme" was of too serious a nature to entitle them to be classed among the true *Romantiques*.

Hetzel-Quantin (New York: Christern) have published a neat volume, 'L'Œuvre de Victor Hugo.' The first thought that occurs on seeing this title is that it may be the same book that was published just at the time of Hugo's death, under the title 'L'Œuvre complète de Victor Hugo,' but a careful examination shows that this is not the case. Both contain extracts, but the later ones differ materially from the first, and are more numerous. The new volume, by the care with which the selections are made, deserves its name of "Édition des Écoles." Victor Hugo has everything to gain by being presented in extracts skilfully chosen. The present collection shows him at his best, and gives an excellent idea of the broadness and variety of his work, both in prose and verse.

The Report of the Chief Procurator of the Synod upon the Orthodox (Russian) faith, for 1884, has just been published, and furnishes some curious facts. In the Western Governments and Poland, the official religion of the inhabitants is Orthodox, while their real faith is Catholic. Certain privileges were conferred on the Raskolniki (the upholders of the ancient unrevised versions of religious works), by the law of May 3, 1883, and this was accepted as a sign that the authorities were beginning to recognize the legality of the sect. The leaders expect to see the Raskolniki placed on an equality with the State Church before long, and this has emboldened them in some quarters to oppress the members of the authorized faith, while complaining, in many instances, that they are still grievously oppressed. It is not stated in just what their persecution of Orthodox believers consists, but it is principally directed against converts from the sect to the established faith. In consequence, there has arisen a feeling which is unconditionally opposed to every grant of privileges to this overbearing sect.

Applications for the twenty annual scholarships offered by the Johns Hopkins University (worth $500 each, plus free tuition) should be addressed to the *President of the Johns Hopkins University —Application for Fellowship;* and they must reach the Registrar's office not later than nine o'clock, Monday, May 2, 1887. For the return of manuscripts the requisite postage should be sent. Every candidate is expected to submit his college diploma or other certificate of proficiency from the institution where he has been taught, with recommendations from those who are qualified to speak of his character and attainments. He must also submit, orally or in writing, such evidence of his past success in study and of his plans for the future, together with such examples of his literary or scientific work, as will enable the professors to judge of his fitness for the post.

—The Boston Museum of Fine Arts has published a descriptive catalogue of the casts from Greek and Roman sculpture which belong to the Museum—a small collection, but well chosen and fairly well lighted and shown. Mr. Edward Robinson, the newly appointed curator of classical antiquities, is one of the younger group of archæologists who unite German thoroughness to a wide sympathy for artistic expression of many kinds, which is not so peculiarly German. Much is to be expected of our museums if they are put into such hands, as they will be little by little. We accept with gladness this catalogue and manual as a first-fruit of the season to come. It is a book to study before visiting the collection, and to study more carefully afterwards—a really serious inquiry into the characteristics of each work of sculpture, with a history of it and a memorandum of the restorations that it has un-

dergone. All of this may be done, however, without other originality than that of hard and well-directed work—at least, it is only now and then that a point can be said to be newly made; and therefore we hasten to say that the tone of criticism seems to be just and discriminating throughout. To judge of the quality of this handbook, read the notices of the Hermes of the Belvedere and the Hermes of Andros, Nos. 91 and 92. The student of these statues needs the help of the critic, and the needed help is given here in excellent form. Everywhere in the book perfunctory remarks are extremely rare, and little is said that could be spared. There is an index which seems a good one, though it would be well to have the sculptures mentioned under the places of discovery or places of exhibition; thus, the Apollo (?) of Thera we should like to find under Thera, in case we don't believe it an Apollo and have looked in vain under Athlete, Gravestatue, Tomb-statue, and the like. So of the above-mentioned Belvedere Hermes: travellers of a few years ago knew it as the Belvedere *Antinous*, absurd as it seems to us now. A mention of it under Belvedere of the Vatican would help such antiquated persons.

—In the goodly brotherhood of American public libraries there are "poor relations" who can hardly maintain the struggle for existence, and again well-housed, well-endowed institutions, entertaining the most benevolent feelings towards the weaker kind. The two classes are sharply discriminated in the rural parts of New England according as the movement to found a library has been more or less spontaneous and feeble, or some wealthy resident or native of the town has suddenly bestowed upon it quite its most beautiful and imposing building, perhaps designed by Richardson, with a sufficient fund to insure its comfortable support and growth. To the latter class belongs the Nevins Memorial Library of Methuen, Mass., an institution founded by the late David Nevins—or, rather, contemplated by him, and actually built and endowed by his widow and sons. They have not only provided a building, after designs by Mr. S. J. F. Thayer, worthy to rank with the best of the minor public libraries, and filled it with 10,000 volumes, but have borne the expense of a catalogue which can hardly have an equal in its degree. This work, in two imperial octavo volumes of about 1,000 pages, with broad margins and open and elegant typography, shows a hand practised in the best modern methods of cataloguing, and is a liberal model of the art. It has been compiled by Miss Harriet Howe Ames, who, moreover, was intrusted with the selection of the books themselves and the entire organization of the library. In all these particulars she shows a very exceptional intelligence and a painstaking and punctilious habit. The literal accuracy of the entries is noticeable throughout, and we have discovered no greater slip than "1630-80" (under Boston Memorial History) for 1630-1880. The catalogue is by author, subject, and class; and headings like Biography, Dictionary, France, Genealogy, Japan, Slavery, etc., reveal the good judgment which has gone to the stocking of the library. What is remarkable is that (so far as we have observed) not a single work wholly in a foreign language is embraced in the collection. From Homer to Dante, from Cæsar to Napoleon, from Horace to Heine, all the classics represented are in translation. Finally, Miss Ames furnishes numerous notes by way of additional cross-reference and as guides to students. It is safe to say that no public library was ever better launched than that over which she presides.

—John Harvard's much-married mother was a Rogers, belonging to one of the first families of Stratford-on-Avon. Her sister Rose furnished a clue to her discovery by Mr. Henry F. Waters; and it was while he was endeavoring to find mention of Rose herself that he went somewhat deeply into the Rogers family, among the Essex wills, and made some notable advances in tracing the connection between the family of the Rev. Nathaniel Rogers of Ipswich, Mass, and their ancestors in the old country. It is well known that the late Col. Chester was drawn into his masterful pursuit of genealogy by a desire to establish his own relationship with John Rogers, the martyr. He succeeded in destroying the common belief in a direct descent from this celebrity on the part of the New England Rogerses, but he in vain sought to go beyond John Rogers, a famous minister of Dedham, England, and father of the above-mentioned Nathaniel. Mr. Waters (and it is a high tribute to his skill) has found both the father and the grandfather of John of Dedham, planting the family in Chelmsford, Essex, twenty-nine miles from London, where he can but think that "the oldest and most noticeable house" in Mulsham (an adjacent hamlet) may be the birthplace of the said John. He died in 1636, and for a hundred years at least the family had been on the spot, as the church register shows. Two elegies on this "minister of god his word, late deceased," were found by Mr. Waters in the British Museum, and are printed with a portion of the Rogers researches in the April number of the *New-England Historical and Genealogical Register*. We have not space for further details, but may quote Mr. Waters's disposition to think that the New England family may yet establish a kinship with the martyr Rogers through a common ancestor, and that the ancestry of John Harvard's mother may also be traced back to the same source. His researches in this direction are by no means at an end, and the uncommon interest in them makes timely Mr. John T. Hassam's reminder, in the *Register*, of the necessity of establishing a permanent fund, by means of which we can carry on these investigations on a grander scale than ever before, and with proportionately greater results."

—Besides Mr. Waters's "Gleanings," the *Register* contains, with a portrait, a biographical sketch of the late Frederic Kidder, a prolific historian and genealogist, and disinterested friend of the *Register* in its trial hours. There is also a fresh presentation of the lineage of Abraham Lincoln, by Samuel Shackford of Chicago. The chain that leads up to Samuel Lincoln of Hingham, Mass., is nearly complete, but the New Jersey and Massachusetts Lincolns still need to be indisputably connected, and strong probability, rather than certainty, must be alleged of the pedigree as it now stands. Certain it is that the New Jersey ancestors of the emancipator passed on into Virginia, into North Carolina, and finally into Kentucky. On page 222 of the *Register* mention is made of the forthcoming volume of the Collections of the Virginia Historical Society, with its preface by Mr. Robert A. Brock, consisting of "a carefully prepared and valuable history of the African slave trade, with an account of slavery in Virginia, into which colony, as he shows, its introduction was incidental, and its extension circumstantial and largely involuntary."

—*Macmillan's* for April is distinguished by Tennyson's Jubilee "Carmen Sæculare," a poem which has a singularly monumental character. In the ordinary run of literature which is all that the remainder of the number can boast of, Mr. George Saintsbury's paper on Hazlitt is very well worth reading. It is undoubtedly a fact that Hazlitt has met with a speedy oblivion that would be scarcely credible to the literary generation that knew him. A good many elderly people still believe in him, and Mr. Saintsbury, speaking as a qualified professional critic, would evidently be pleased if he could bring about a "revival" of his vogue. What he has to say is in a high degree interesting, and he shows a "sweet and commendable" nature in letting the old literary grudges all go, and forgiving the irascible and erotic creature with the fulness of complete absolution. But, in the way of mere criticism, we incline to think he goes further than a sound method warrants in one respect. He finds in Hazlitt a mixture, a kind of primeval and generative chaos, of all styles, out of which, unfortunately, Hazlitt himself brought no single orderly, fixed style to be his own; but he answers Jeffrey's famous question plumply by saying that Macaulay got his style from Hazlitt, and adds, also, that "Hazlitt served as a model to Thackeray, to Dickens, and to many not merely of the most popular, but of the greatest writers of the middle of the century. Indeed, in the 'Spirit of the Age' there are distinct anticipations of Carlyle." And again, "No one who reads the essay on Nicolas Poussin will fail to add Mr. Ruskin to Hazlitt's fair herd of literary children." From all of which substantially we dissent, as an abuse of putative fatherhood in the matter of style, which could be taken seriously only if it were meant humorously. In such remarks as these, coming from men of the professional eminence of Mr. Saintsbury, the unreality which seems more or less to pervade literary criticism at all times becomes painfully apparent.

—Émile Zola periodically brings his name before the Paris public, and when he has done so we may be sure that he is about to issue a new volume of his series of the "Rougon-Macquart." In this case the coming book will be called 'La Terre,' and in it peasant life will be depicted, the action taking place on the confines of La Beauce and La Perche. Previous to its publication, however, M. Zola has been creating quite a stir by his controversy with the dramatic critics in regard to the play taken from 'Le Ventre de Paris.' This goes under the name of M. William Busnach, who has before now played the part of dramatic arranger for the novelist. But M. Zola is even more sensitive to criticism upon his *collaborateur* than he would be to attacks upon his own work, or at least he feels more at liberty to be violent in defence of another than of himself. That he can be violent he has shown once more by the general slashing he has inflicted upon those who disapproved of the new drama. M. Francisque Sarcey of the *Temps* is the critic of whom he speaks the most contemptuously. But M. Sarcey is not to be crushed thus, as he has shown in his *feuilleton* headed "Réponse à M. Émile Zola." In this, with delightful good humor, he answers the "Parisien de Médan qui surgit tout rouge de dépit et crie comme si c'était lui-même que l'on eût écorché." Justice is playfully done to the symbolical *galantine*, to the symphonic oppositions of fat and lean in the *charcuterie* of Quenu. A few of the novelist's own slips are maliciously referred to, as when he speaks of catching "little *pink* shrimps"; which are pink only in the seas "where the lobster is clothed in the purple of the cardinals," adds M. Sarcey. He concludes by seriously advising him to imitate the example of M. Alphonse Daudet, and to give to the world a play wholly written by himself.

—After the publication of 'La Terre,' M. Zola sees five more novels to complete the series he has undertaken. In one, of which a few chapters in 'L'Œuvre' gave a foretaste, he will study the railroad world; in another, the Bourse and journalism in the last days of the Second Empire; in a third, military life, the defeat at Sedan, and the Paris Commune. Another will probably be called 'Le Docteur Pascal.' In this the author

will sum up his scientific conclusions about atavism. Pascal Rougon, who figures in what to many is Zola's best novel, 'La Faute de l'abbé Mouret,' is the only wholly genial character he has created. It was formerly his intention to close the series of the "Rougon-Macquart" with the volume of which Pascal was to be the principal figure, but now there floats in his mind a final work, which is to bring together all the scattered and unfinished threads—and there are many in the gigantic series, which will then number twenty volumes.

ROBERT E. LEE.—II.

Memoirs of Robert E. Lee. His Military and Personal History, etc. By A. L. Long, formerly military secretary to Gen. Lee, etc. New York: J. M. Stoddart & Co. 1887.

We have seen that Lee regarded as an accomplished fact the revolution which culminated in the organization of a Confederate States Government. The history of the world gave encouragement to the belief that the chances were largely in favor of the finality of the disruption of the Union. He found himself a citizen under a Government *de facto*, for the establishment of which he felt no personal responsibility; and to serve it as a soldier in the war which was already begun seemed only the natural sequence of relations and duties which he had already acknowledged. There was no distinguishable line between the defence of Virginia and that of the Confederate States of which she had become a part. This did not imply any change of opinion as to the character of secession or the folly of the revolution. That was all in the past; the flagrant war was the present fact. He was a soldier by profession, and the community from whose fate he could not find it in his heart to separate himself demanded his services. Candid men of all sorts of opinions may agree that it was quite natural to decide so, and may well decline to push casuistry further. We dwell upon it because we think it the key to Lee's subsequent conduct, which, viewed in this way, is reasonably consistent throughout.

One may look in vain for any indication in Lee's military orders and correspondence of a change in his political sentiments or convictions. We shall be surprised if his private letters or writings disclose any, except as the combative spirit grows in time of war by its own exercise. This was plainly seen on both sides, and we do not lack brilliant examples, on the national side, of men who began by solving with difficulty the question whether they would take arms at all, and ended by being zealous, if not radical, supporters of the broadest national claims.

Gen. Long tells how Lee met the suggestion of a prominent Georgian, that the people would make him Davis's successor if the Confederacy should become independent. "'Never, sir,' he replied, with a firm dignity that belonged only to Lee; 'that I will never permit. . . . I shall not do the people the injustice to accept high civil office with whose questions it has not been my business to become familiar.'" This is spoken of as proof of self-abnegation and modesty. It seems to us rather an indication of a continued unwillingness to identify himself with the political doctrines of secession. He was too large a man to doubt his own capacity for executive duties in a time of peace, and his form of expression looks to us only as a modest and allowable waiver of political discussion and of political committal.

When his task as a soldier was over, and he had redeemed to the full his pledge to devote himself to the defence of his home, his conduct was still consistent with the view we have taken. The first bitterness of surrender was intense. The expectation of severity from the successful power was natural. He thought he was likely to realize the foreboding he had expressed before the war began, that his choice involved a sharing of "the miseries of my people." Yet nothing can be clearer than that he accepted the result without reserve. He utters no sentimental lamentations over the "lost cause" as such. No original secessionist had done so much to make it a success, and had it succeeded there can be no doubt that his military skill would have been the cornerstone of Confederate independence. His attitude was one which would have enabled him to say (if he had permitted himself to say anything on the subject), "Your experiment of revolution has failed, and to the extent of my powers I have given you the means of making the test of its wisdom complete. I share the ruin which I advised you not to risk. It is no scheme or theory of mine that has thus collapsed." What he in fact said was, "I think it the duty of every citizen, in the present condition of the country, to do all in his power to aid in the restoration of peace and harmony, and in no way to oppose the policy of the State or general Government directed to that object." He wrote this to the Trustees of Washington College when suggesting doubts as to the propriety of his becoming the President of the College, because the appointment might be in the way of the peace and harmony he desired, on account of his being "an object of censure to a portion of the country." It is a pleasant duty to record the opinion that his administration of the College proved a most powerful help in launching the new South upon the peaceful and loyal course which promises to make its prosperity go hand in hand with the revival of a truly national spirit. To Gov. Letcher he wrote: "The interests of the State are therefore the same as those of the United States. Its prosperity will rise or fall with the welfare of the country. The duty of its citizens, then, appears to me too plain to admit of doubt. All should unite in honest efforts to obliterate the effects of war and to restore the blessings of peace."

The honest and hearty nature of this renewed allegiance cannot be doubted. Lee's convictions concerning the unity of the nation under the Constitution, as he professed them before the war, were not loosely held, but were the matured beliefs of an able man. When, therefore, the attempted revolution had failed, we know that the consistency of his intellect was such that he must have regarded the outcome as the proof of the truth of his original opinions, strengthened by the demonstrative evidence the war itself furnished of the cohesive power in the nation that could resist such a convulsion. It certainly was a noble trait in his character that he seems never to have permitted himself to argue in his own justification, or to deny his share of responsibility with other Southern leaders. As he had accepted the fate of Virginia when it dragged him away from his chosen career and ran counter to his judgment of both the right and the expedient, so he accepted without complaint the losses and the griefs the war had brought to all those with whom he had cast in his lot. He seems to have put the past utterly behind him, and to have made it his cardinal principle for the remainder of his life to think only of the duty of the present hour. If he had erred in not making his Constitutional Unionism more aggressive and more pronounced, he accepted with dignity and meekness the penalty of the mistake, and devoted himself to showing a new generation the way to a hopeful future based upon a broader patriotism.

We have preferred to dwell upon these phases of the personal character of Lee because they have been less discussed than his military career. His rank as a soldier is by common consent a very high one. There is still room for difference of opinion on the question of preëminence over all contemporaries, which is so often claimed for him. So many elements enter into the discussion of the causes of military success or failure that it will be premature to attempt an authoritative decision of the relative rank and abilities of leading officers, on either side, before we are quite sure we have all the light that history can give us. We are only beginning to get access to the official records and the correspondence which will show the inner working of causes and events during the rebellion. Some things, however, in regard to Lee may be taken to be firmly settled. His training as an engineer did not take from him that power of active initiative and prompt aggression in field campaigning which is so often denied to the engineer officer. He could adopt a carefully defensive policy; but he could also drop it suddenly to inflict punishment upon his opponent if the opportunity were given. He could vary his methods according to the known characteristics of his adversary. It must also be admitted that, with an inferiority in numerical force, he was victorious in the greater number of the battles in which he was engaged before the last campaign of the war. He could manœuvre a large army with rapidity, and did not seem to be overweighted by the responsibility of a great command. These things justify his claim to be considered a great soldier, while they leave room for the belief that several commanders were developed by the war for whom a similar claim could be made.

It is in itself probable that had he remained in the United States Army he would have followed Scott in its chief command. Whether the overtures to him made by Mr. Blair were fully authorized by President Lincoln may be doubtful; but whether they were or not, his recognized standing was such that he would, no doubt, have been put in command of the army at Washington had he stayed in the service, and the rest would have followed in natural course. Indeed, his reputation insured him high employment in whichever army he might choose; and if the loss or gain of position was matter of temptation, the temptations might be said to be, in that respect, pretty well balanced. We prefer to believe (and the evidence strongly sustains this view) that he felt a deep and sincere grief at the troubles that had come upon his country, and yielded to family ties and to local and personal influences, which made it seem preferable to suffer any evils with his own family and community rather than war upon them even if he thought them wrong. That it would be regarded a great prize by Mr. Davis and the active secessionists to secure his adhesion, needs no telling. That they would distrust his earnestness in their cause from his known opinions, is equally plain. They were doubtless glad to consent to take his military service under his own theory that he was defending Virginia, without asking him to approve their doctrines or to share the intensity of their feelings. His high sense of military honor and duty when once he had committed himself was the guaranty for the faithfulness of his devotion, and they soon learned to lean upon him with unquestioning trust. We get no trace of even a discussion with him of his political opinions, and such debate would seem to have been deliberately tabooed by him.

We are impressed with the belief that Lee's life was a deeply pathetic one, and that he was conscious, through all this part of it, of being in a false position. Love of home, of family, of friends had come in conflict with his love of country. The leaven of "State-rights" doctrine had worked so far as to make the calls of the State and of the nation neutralize each other, so that private and local affections turned the balance.

He felt that his friends and neighbors were on a wrong path, yet could not separate himself from them. In the clash of arms he could forget other thoughts, and in the intense activity of military life he could find something like exhilaration; but when it was over, and the cause to which he had given his sword had failed, he must have looked back upon it as a tragedy "wondrous pitiful," in which all that he held dearest had been staked and, apparently, lost, while he could not have even the consolation of the enthusiast in believing that the cause itself was noble and worthy of the sacrifice.

OLD ENGLISH LETTER FOUNDRIES.

A History of the Old English Letter Foundries, with Notes, Historical and Bibliographical, on the Rise and Progress of English Typography. By Talbot Baines Reed. London: Elliot Stock; New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1887.

THIS book is welcome. Few bookish men pretend to accurate knowledge of English types or type-founders. The candid collector will admit that he knows more of the outer than of the inner dress of a book. He may, and probably will, point out the differences between the tooling of books of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, but his confidence will desert him should he attempt to define the age or the origin of a peculiar type. For this he has good excuse. English bibliographers of the last century, and even of the last generation, have been unsafe guides when they attempted to describe types. Assuming to talk authoritatively about matters they did not understand, they have warranted their readers in the exercise of similar rashness and similar blunders. Benjamin Franklin, always quick to detect pretence, has told an amusing story of his stultification of an English connoisseur who depreciated Caslon's types, which he professed to admire, in the belief that he was censuring the types of Baskerville. All Franklin had done was to produce indirectly the impression that the Caslon types were Baskerville types. The letter, too long to be quoted, may be found in Bigelow's edition of his Autobiography (Philadelphia, 1874, i, p. 413).

Since 1860 the teachings of the old school of bibliographers (of whom Dibdin may be noted as the last and the worst exemplar) have been brought to naught. William Blades began the work of reclassification admirably with his critical examination of the types of Caxton. The lamented Henry Bradshaw of Cambridge, although he wrote but little, did excellent service in enforcing the lesson that exact knowledge of types cannot be had from the acceptance of opinions, gossip, and tradition; that it must be had only from the study and comparison of the books and the methods of early printers. Mr. Hessels of Cambridge, and Dr. van der Linde of Wiesbaden, also deserve thankful mention for their efforts in destroying the typographical fables that have been palmed off as good history. Now comes Mr. Reed with the results of his researches in the history of English type-making in the shape of a stout quarto of nearly four hundred pages. In this book there is, of course, a good deal that is old and well known, but there is also much that is entirely new and of value to librarians and typographers. His list of authorities consulted shows that he is thoroughly versed in the literature of the subject, but his more important contributions have been derived from study and comparison of the specimen sheets and books of early type-founders, and the reading of the records of the Stationers' Company of London. We do not find in his preface any mention of his personal relation to type-founding, but his knowledge of types is plainly not that of an amateur or a man of letters: he must have known and handled types from boyhood.

His introductory chapter on the types and type-founding of the first printers is a careful, judicial summary of the little exact information we have on this subject. He leans to the opinion of Blades that there was in the beginning a scientific and an unscientific system of typography, and that Caxton was a pupil of the latter school, which was of Flemish origin. Caxton's pupils, De Worde and Pynson, were of French birth or descent, and their preference was for French forms of black letter and for the scientific system of type-founding. The types used by the early English printers may have been cast in England, but the designing of the forms and the cutting of the models were done abroad, most largely at Rouen and Paris, in which cities devotional books in English were largely printed for the English market. The "learned types," the Greeks, Hebrews, and Orientals, of the Oxford University Press were cut abroad. John Day (in business from 1546 to 1584) seems to have been the only English printer of the sixteenth century who was really active in having made for his office new forms of types. How much of this work was done by English, and how much by foreign, workmen, Mr. Reed cannot tell us. The books of the period are evidence of the slenderest ability in engraving. Day's woodcuts, vigorous in design, are rudely cut; the "bloomer" initials of the Oxford University Press and the "pierced" initials of many English printers are of matchless ugliness. Early English printers were dependent on foreign workmen. They had no good reputation abroad either as founders or printers.

Mr. Reed's chapter on the state control of English letter-founding is excellent, but disappointingly brief. In 1483 England allowed free trade in types and books, and printing flourished, although types and books in English were made abroad. Repression began in 1556, when a charter to the Stationers' Company was granted, and patents and monopolies were parcelled out, which did not have the good effect desired. Christopher Barker complained that in 1582 there were twenty-two printing-houses in London. He thought eight or ten enough for the entire kingdom. This restrictive policy culminated in the decree of 1637 made by the Star Chamber. The number of printers and type-founders, of presses and apprentices, was exactly prescribed. It was made unlawful to own a press or types or do any kind of printing without license. This is not the place to show the political consequences of that unwise legislation, but we may pertinently show how great damage it did to typography. Mr. Reed says that there followed—

"a distinct degeneration in the quality of the typographical work executed. A privileged printer, sure of his monopoly and safe from competition, would have little or no inducement to execute his work at more cost or pains than was necessary. Old type would do as well as new, and bad type as well as good. Free trade and open competition were the great evils to be dreaded, because free trade and open competition would demand the best paper and type and workmanship. The typography of the entire Stuart period is a disgrace to English art. Fine printing was an art unknown; and only a few works like Walton's *Polyglot*, which were produced in an atmosphere untainted by mercenary considerations, stand out to redeem the period from unqualified reproach.

"On the other hand, the removal of the restrictions was the signal for a revival which may be traced in almost every printed work of the early eighteenth century. In the absence of any great English type-founder, the best Dutch types came freely into the English market. Books came to be legible, paper became white, ink black, and presswork respectable" (p. 136).

It does not appear that English skill in type-founding was much greater at the close of the seventeenth century. English printers were dependent on other countries not only for styles of types, but for the very types themselves.

Joseph Moxon, the first English type-founder of note (1659-1683), writes enthusiastically of the beauty of Dutch types, which were then the admiration of English readers. Moxon cast imitations not with much success. Moxon's successors had to go to Holland to buy the materials for making types. Punches (the original letters on steel) were not to be had, for the "sly and jealous" Dutch would not sell them. When the matrices had been bought of Van Dijk or Athias, the English founder was reasonably sure of good types, but the matrices bought of inferior cutters are of sorry workmanship. We have had a recent revival of these shabby types made by unskilled Dutch workmen. Used for the most part in the seventeenth century by printers of ha'penny ballads, they are now paraded in recent imitations of old English typography as characteristic specimens of early English letter. No really good form of roman or italic letter was cut in England before the eighteenth century. The so-called English types of earlier periods are really of French or Dutch design.

William Caslon of London was the first English founder whose types were respectfully mentioned by foreign typographers. They still deserve all the praise they then received. Nichols says of them that "for clearness and uniformity, for the use of the reader and student, it is doubtful whether it [the Caslon form] has been exceeded by any subsequent production." And this must have been the opinion of Whittingham of the Chiswick Press, when in 1843 he persuaded Caslon (fourth of the name) to get the old Caslon matrices out of the vault and make new types of the discarded and almost forgotten face of what we now call Old Style. Caslon may properly be regarded as the founder and the master of a distinctively English school of type-founding. He had able successors in his descendants, and good pupils in Jackson and Cottrell. Baskerville acknowledged his obligation to him in words, as did Alexander Wilson and many others practically, in attempts at imitation. His influence may be seen in the work of Fry and Martin, in Figgins and Miller, in Besley and Reed, all of whom have done good service in maintaining the reputation of English types. Of all these (except the last named), and more, Mr. Reed has given us good description in his handsomely printed book, which we lay down with regret. It is the first time that we have had the pleasure of seeing the records of an artistic industry treated in so exact a manner and with such intelligent method. We wish there was more of it.

Treating his subject as one of history only, Mr. Reed has little to say about the comparative merits of old and new types. We wish that he had more strongly directed attention to the radical differences between the strong and simple types of the Elzevirs, Caslons, and Foulises, and the more carefully made, but more indistinct, types that have been in fashion for fifty years past. He could have told us that the good punch-cutters of the last century were content to keep themselves in the background, not obtruding their own personality, yet never forgetting that the first requisite in types is the simplicity of readableness. The modern punch-cutter seems determined to show more of himself than of his subject; to show how truthfully he can turn a curve or taper a stroke, how invisibly sharp he can make a hair-line, how cunningly he can repeat in every character some pretty mannerism which may testify to his skill, but which makes the types confusing in the combinations of composition. The needs of reader and printer are not considered at all. By men of imperfect or even of ordinary eyesight, these refinements of letter-cutting, which

make letters hazy or foggy, will always be regarded as inexcusable impertinences.

Another reflection follows. This history of the slow growth of an artistic industry shows how little government, either of the state or of the trade union, has done or can do for its development. There are lessons in this book to be studied. We live in a time when there is great clamor for legislative interference with trades. We are told that trades must have more protection. There must be penalties for the importation of workmen; practically prohibitory duties on the importation of manufactures. Boys must not be allowed to learn trades unless they have been indentured. Employers shall have only a limited number of apprentices. Workmen shall not practise a trade until they have become members of their trade society. If we do not limit the number of workmen in a trade by the restriction of apprentices, our mechanical arts will die—and much more of the same tenor. Mr. Reed's book shows (but too sketchily) that all these nostrums have been tried, and all have failed. The more Government "protected" typography, the worse its condition. The more the trade-union spirit restricted the teaching of the art, the worse the skill of the workmen. The men who did the most to make England eminent for good type-founding—Moxon, Caslon, Baskerville, Wilson, and Jackson—were self-taught, never apprenticed to the branch of the art in which they became famous; men who made their way, not under the protection of trade unions, but in defiance of their laws.

The Dawn of British Trade to the East Indies, as recorded in the Court Minutes of the East India Company, 1599-1603. Containing an account of the formation of the Company, the first Adventure, and Waymouth's Voyage in search of the Northwest Passage. Now first printed from the original manuscript. By Henry Stevens of Vermont. With an Introduction by Sir George Birdwood, Kt., C.S.I., M.D. London: Henry Stevens & Son. 1886. xxiv and 332 pages.

In no field of human activity to which we may turn our eyes do we see so much to convince us of the unity of history as when we survey the trade of the West with India and the East. As commerce binds nations into peaceful and profitable relations, so it is a strong tie connecting successive generations and centuries. In the earliest civilization of Babylonia the Indian trade is a conspicuous feature, and from that time until the present day the "wealth of Ormus or of Ind" has been at once an immense attraction to the West and a wonderfully effective instrument in promoting its development. The commercial activity of Rome might decline when it ceased to be the capital of the Empire, the Empire itself might stagger and shrink under the irresistible advance of the barbarians, but commerce lived on even in the darkest ages. The people of Narbonne and Marseilles kept up the traditions of their fathers; the founders of Venice, even in the sixth century, were noted for the *spatia infinita* traversed by their seamen. In Gaul, in the Merovingian age, the Syrian merchants were to be seen in every considerable town, and passing to and fro both on land and sea. So frequent was the intercourse between Syria and Gaul that St. Simeon Stylites at Antioch availed himself of the opportunity to send by the merchants his salutations to St. Genevieve at Paris. So at least we are informed by St. Genevieve's biographer. In the tenth century Amalfi began a career of brief brilliance, soon to be checked by the Normans, but her place was promptly filled by Pisa and Genoa, and not much later Barcelona is to be added to them.

The life of these cities, so different from that of the rest of Europe, so prophetic of the character of the modern age, was darkened by the evil of the time. As dukes, counts, and barons warred among themselves like sovereign princes, so these cities manned navies to destroy each other. The greatest struggle took place between Venice and Genoa. If Venice establishes the Latin Empire, Genoa plans to help the restoration of the Greeks. Together they might have repelled the Turk, but, divided, they smoothed his path. Yet from these fierce contests one may form an idea of the richness of the prize for which they fought. It was the Eastern trade, and the Eastern trade meant the supplying of all Europe with such products as aloes, balsam, sandalwood, Brazil wood, camphor, cinnamon, cardamon, cassia, cloves, cochineal, frankincense, ginger, gum lac, indigo, ivory, ladanum, mastic, musk, mace, nutmegs, nutgalls; pearls, emeralds, turquoises, rubies, sapphires, diamonds; pepper, rhubarb, saffron, raw silk; porcelain, sugar, damask, gold and silver thread, samite, camelet, and other rich cloths. Even such a partial list of the articles of import from the East cannot fail to give one a profound impression of the significance of that commerce. But the Eastern trade led to far greater results than the enrichment of the Mediterranean cities and the diffusion of Oriental luxuries in the West. We might, perhaps, do well to say "necessaries," too, for in the absence of many of the common vegetables which impart variety to our tables, our ancestors endeavored to give zest to their dishes by a lavish use of spices; ginger, cloves, cinnamon, and, above all, pepper, were in great demand. Thorold Rogers tells us that the English put pepper even in pastry.

So general was the market for these Indian products that the prices always ranged high and the profits were immense. There was, in fact, a constant premium for the discovery of some new and cheaper route for this trade. In 1291 Ugolino Vivaldi of Genoa and one of his brothers, in company with Tedisio Doria and some of their fellow-citizens, fitted out two galleys to reach India by the ocean. The two Vivaldis commanded the expedition. One of the ships was wrecked; the fate of the other is shrouded in mystery. To speculate what would have been the effect upon the world's history if the heroic Vivaldi had had the good fortune of Vasco de Gama, would be interesting but fruitless. The temptation to such adventures, however, increased. As the fifteenth century wore on, the Turks enveloped the Levant and gained control over the chief routes of commerce. Heavy passage-tolls and the risk of robbery made spices enormously dear. Visions of infinite wealth set men's minds to thinking more than ever of the possibility of a western route to India. The more learned were familiar with the view of the ancient philosophers, that India could be reached by sailing west, or Spain from India by sailing eastward. The combination of events could have but one issue, and in the last decade of the century two heroic attempts were made to solve the problem. De Gama succeeded, and the news of the arrival of some ships in the Tagus with spices caused a panic in the Venetian market. Machiavelli sent word to Florence that the price of all the Indian products in stock there immediately fell more than one-half. The noonday of Venice was passed. De Gama succeeded, but Columbus, in his desire to seek the land of spices by sailing to the west ("deseo de querer pasar adonde nacen las especerias"), changed the face of the world. The India trade had opened the way for the ultimate creation of a commerce far greater than it had ever been; yet it retained its importance in men's eyes, and nearly four centuries of effort to find a northwest passage illustrates at once the pressure which bore upon Columbus and his contemporaries, and the wonderful part the India trade has played in the history of the world.

The harvest which Spain and Portugal reaped from the discoveries, though rich, was but short-lived; the great and permanent advantages fell into the hands of the English race. It is the last act of this great drama to which the volume at the head of this article directs our attention. This record of the first four years of the activity of "The Governor and Company of Merchants of London trading to the East Indies," as is justly remarked in the introduction, discloses the beginnings of the later triumphs of England in the East. In these pages we discern the thoroughly practical and commercial aims of the Company. Their first minute is dated September 22, 1599, but the act of incorporation was not granted till December 31, 1600. The profit on the early voyages rarely fell below one hundred per cent., and was generally about two hundred per cent. These records, resolutions, and accounts are here "printed as a labor of love, under the direction and at the charge of the late Mr. Henry Stevens" of Vermont, to whose well-directed energy and enthusiasm the cause of American history owes so much. In accordance with his desires, they have been reproduced with the most painstaking accuracy, even "in the minutest particulars of spelling and contractions," so that, apart from its historical value, the volume cannot fail to interest students of the English of that age. Mr. Henry N. Stevens has supplied a most exhaustive and valuable index of forty-five closely-printed pages (the records occupy only 283 pages), which is in fact an analysis of the contents of the volume. For example, the article "Northwest Passage" currently summarizes everything in the book appertaining to this subject. This is certainly a very great convenience for the student.

A very readable introduction has been contributed by Sir George Birdwood of the India Office. One of his notes, however, is rather extraordinary. He refers to the well-known passage, in the preface of Seneca's 'Quæstiones Naturales,' where the philosopher remarks that from Spain to India is "paucissimorum dierum spatium, si navem suus ventus implevit" (a voyage of a very few days with a fair wind), and adds, "This, I believe, is now brought to light for the first time in this connection [*i. e.*, among ancient suggestions of a westward route]." It seems almost incredible that a writer on the history of geography should at this day make an independent discovery of a passage that has been known to every respectable geographer for six hundred years. Hardly less remarkable is it that Sir George Birdwood, after his discovery, could repose in the childlike belief that no one else had called attention to the passage, or that no critical suspicion prompted him to consult some common source of information, like Humboldt's 'Examen Critique de l'histoire de la Géographie du Nouveau Continent.' There he would have discovered that this passage was not only known to Columbus, but had exercised a great influence upon his thinking, and that Roger Bacon, if any one, deserves the credit of having "brought it to light for the first time." Furthermore, Sir George Birdwood seems to take the passage as a statement of knowledge on Seneca's part, whereas it is evidently a philosophical reflection on the smallness of the earth compared with the universe and the realm of the mind. The statement is put absolutely for rhetorical effect.

This volume must not be dismissed, however, without mentioning that it is an elegant specimen of printing, such as one always expects from the Chiswick Press, and that it embodies those sound principles of bookmaking so well laid down by Mr. Stevens in his trenchant little essay, "Who Spoils our New English Books."

Sir Philip Sidney. By J. A. Symonds. [English Men of Letters.] Harper & Bros. 1887.

We have before remarked upon the difficulty Mr. Symonds finds in writing a little book, and in this volume, as in his recent 'Life of Ben Jonson,' one observes the frequent complaint of lack of space, the confused interchange of a general and particular treatment, the ends left loose, and all the signs of a writer too fluent and too much in haste to study out and observe the fit proportions of a small but noble subject. The materials for 'Sidney's Life' are not great, and the substance of them is easily transferred to new pages; this Mr. Symonds has done, and he has expanded the biography proper by extended analysis of the literary works of Sidney, of no special acumen or value, and by some passages of personal criticism. In the earlier portion he betrays a certain dislike for his hero, whom he thinks unpleasantly grave in his precocity, and neglectful of his boyish privilege as a sower of oats; and he disparages his character, as he goes on, by putting an extraordinary and unjust emphasis upon one rash letter which has come down to us, and on a picked line or two here and there from contemporaries, for the purpose of forcing the inference that Sidney had "faults of temper" and other traits of uncompanionableness. He adopts the view that the sonnets to Stella were addressed to Lady Rich after her marriage, and makes the most of this circumstance as a moral delinquency; in fact, throughout the volume, Mr. Symonds is very anxious to assure us that the sun has spots, and he expresses pleasure in finding Sidney peccable because it gives human nature to him. This is in a familiar vein; but the evidence which Mr. Symonds brings forward for the purpose of conferring "human nature" on the youth best beloved in his own time and idealized ever after, strikes us as slight and scanty, and the tone in which it is advanced is distinctly unfriendly. Mr. Symonds felt from the start that Sidney left to posterity an ideality rather than a personal memory, and he says his "renown transcends his achievement."

But what he did he did remarkably well; he won distinction whenever he was put upon his trial, and both the trial and the distinction were beyond his years. In affairs he was as able as he was scholarly in study and perfect in breeding; his prose is marvellous for sweetness, judgment, and dignity; his poetry is so noble in expression that at its best it mates not unworthily with Shakspere's youthful verse; and no act of his life dims the lustre of his death, which is one of the sacred legends of Christendom. So skilled a master of panegyric as Mr. Symonds has not let this opportunity escape him, and he catches the note of eulogy and builds his own hymn to the young knight; at the end his epilogue, as he calls it, is almost just. It is true, no doubt, that Sidney performed no great deeds, and that what made him the ornament of his time was his character; but it was character shown in daily life, in the little unremembered acts, and it must have been of wonderful outward beauty to have so persuaded men of its lovableness and inward honor. So far as one can recover the incidents and perishable works of his days, in his relations with kindred, friends, the court, the counsellors and scholars of England and with foreigners, it was the life of a chosen man, from its beginning in the singularly admirable care of Sir Henry Sidney and his wife, whose characters had merit to adorn their son's biography, to the composure of his untimely death. Until Milton reached the age of manhood there was no figure in England again at all comparable to Sidney. These two were of the same "happy breed of men," and their felicity lay in their virtue in the days of their youth. The charm of both is moral and essentially the same; and notwithstanding the idealization of them, a close view of their lives still reveals such substance of excellence as justifies the national devotion to their memories. It is a pity that Mr. Symonds's book is not better, and especially is it a pity that he has strained the evidence to dispraise his hero; but there is so much of Sidney in the volume that the presence of his biographer is easily forgotten.

Biographical Annals of the Civil Government of the United States. By Charles Lanman. Second edition, revised, enlarged, and completed to date, by Joseph M. Morrison. New York: J. M. Morrison. 1887.

Lanman's 'Dictionary of Congress,' when published in 1858, if it did not *fill* a long-felt want, at any rate went a long way towards doing so, and its usefulness was greatly increased, in the edition of 1876, through the widening of its field so as to include civil officers who had not been members of Congress. The preparation of both editions involved a vast amount of labor, for the information contained in the sketches had, in most cases, to be sought at first hand. In spite of numerous errors, therefore, the great value of the work has never been disputed. The difficulties in the way of preparation, however, with which Mr. Lanman had to struggle, did not exist for the compiler of the present edition. He says, indeed, that he "was almost overcome by the seemingly innumerable and insurmountable obstacles which constantly appeared in his pathway," but never was such language more uncalled for. All necessary information respecting Congressmen, previous to the last session of the last Congress in which they served, lay ready to his hand in the official 'Congressional Directory,' while, in these days of personal journalism, sketches of all persons appointed to any conspicuous office during the last ten years, written with far more than the requisite detail, could readily have been found in any city newspaper Particularly in the case of the death of a Congressman or other public servant are the details of his previous life accessible not only in the newspapers, but, till recently, in the obituary lists of a work no more unknown than 'Appleton's Annual Cyclopædia,' as well as by means of the *Tribune* Index. Yet Mr. Morrison, though his work seems to have been printed this year, appears not to have known that Charles Francis Adams was dead, or that he had taken any part in public affairs since 1861. Indeed, the number of persons alive in these pages ("brought down to date"), though not elsewhere, is extraordinary. We have been able to test it in but few instances, yet we find no mention made of the death of L. A. Bingham, representative from New Jersey, 1879 81, died 1885 (not even his name is to be found), or the following: J. A. Ahl of Pennsylvania (1882), J. Bates of Maine (1882), Lorenzo Burrows of New York (1885), W. A. Duncan of Pennsylvania (1884), Reuben Ellwood of Illinois (1885), Edward Gilbert of California, killed in a duel in 1852 by the notorious J. W. Denver, J. Z. Goodrich of Massachusetts (1885), Moses H. Grinnell (1877), R. J. Haldeman of Pennsylvania (1885), Artemas Hale of Massachusetts, who died in 1882 at the age of ninety-eight, Robert B. Hall of Massachusetts (1868), E. Jeffords of Mississippi (1885), G. W. Jones of Tennessee (1884), Edward Kent of Maine (1877), Governor and Judge, whose name became familiar throughout the country in the once famous campaign song, "Have you heard the news from Maine?" Scott Lord of New York (1885), W. P. Lynde of Wisconsin 1885), Robert Mallory of Kentucky (1885), Benjamin Moran (1886), D. J. Morrell of Pennsylvania (1885), J. L. Mosley (1877), Alexander Mouton of Louisiana (1885, not, as here stated, in 1864), T. H. Murch of Maine (1886), A. S. Murray of New York (1885), Eben Newton of Ohio (1885), Robert Dale Owen of Indiana (1877), John Perkins of Louisiana (1885), Horatio Seymour of New York (1886), John Strohm of Pennsylvania (1884), J. T. Stuart of Illinois (1885), Judge T. R. Westbrook of New York (1885), G. C. Woodruff of Connecticut (1885). Alex. Caldwell, Senator from Kansas, 1871-73, is not mentioned. Neither birth nor death is given of Aaron Kitchell of New Jersey (1744-1820).

In bringing information down to date concerning persons not dead, Mr. Morrison is equally negligent. He does not know, apparently, that Mr. McCulloch was again Secretary of the Treasury under Arthur; that Mr. Kasson was envoy to Germany; that John A. Peters of Maine has been Chief-Justice of that State since his retirement; and various other facts equally interesting to compilers of biographical annals "brought down to date." Moreover, from the first edition are omitted some very convenient tables, as of the successive administrations in one glance, the Presidential electors, the electoral and popular vote at each Presidential election, etc., etc. As a partial recompense the new edition gives the members of the several Congresses from the beginning. The illustrations now first inserted do not amount to much.

Les Origines de l'Ancienne France. Par Jacques Flach. Le Régime Seigneurial (x et xi siècles). I. Paris. 1886.

We have here the first volume of what promises to be a most important work on mediæval history, as may be seen from the following brief summary of the author's outline. The first book is on the origin of the feudal system; the second on the causes of the dissolution of society in the tenth and eleventh centuries. These two constitute the present volume. The third book is to treat of the elements of the reconstruction of society; the fourth, of the formation of a national law by the fusion of the Frank and Roman systems under the influence of the canon law and the local customary law; the fifth, of the general conditions of society in the eleventh century and the evils from which it suffered, private wars, famines, etc. The sixth book, which will be one of the most important in the series, will consider the condition of individuals in law and in fact. It will open with a series of local studies, to be followed by a general view, which will include such matters as the proportion of free and serf lands, of free men and serfs, the state of agriculture, industry, and commerce, and the material conditions of life, food, clothing, etc. The seventh book will be devoted to the intellectual and moral condition of society, and the eighth will show how the communal movement of the next following age had its roots in the eleventh century.

A detailed study of this sort, based upon a full examination of the original sources, could hardly fail to be full of valuable suggestions, though written by a novice or even by a blunderer. But the author of this work is neither of these. He has already won for himself a distinguished position as a teacher and historian of law. It is of value, also, that a book like this comes to us just now from France to reinforce the growing number of careful studies on mediæval history which we owe to its scholars. We have been getting to look almost too exclusively to Germany for work of this sort, and it must be admitted that learning has not yet become so cosmopolitan as to have wiped out all national characteristics from its methods or its results. With the German a fact

is apt to be the final end of all things, and he often sees it in such a way as to shut out the whole horizon. With the Frenchman, on the other hand, the thing of chief importance is the fact in its relations, and his work is sometimes liable to be a brilliant determination of the relations of a half-known or guessed-at fact. Of the two faults the latter is undoubtedly the worse, but a combination of the two excellences is absolutely necessary to the final product, and any work which combines the two in a marked degree, like this of Prof. Flach's, is to be especially welcomed.

This volume is a very thorough and careful study of the original material, both printed and manuscript. The notes abound in references to these sources, and, what is of especial value to the American student, they contain frequent and full quotations from the texts. The greatest merit of the work is its very fresh and stimulating treatment of old subjects and its occasional new suggestions. The first part, as introductory, treating of the origin of the feudal system in 100 pages, illustrates both merits and defects in perhaps an exaggerated way. The original German *mundium* is identified much too closely with the *clientela* of the Roman Empire. That the two melted together after the conquest is, no doubt, true; but that they were the same in origin or in purpose is not possible. The question of the origin of the *læti* on Roman lands is disposed of, on p. 66, with a suddenness and a decision which take away one's breath who has worried through the lengthy arguments on that subject. It is, again, doubtless possible that the freedom from taxation enjoyed by great estates under the Empire continued after the conquest, and passed from this source into the later immunities; but a book like this, while it should indicate clearly the author's own opinion, should also indicate clearly the degree of uncertainty which the state of the evidence necessarily attaches to any opinion. The same criticism applies, in a somewhat less degree, to the whole treatment of the immunities and the origin of private jurisdiction. It is in this connection, however, that one of the most valuable suggestions of this introductory part is made. It is this, that while the Frank noble acquired the immunity for himself by a gradual process, and the King's charter merely recognized and legalized a completed fact, the Church was so placed that it could not do this, and the immunity had to be created for it by an out-and-out grant, covering both freedom from taxation and from the action of the royal officers within its domains. While it may be reasonably doubted that the lay noble always acquired the immunity in this way, the suggestion is certainly a good one to keep in mind in one's study of the subject. Important, also, is it to remember the fact, to which attention is called, that at the end of the ninth century there existed a strong tendency to change benefices into allodial lands, as well as the tendency in the opposite direction, which is usually assumed to be the only one existing. Of more general interest, perhaps, would be the few paragraphs on the fear of the end of the world in the year 1000, showing how this idea is reflected in the charters as early as the middle of the ninth century, and the vivid conception given us of the lack of general security and the intense desire for peace of those days.

This is by no means a full statement of the new ideas presented or of the points with which one must disagree. The most important point, however, in a book of this sort is not that its conclusions should be indisputable—that is not to be expected from any one at present—but that it should be suggestive and stimulating. It is high praise to say of such a book, as must be said of this, that it will have its greatest value for those already familiar with the literature of the subject.

The Story of Persia. By S. G. W. Benjamin, lately United States Minister to Persia. ["The Story of the Nations."] G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1887.

THIS is a very amusing "story" for young folks, but a rather unsymmetrical history. The chapters devoted to the mythical heroes of prehistoric Persia, such as Feridoon, Djemsheed, Zohâk, Minoutchehr, Keï Kaoos, or Siawusch—as our author names them in his medley of English, French, and German spellings—fill eighty pages; all the history of Persia from the Mohammedan conquest in the middle of the seventh century to this day is told in nine pages; the events of the hundred years intervening between the death of Nadir Shah, in 1747, and the accession of Nasred-Din, the present ruler, are narrated in twenty-five lines. Of the latter Shah's long reign not a single event is mentioned, but we are assured that "the progressive tendencies of the present dynasty," combined with the advantages of climate and soil—if we forget deserts and famines—"indicate conditions that promise a renewal of the greatness of Persia when she has emerged from the transitionary period through which she is now passing."

Mr. Benjamin is an enthusiastic believer in the vitality and intellectual eminence of the Persian nation. "Great empires have risen and fallen since the day of Salamis," he correctly tells us in the chapter devoted to Xerxes, "and yet Persia lives." And in order to make this fact the more striking he says, though somewhat less correctly (p. 121): "The battle of Salamis occurred 430 years B. C., or two thousand three hundred and sixteen years ago; and Persia still exists as an independent nation, even though shorn of some of her vast dominions." The wonder is the greater if we consider that the paleness of a figure in the book before him, or some similar defect, made our historian read "430" for 480, and that the battle of Salamis really occurred two thousand three hundred and *sixty-six* years before he penned his admiring sentence. It is a real calamity, from a chronological point of view, that 3 and 8, and also 5, so resemble each other in print and copy that they are apt to play havoc in the pages of authors with short memories for dates and little inclination for research and revision. The blunder would have been avoided had Mr. Benjamin thought of telling his young readers when the battle of Thermopylæ was fought, or that of Platæa: but he did not. A little examination would also have taught him that Xerxes's father, Darius I., did not die "in 479 B. C., in the fortieth year of his reign" (p. 111), but six years earlier, and in the thirty-sixth of his reign. Greater attention to proof or copy would have prevented the statement (p. 102) that the name of that King "is in the original Persian . . . spelled Darayavalm" (Darayavush is meant), or the comparison (p. 105) of the failure of the same monarch's expedition to the "vast wastes now called Russia in Europe" with the failures, in the same regions, of Napoleon and "Charles IX."—which stands for Charles XII. of Sweden. Nor would he have called the Scythians Saccæ (pp. 84, 96), Pasargadæ "Passargadæ" (pp. 96, 97), Eran "Erâu" (p. 83), or Bactria "the Bactria" (p. 88). "The Bactria," is, of course, a translation of *la Bactrie*, and there are other indications that our author often relied on French texts—by the by, of pre-Assyriological times; but he does not name any of his authorities, for the following rather facetious reason, stated in the preface:

"It is scarcely worth while to present a list of them here. Those writers who are dead will not be disturbed by any departure from their opinions or any new presentation of the facts they recorded; while living authorities can see for themselves whether the author has agreed or disagreed with their conclusions."

Agriculture in Some of Its Relations with Chemistry. By F. H. Storer, Professor of Agricultural Chemistry in Harvard University. Charles Scribner's Sons. 2 vols., 12mo.

THIS interesting work is a valuable addition to the literature of agriculture. It is a revision of the author's lectures during the last sixteen years to students, young men who are preparing to engage in farming, gardening, etc., and to those who, while purposing to embark in other business, desire to fit themselves for the rational direction and management of a home in the country. It is eminently practical upon the subjects of tillage and fertilization, and it fills a gap which has been open a long time. The works of Prof. Johnson upon 'How Crops Grow' and 'How Crops Feed,' of Prof. Armsby upon 'Cattle-Feeding,' and of Prof. Stewart on 'Feeding Animals' are standard works, and now this one of Prof. Storer comes in to round out the series. The agricultural press of the country holds a most important and useful place in the instruction of those who are now in the field. Farmers who have the confidence which comes from experience and familiarity with their surroundings, can easily select from the miscellaneous matter of their periodicals and enjoy and profit by them. For the beginner, however, systematic books are better, and these very readable and authoritative volumes offer themselves to his need.

Microscopy for Beginners; or, Common Objects from the Ponds and Ditches. By Alfred C. Stokes, M.D. Small 8vo, illustrated. Harpers. 1887.

THIS is a primer for beginners with the microscope, designed to give them some fundamental ideas in regard to handling the instrument, obtaining the minute living objects which it serves to study, and identifying in a general way the commoner forms of microscopic plants and animals most available to the American microscopist. It is intended to take a place in this country which in England, France, and Germany is filled by a variety of well-written and illustrated little handbooks. It makes no pretensions on the scientific side, yet we have observed no serious slips in such matters, and our opinion, after a careful perusal, is that Dr. Stokes has done his work exceedingly well, and that the book should be heartily recommended to those for whom it was prepared. There are rude but sufficiently accurate figures of many microscopic objects most likely to be met with in collecting; references to the literature by use of which the beginner may become a student, if he desires to investigate more seriously; and plenty of convenient and useful hints on all sorts of subjects connected with the microscope and its use.

A series of such primers for the different groups of invertebrates would be very useful, and it is to be hoped may eventually appear. There is no doubt that each book of the kind would do far more to promote a general interest in field natural history than collegiate instruction in the histology of the frog and physiology of the mud-turtle will accomplish in half a century.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adam, J. Platonis Apologia Socratis. Part I. Introduction and Text. Macmillan & Co. 90 cents.
Adams, H. C. Relation of the State to Industrial Action. American Economic association. 75 cents.
Ames, Miss H. H. Catalogue of the Nevins Memorial Library, Methuen, Mass. Boston. 2 vols.
Antiqua Mater: A Study of Christian Origins. Trübner & Co.
Austin, J. O. The Genealogical Dictionary of Rhode Island; Comprising Three Generations of Settlers who came before 1690. With many Families carried to the Fourth Generation. Providence. $10.
Bond-Walpole. Gai Iuli Cæsaris de Bello Gallico Commentarii. Macmillan & Co. $1.60.
Breul, K. Fabeln und Erzählungen von Lessing und Gellert. Macmillan & Co. 75 cents.
Brewster, Mary Shaw. First Book of Chemistry. D. Appleton & Co. 77 cents.

Browning, R. Dramatic Lyrics: The Return of the Druses; A Blot in the 'Scutcheon; Colombe's Birthday. Dramatic Romances: A Soul's Tragedy; Luria. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.75.
Browning, R. Pauline; Paracelsus; Strafford; Sordello; Pippa Passes; King Victor and King Charles. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.75.
Bury—Hillier. Cycling. Illustrated. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Butler, Dr. J. G. The Bible-Work. The Old Testament. Vol. I. Genesis, Chap. I., to Exodus, Chap. xii. Funk & Wagnalls.
Champlin, J. D., Jr. Chronicle of the Coach; Charing Cross to Hatcombe. Illustrated. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.25.
Colbeck, C. Gai Iuli Cæsaris de Bello Gallico Commentariorum V. Macmillan & Co. 40 cents.
Condon, Capt. E. O. The Irish Race in America. E. & R. E. Ford. 25 cents.
Curry, Lily. "Drops of Blood." J. S. Ogilvie & Co.
Death, J. The Beer of the Bible: A Confirmation of Biblical Accuracy. Trübner & Co.
For Him; or, a Promise Given and a Promise Kept. By Gipsy. Brentano Brothers.
Gilchrist, H. H. Anne Gilchrist: Her Life and Writings. Scribner & Welford.
Godley, A. D. The Histories of Tacitus. Books I and II. Macmillan & Co. $1.10.
Gomme, G. L. The *Gentleman's Magazine* Library: Romano-British Remains. Part I. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.50.
Haggard, H. R. Dawn: A Novel. In 2 vols. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Holden, Rev. H. A. The Cyropædeia of Xenophon. Books I., II. Text and Notes. 2 vols. Cambridge, Eng.: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Howell, J. Songs and Sonnets. Louisville: John P. Morton & Co.
Huxley, L. Cicero: Cato Maior de Senectute. Part 1. Introduction and Text. Macmillan & Co. 50 cents.
Ivins, W. M. Machine Politics and Money in Elections in New York City. Harper's Handy Series. 25 cents.
Jebb, R. C. Homer: An Introduction to the Iliad and the Odyssey. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Le Row, Caroline B. English as She is Taught: Genuine Answers to Examination Questions in our Public Schools. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Lemcke, E. E. An Illustrated Grammar of Skat, the German Game of Cards. 2d ed., enlarged. B. Westermann & Co. 30 cents.
Lyall, Edna. Knight-Errant: A Novel. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Lumby, Rev. J. R. Cowley's Prose Works. With Introduction and Notes. Macmillan & Co. $1.00.
Mallery, G. Pictographs of the North American Indians. Washington.
Mann, Mary. Juniata: A Romance of Real Life in Cuba Fifty Years Ago. Philadelphia: D. Lothrop & Co. $1.50.
Marshall, O. H. Historical Writings Relating to the Early History of the West. Albany: Joel Munsell's Sons.
Marx, K. Capital: Critical Analysis of Capitalist Production. Translated and edited by Frederick Engels. 2 vols. Scribner & Welford.
McCarty, L. P. Annual Statistician. 1887. San Francisco.
Miller, L. W. The Essentials of Perspective. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50.
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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 353

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS 356

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:
The One Thing Needful 358
The Knights and the Trades 358
An American Application of English Election Methods 359

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:
The Italian Army.—1887 360
The Cathedral of Orvieto 361

CORRESPONDENCE:
The American Archæological Expedition to Italy ... 361
The Progress of Female Suffrage 362
Woman Suffrage in Kansas 362
Wolseley and Lee 362
Gen Lee's "Countrymen" 363
A Local-Option Village 363
Versifying Made Easy 363
The Versatile Piastounoff 363

NOTES 364

REVIEWS:
Bancroft's British Columbia 367
Franklin in France 368
Recent Philosophic Literature 370
Le Romantisme français 374
Gazetteer of the British Isles 371
Sketches and Impressions 372
The Christian Platonists of Alexandria 372

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 372

FINE ARTS:
The Academy Exhibition.—II 373

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 28, 1887.

The Week.

THE Springfield *Republican* draws attention to the agricultural industry of New England, and its relation to the Inter-State Commerce Law, showing how the Eastern farmer has been compelled to abandon one crop after another by low freights from the West and South, until agricultural land has ceased to have any value as such. It instances a rich valley in Vermont, in the town of Ludlow, where twelve farms have gone out of cultivation. One of the petitions to the last Legislature was that anybody who would occupy these farms might be exempted from taxation for a term of years. The total agricultural wealth of New England declined five per cent. in the decade 1870-80. The long and short haul clause, the *Republican* thinks, will have the effect, if properly enforced, to arrest this decline of agricultural prosperity in New England, and to give the Eastern farmer a chance to make a living off his land. We wonder that the state of things described by the *Republican* has never arrested the attention of Mr. Henry George, the Rev. Dr. McGlynn, and the other philosophers who find all the ills of society in the private ownership of land, and who would cure them by taxing land up to its full rental value. Why do they not organize a small colony by way of example, and settle on these twelve farms in Ludlow, Vermont, which have been abandoned by their grasping, blood-sucking owners? They can have the land rent free, and even if the Legislature should not exempt them from all taxation, they would have the satisfaction of knowing that they were solving for future generations the great problem of human misery.

The usefulness of the Inter-State Commerce Act as an inter-State protective tariff is recognized by the *State Register* of Des Moines, Ia., which publishes an article of two columns under the general heading "Stand by Our Own State," with nine sub-heads, all in the approved protectionist jargon, urging the patriotic citizens of Iowa to insist stoutly that the law be maintained in the interest of home manufacturers. Chicago, St. Louis, and New York are pointed out by the *Register* as the great monopolists and oppressors, whose undue facilities in shipping goods have inundated Iowa heretofore, and kept her from developing herself as a manufacturing and wholesaling State. Under the long and short-haul clause the *Register* looks forward to the time when "there will not be a bushel of grain or food product of any kind shipped out of the State," since it will all be wanted to feed manufacturing operatives at home. This will be the realization in Iowa of Mr. Wm. Walter Phelps's dream, but what will happen to the manufacturers of New Jersey? Where will be the market for their goods? On the other hand, we are privately informed that the Commerce Law has led to a good deal of inquiry abroad for certain grades of iron, called "softeners," that have been supplied to the Atlantic seaboard from the interior of this country at very low rates of freight. Under the long and short-haul clause these rates can no longer be given. So the Eastern manufacturer is looking to England for "softeners" to be used in general foundry work and light hardware in connection with the tougher domestic irons. We shall probably hear from the Iron and Steel Association on this subject before long.

The Prohibition campaign which has just opened in Texas, and which culminates in an election on August 4, to decide whether the Constitution shall be amended so as to forbid the manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquors, is not only interesting in itself, but must prove in the nature of a revelation to most people at the North. The Northern idea of Texas has too often been that of a community given over to whiskey and ignorance. It is therefore a great surprise to the average reader to find that so many leading members of the dominant party, including United States Senator Reagan, are outspoken in favor of the amendment that its opponents are evidently alarmed over the danger of its adoption. The current Northern idea about the condition of education in Texas is equally at fault. A New Hampshire paper, for example, in commenting upon the large school attendance reported in Texas, remarks: "The term 'attending school' means in Texas going to school for a few days or weeks in a year, while in New England it means going the year round, with the exception of a few vacations." The truth is, as the latest reports of the Superintendents of Instruction in the two States show, that the average length of the school year in the various counties of New Hampshire is but 101 days, while in the various counties of Texas it is 110 days. Texas already has a decided sprinkling of Yankees in her population, nearly a thousand natives of Maine alone being found in the State in 1880; and the New England idea about common schools is so generally accepted that the last census showed a smaller percentage of illiteracy than in any other Southern State. It would be odd if she should also accept the Down East idea about prohibition, regarding which the suggestion of a Maine paper, the Portland *Advertiser*, appears quite to the point: "If the law cannot be enforced in Maine, it is difficult to see how it could be carried out any better in a State of the vast area and sparse population of Texas."

Louisiana is the latest Southern State to be attacked by the Prohibitionists, and no State stands in greater need of temperance work. Official figures which were cited at a meeting of Prohibitionists in New Orleans the other day make a most disgraceful showing. At the date of the last national census Louisiana had 939,946 inhabitants, which her moderate growth since 1880 has probably increased to a million now, while the much more rapid growth of Texas has brought her 1,591,749 of 1880 up to two millions now. Yet the last report of the Internal Revenue Bureau shows that in Louisiana 5,659 persons hold United States licenses for the liquor traffic, against only 3,292 in Texas; in other words, with half the population of Texas, Louisiana has 70 per cent. more liquor-dealers. This is only one of many illustrations of the demoralizing effects of the lottery system which Louisiana fosters, and which, of course, extends its ramifications into the liquor business. There is something really appalling about the consequences of this lottery system. A recent report indicated that illiteracy is on the increase in Louisiana, and the reason is simply because the political ring which controls the State refuses to appropriate money enough to maintain decent schools. Florida had less than one-fifth the valuation of Louisiana in 1880, and yet last year Florida expended $400,000 upon her schools, and Louisiana only $450,000. The truth is, that the State is to-day really retrograding in all that makes a community civilized. There are happily some signs that respectable people are becoming aroused to the disgrace of the situation, and there is talk in New Orleans of a determined movement to overthrow the ring, but it is firmly entrenched, with the lottery infamy actually embodied in the Constitution of the State, and the fight will be a long and hard one.

The fourth annual report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics of Illinois discusses the question of convict labor to the extent of 142 pages. The messages and public deliverances of the Hon. David B. Hill on the labor question may contain more cant to the square inch, but this report contains more square inches than all of Gov. Hill's speeches and messages together, and must be awarded the highest marking in any competitive examination in this department of scholarship. "*The labor organizations do not ask that convicts be kept in idleness,*" say these Commissioners with all the gravity of italics. "They do ask," the report continues, "that penal institutions be so conducted as to reduce competition with free industries to a minimum." How this is to be done it is the high privilege of the Bureau of Labor Statistics of Illinois to have discovered. Their plan is to discard all existing systems, including the State-account system in so far as this involves the use of machinery, and to employ convicts on hand labor exclusively, but not such hand labor as competes with hand labor outside of the prisons. The plan is, for example, to employ a certain number of convicts in making barrels by hand exclusively, as against barrels made in part by machinery outside, and another lot in making shoes in the old-fashioned way, and so on. The advantage of this arrangement is, that when the convict has served his time out he will be a thorough workman, and not a mere manager of a machine. He will be no superficial workman. He will know all the points of a good barrel or of a good shoe. He will be in some sort a master mechanic, capable of taking the lead in his calling. Thus the penal institutions of the State will become a kind of

normal school. The only objection to the plan from the standpoint of Labor would seem to be, that the prisons, by imparting a superior instruction, would furnish too much competition when the convicts have served their time out. This might be counteracted, however, by treating them as "scabs," and striking whenever any of them should get any honest employment.

The public-account system was tried in Illinois during four years 1867-71, and resulted in a loss to the State of $314,212, even with the help of machinery. This was the sum paid by honest labor to stop the clamors of Labor demagogues. Then the contract system was adopted, and the Joliet penitentiary became at once self-supporting, and has continued so to the present time. But the Legislature two years ago submitted a Constitutional amendment to the people abolishing the contract system, and the labor demagogues prevailed upon both political parties to print their tickets with affirmative votes only, instead of affirmative and negative, as the Constitution itself contemplates and requires. In this way the amendment was ratified. The existing contracts are now expiring, and it is necessary to return to the public-account system in some form. To decide upon the form, the Board of Commissioners have made this remarkable investigation and report. We commend it to the Legislature of New York as worthy of their profound study before they make any more appropriations for machinery.

The news that Consul Lewis promptly upon his arrival had liberated the poor wretches who were languishing in the prisons of Tangier under trumped-up charges preferred by protégés of the late Consul, falsely claiming to be American citizens, is very gratifying. All accounts which we had given of the loathsomeness of the dungeons, the piteous sufferings of the debtors, and the widespread deception of the usurers who claimed and obtained consular protection, have been sustained by the recent despatches. But the most gratifying piece of news is the last, which speaks of the Consul's great unpopularity. This indicates more clearly than any detailed report of reforms could indicate, how thoroughly Mr. Lewis is breaking up the infamous system which so long has disgraced the Government of Morocco and the countries whose representatives have countenanced it. This being the case, we should love him for the enemies he has made, and give him all possible support. Without this support, however courageous he may be, his efforts to abolish the abuses will prove abortive. It must be remembered that those who will be injured by the destruction of these consular collecting agencies are the powerful and wealthy, and that those who are sought to be relieved from their oppression are such feeble folk, are so downtrodden and spiritless, that no active, grateful assistance can be expected from them. The former class, we have no doubt, will spread with great assiduity stories of the Consul's over-officious zeal, and endeavor to make it appear that he is an irresponsible crank. The former Consul is, we learn, still in Tangier. He has, of course, immense "influence," and he has every motive to use it to discredit his successor, who, in exposing the iniquitous practices which he found prevailing, must needs cover him with confusion. Mr. Bayard has one clear duty to perform as respects the Tangier Consulate, and we believe that he will perform it. It is either to abolish it at once, or to sustain with all the force at his command the efforts of a strong, determined agent to cleanse it.

The practice, authorized by the Consolidation Act, of calling the heads of the various city departments together to compare views and make suggestions touching the management of city business, has never borne much fruit until now. Under Mayor Hewitt it is really resulting in the production of something like a genuine "Common Council"—that is, an assemblage of responsible men, thoroughly acquainted with the affairs of the city, and desirous, as far as human nature will permit, of promoting its welfare. An approach to this was made when it was found that the elected "legislative branch" of the city government could not be safely intrusted with the control of the taxes, and the Mayor, Comptroller, President of the Board of Taxes and Assessments, and President of the Board of Aldermen were made into "the Board of Apportionment," and intrusted with complete care of the city expenses—that is, with the duty of deciding how much city revenue should be raised over and above the fixed charges, and in what manner it should be spent. It is a curious fact that very few people outside New York know that the Board of Aldermen have absolutely nothing to do with the raising or spending of the city revenues, beyond the power of criticising, if they choose, the estimates of the Board of Apportionment. In fact, we believe a large proportion of the citizens of New York are equally ignorant of this interesting anomaly. We doubt if there is anything quite like it in any other large cities. The nearest approach to it is perhaps to be found in Paris, where the Municipal Council deal with the taxes, but the Prefect of the Department possesses an absolute veto on their votes.

It is in New York partly the result of the election of Aldermen by small districts, and partly of the subordination of municipal to State and national politics. Out of these two things what is called "the "Aldermanic business" grew up—that is, the practice of considering a place in the legislative branch simply a chance for a good worker in State or national politics to make some money in any way that offered itself. To allow such a body to raise the revenues of a great commercial capital was clearly out of the question. So, after the State Legislature was induced to relinquish the privilege of approving of the city tax levy, the work was handed over to the Board of Apportionment as at present constituted. Some of its members are elected, to be sure, but they are, as the Board of Aldermen ought always to have been, elected on a general ticket, and it is composed of men whose sense of responsibility is constantly quickened by the daily performance of very important administrative work. The Board of Apportionment undoubtedly contains the germ of what a reformed city government ought to be. The direction in which the process of evolution should go on is shown in the meetings of what is now called "the Mayor's Cabinet," composed of the various heads of departments, which are held at his office every week or so.

"A long-felt want" has been again supplied. Since the tornado became recognized as a Western institution, some insurance companies have begun to extend their business so as to cover risks of this sort, and a Burlington (Iowa) corporation some months ago offered a $200 prize for the best design for a tornado cave. No less than 121 competitors appeared, and the award has been made to Lieut. Finley of the United States Signal Service at Washington, who is considered the leading "tornado sharp" in the country. The Burlington *Hawkeye* publishes sketches of the cave from various points of view, with estimates of its cost, which vary from $154 to $345, according as it is to be used independently of any building or is connected with a house having a cellar. The *Hawkeye* also publishes seventeen "hints" as to the location, construction, and equipment of a tornado cave, like the suggestion that "during the season when tornadoes are most likely to occur, the cave should be provided with all things necessary to place it in readiness for occupation at any moment of the night or day." A glance at the pictures and text of the article gives one a vivid idea of the perils of life in what may be called the tornado zone.

The "vestibule train" brought out by the Pullman Company is a remarkable advance in the appliances of railway travel, but its chief merit is not in the soft seats and beds, nor in the plush upholstery, the mirror-like woodwork, the library, the barber's room, nor even in the vestibule feature, which gives to a whole train the appearance of a suite of apartments having no connection with the outside world. These features merely carry pre-existing art to a little higher range, but do not essentially change it. The chief value of the improvement consists in the practical consolidation of the whole train into one piece, so that, when no separation of the several cars is necessary, they shall move as a single elongated car, and so that when any separation is necessary, as in going around short curves, there shall be no more than is necessary and the whole shall come together again automatically. This is accomplished by extending the principle of the tight platform to the whole front of the car, including the roof, by means of a steel plate in the shape of an ox-bow, backed by steel springs. The steel plate serves also as a further and effectual preventive of "telescoping" in case of collision. Indeed, it is impossible that one of these cars should be telescoped by any blow short of annihilation. The joining together of all the cars as one piece of course minimizes the lateral motion of each car by distributing it along the whole train.

The Irish "outrages" are playing precisely the same part in British politics to day which

the Southern outrages for some years played in American politics. They furnish precisely the same kind of reason for keeping the Tories in power which the Southern outrages used to furnish for keeping the Republicans in power. What the Tories have done or can or will do to prevent outrages in Ireland, does not appear, any more than what the Republicans did or could do to prevent outrages at the South. The Tories, therefore, ask to be kept in power as a sign that Englishmen abhor outrages, just as the Republicans asked to be kept in power as a sign that the Northern people abhorred outrages. The air in England is full, too, of terrible stories of what the Irish would do if they were let alone, in the way of plots against the empire, and schemes for the persecution of minorities, just as the air here used to be full of stories about the capers the ex-rebels would cut if the Republican party went out of power. Moreover, a large portion of the Irish outrages are reported in the form of "anecdotes," as Mr. Gladstone said, instead of statistics, just as the Southern outrages here were largely "stories" sent to the newspapers. In England, too, the names of the victims of the outrages and of the localities in which they occurred are frequently withheld in order to prevent fresh and more dreadful cruelties. In like manner, the names of the authors of the Southern "stories" were withheld, lest they should be made to suffer for blabbing. In both cases undoubtedly there were and are outrages, but if outrages once get into party politics, it is folly to prefer one party over another on account of them. If it once be made clearly to appear that capital can be made out of them, the supply becomes unlimited, and any attempt to distinguish the real from the sham becomes useless. In one of the recent debates in the House of Commons no less a person than the Irish Attorney-General, by way of showing the timidity or unfairness of Irish juries, told of one jury's acquitting a "moonlighter" on the spot, though he offered no evidence in his defence. It turned out on inquiry that the judge had directed an acquittal, owing to the nothingness of the case for the prosecution, without calling on the prisoner's counsel to produce his witnesses.

Some twenty years ago England was thrown into a state of agitation by a discussion started by Prof. Jevons regarding the probable duration of her coal supply. All the existing surveys of the coal measures were overhauled, the opinions of all the geologists were collected, and the most careful estimates of the present rate of consumption and the annual increment of consumption collated. As is usual in cases where the data are largely conjectural, the conclusions reached were widely variant, some authorities putting the duration of the effective coal supply as low as 250 years, and others as high as 800 years. By effective supply was meant such a supply as would preserve to England her superiority as a manufacturing and commercial power. Many remedies for the apprehended exhaustion of coal were suggested, such as greater economy in its use, the prohibition of exportation, the employment of tidal power, etc. Mr. Gladstone made the wise suggestion that whether the duration of the coal supply should be greater or less, and whether any substitute for coal should be discovered or not, the period of its duration should be employed as far as possible in paying off the national debt. He was then Chancellor of the Exchequer, and he carried his idea into effect. The revival of the sinking fund was due chiefly to his influence. It was to be expected, therefore, that when Mr. Goschen's budget proposed to reduce the sinking fund from £7,000,000 to £5,000,000 in order to save the payers of the income tax a penny in the pound, Mr. Gladstone would oppose it. The speech which he made in the House of Commons on Monday seems to have been tentative, rather a warning against an erroneous policy than an attack on the Government. If Mr. Goschen persists in his plan, as he probably will, we may look for an important debate, in which Mr. Gladstone's unrivalled abilities as a financier will show to the best advantage.

The obscurity which has surrounded the origin of the British quarrel with the Republic of Hayti is not surprising when one sees the facts. It appears that in 1870 an English widow named Maunders got a concession from the Haytian Government, permitting her to exploit the valuable forests of a small island, called Tortoise Island, in return for a fixed rent. She exploited the forests successfully enough, but she never paid her rent, and was accordingly sued for it before the Haytian courts, and her concession withdrawn. She thereupon fled to Jamaica, and claimed damages through her own Government to the amount of $710,000, and the British Minister backed up her claim, and, it is said, has even threatened to seize the island as security. The Haytians produced a provision of the Maunders contract that, in case of dispute, recourse should be had to arbitration, and on this proposed to refer the matter to the French Court of Cassation. On this offer being declined, they offered to leave it to President Grévy, but Mrs. Maunders rejected this also. The negotiations have thus far been in the hands of the Minister, Mr. Clement Hill, but it is not believed that the home Government will support his pretensions to the full extent. It would be a monstrous violation of international usage to give the Widow Maunders the use of the British Navy to enable her to resist the decree of the courts of a friendly, even if insignificant, power.

The French Republic grows wiser as she advances in years, and more moderate in her international temper as she gains in strength. At no time since the peace of 1871 had France less reason to be afraid of Germany than now—such is the relative condition of her army and armaments—and at no time has she exhibited such calmness of demeanor on provocation as she shows now at the insult offered to her feelings and dignity in the Schnaebelé affair. The Government acts with prudence, the press, with few exceptions, advises coolness, and the people follow the advice. It will probably turn out that Bismarck intended neither to provoke war nor to wound the honor of the Republic—in order to revenge the affront suffered at the late elections in Alsace-Lorraine—and that there was no breach of international propriety either; and everybody will be the gainer by tranquilly waiting for diplomatic explanations, which ill-tempered demonstrations would have either prevented or rendered less satisfactory. On many occasions the German Chancellor has proved that he can act like a lion at the beginning of an imbroglio, and like a lamb at the end of it. The Carolinas affair is a striking instance. It does not always clearly appear, even when everything is quieted down, what the terrifying roar was intended for, but the nations, and among them France, have learned that it is more often a harmless reminder of lordly power than an expression of a desire for fresh prey. It is, in fact, time that the notion to which Prince Meshtcherski, in his *Grazhdanin*, lately gave such loud utterance, that Bismarck is a kind of bloodthirsty Attila or Timour, ready to devour nation after nation, was given up completely. Sixteen years have elapsed since the Treaty of Frankfort ended Germany's grapple with France, and many have been the complications in European affairs, but in none of them has Bismarck sacrificed "a single Pomeranian grenadier." And he has in the meanwhile reached the age of seventy-two, an age at which even warriors think fondly of living and dying in peace.

The organ of the Mexican Government has spoken at last on the absorbing question of re-election, but in such tones as not to relieve at all the strain and uncertainty of the political situation. The Opposition papers have for weeks been vehemently interrogating the *Diario*, though without drawing its fire. They have now succeeded, however, and the result is to leave the *Diario* in a mortifying position. It loftily replied to that part of the press which charged Gen. Diaz with a lack of frankness in not having referred to the matter of the Presidential succession in his recent message, by saying that the whole affair was in the hands of Congress, and that it would not be dignified for the President to express himself upon it. To which the opposition journals have retorted, in the first place, by pointing to the action of President Blanco of Venezuela, who recently repudiated a movement to amend the Constitution of his country so as to give him a second term; and further, and triumphantly, by adducing the action and words of Diaz himself in 1879. In that year the Legislature of the State of Morelos proposed the same constitutional amendment which is now urged, and the President, in his message to the Congress of the time, explicitly denounced the project, and furthermore said, in so many words: "I solemnly declare that I will never be a candidate for reëlection, even if this were not forbidden by our Constitution, since I will always be a champion of the principles upon which the revolution of Tuxtepec [his own revolution of '76] was based." In a country where Talleyrand was not the great political oracle that he is in Mexico, the unearthing of this utterance of Gen. Diaz would put an end to the whole question; it has not done so there, however, nor will it do so. Nor is the matter settled by Gen. Diaz's declaration on Saturday that he is not a candidate for another term.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, April 20, to TUESDAY, April 26, 1887, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE President on April 21 appointed Edward F. Bingham of Ohio to be Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia, in place of the late Chief-Justice Carter. Judge Bingham has for fifteen years been Judge of the Court of Common Pleas for the Columbus District, and in 1881 was the Democratic candidate for Supreme Court Judge of the State.

There has been much talk in political circles for a week about the probability of President Cleveland's renomination. Mr. George William Curtis said in an interview published in the *Evening Post* on April 22: "There is no doubt that Mr. Cleveland is a great deal more popular now than he was in 1884. The only chance of salvation for the Democratic party is to nominate him. Unless they do so, I think their chances will be *nil*."

The Inter State Commerce Commission on April 22 made an order suspending the long and short-haul section of the law for seventy-five days, subject to revocation, and with a proviso that intermediate rates shall not be raised above those in force on April 20, for the benefit of the Northern Pacific, Southern Pacific, Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fé, and St. Louis and San Francisco Railway lines. The monotony of the early petitions for the suspension of this clause was broken on the same day by the receipt of petitions from manufacturers in San Francisco asking for the enforcement of the whole law. The Commissioners on April 25 left Washington to hold sessions in the chief Southern cities.

The Prohibition campaign in Texas is so earnestly conducted that the National Protective Association of Distillers and Wholesale Liquor-Dealers have thought it worth their attention. At a meeting of the Association at Cincinnati on April 21, it is reported a large sum of money was raised to aid the anti-Prohibitionists.

The Chickasaw Indians have had a claim against the United States for more than $600,000 with interest for improper disbursements of Cnickasaw funds held in trust by the United States. The case arose from the transfer of the tribe in 1837 and succeeding years from Mississippi to the Indian Territory, and involved a decision upon the legality, under treaty stipulations, of payments made in aid of the emigration. The Court of Claims decided April 25 that the Indians should have credit on their accounts for the sum of $240,168.58.

A plan has been formed by prominent citizens of St. Paul, Minn., to celebrate on July 4 the centennial of the passage of the Ordinance of 1787 organizing the territory northwest of the Ohio River. The intention is to invite, among other distinguished people, the Governors of all the States included in the original Northwest Territory.

A bill has passed the New York Legislature to permit Hong Yen Chang, a Chinaman, to be admitted to the bar.

The trial of Jacob Sharp, against whom twenty-one indictments have been brought for giving bribes to the New York Aldermen of 1884 to grant the franchise for the Broadway Railroad, has been set for May 11.

James H. Hamlin and Henry Heintzerting, judges at the last election in Baltimore, have been found guilty of permitting fraudulent ballots to be put in the box, and of certifying before the Grand Jury that the election was conducted legally.

A letter, which is considered genuine in Chicago, has been received there from Rudolph Schnaubelt, the Anarchist, who, it is thought, threw the bomb at the Haymarket massacre of policemen. It is dated "Christiania, Norway, March, 1887." It is supposed that he reached Norway by way of China.

The Red International Association, a Socialistic organization of the West, has caused it to be announced through one of its organs that it will instigate a "general uprising" in 1889 to seize the Government of the United States and to establish society on a Socialistic basis.

The familiar tactics of the labor organizations have again been pronounced unconstitutional, this time by the Supreme Court of Vermont. A decision was handed down April 26, in the case of the Ryegate stonecutters' conspiracy, growing out of the attempt of the workmen to prevent the employment of other workmen and to deter them from working by denouncing them as "scabs" and threatening to make them publicly odious as such, that a conspiracy among workmen to prevent others from working or being hired is a crime at common law, and punishable under the statutes of the State.

This year's edition of 'Rowell's Newspaper Directory' shows that the number of papers published in the United States, Territories (including Alaska), and Canada is 15,420, an increase of 581 in one year. In Kansas the increase in number is 89, in Nebraska 64, in Pennsylvania 35, in Ohio 30. Pennsylvania shows the largest increase in dailies, 17; Kansas in weeklies, 81; and New York in monthlies, 42. Seven States show a decrease, the most prominent instances being New Hampshire and Virginia, 6 each.

Two women, sisters, have been arrested in this city for making counterfeit silver dollars. They were not assisted in the work by any male accomplices.

Miss Mary Garrett of Baltimore, the only daughter of the late John W. Garrett, has offered to give the Johns Hopkins University permanently the annual sum of $35,000 to sustain a scientific school, if, according to her father's wishes, the institution be removed to Clifton, the country seat of the founder, the late Johns Hopkins.

A year ago the firm of Norton Brothers of Chicago adopted a profit-sharing system with their employees who should work at least six months, and should not go out of their employment without the firm's consent, and should not be dismissed for good cause. On April 21 the firm divided $13,275 among the 250 employees, every one receiving nearly 7¾ per cent. on his earnings. John Mundell & Co., manufacturers of shoes in Philadelphia, who employ about 500 persons, are maturing a somewhat similar plan.

Queen Kapiolani of the Hawaiian Kingdom arrived with her suite at San Francisco April 20, on her way to London, to be present at Queen Victoria's jubilee celebration in June. The royal party will visit Washington, and, before returning to Honolulu, they will see the principal cities of the world. Simultaneously Prince Leopold of Prussia and Prince Louis Esterhazy of Austria were in San Francisco, having arrived from Asia on their tour around the world.

A statue of John C. Calhoun was unveiled at Charleston, S. C., April 26, with impressive ceremonies. Secretary Lamar delivered an oration.

The Logan memorial fund, raised by private subscriptions, to be given to Mrs. John A. Logan, amounts to nearly $63,000, and the custodian has prepared a report to the subscribers.

Services in memory of the late ex-President Arthur were conducted in the Capitol at Albany April 20. Ex-Attorney-General Brewster and Mr. Chauncey M. Depew delivered orations.

Lieut. John W. Danenhower of the navy committed suicide, in a period of despondency, at Annapolis April 20. It was he who was in command of the whaleboat which contained the only part of the crew of the *Jeannette* that survived the Arctic expedition under Commander De Long. James H. Marr, chief clerk to the First Assistant Postmaster-General, died April 25. He had served nearly fifty-six years continuously in the Post-office Department. He entered it during the Administration of President Jackson, and had served under twenty-six Postmasters-General. In 1881 Congress increased the salary of his office $500 per annum during his incumbency.

FOREIGN.

Mr. Goschen, Chancellor of the British Exchequer, introduced the budget in the House of Commons on April 21. Last year the revenues of the Government amounted to about £90,000,000, and the expenses to nearly the same sum. There has been a saving of £263,000 in the army estimates, and of £347,000 in the estimates for the civil service. The revenue from taxes on alcoholic liquors had decreased £190,000, that from the beer tax had increased £45,000, that from the wine taxes had fallen off £93,000, and that from the tax on tea had largely increased. Sir William Harcourt had estimated that the surplus for the year would be £259,000, while it really reached £776,000. The budget estimates the revenue for the coming year at £91,155,000, and the expenditures at £90,180,000. It is proposed to raise £100,000 by charging 10s. transfer duty on each 100 debentures of stock, which has hitherto almost escaped duty. To clear the budget of local loans, it is intended to cancel £37,000,000 of other portions of the public debt and create the same amount of local loan stock, charging the local loan budget with an annuity of £100,000. It is also proposed to take 1d. per £1 off the income tax, and 4d. per £1 off the tobacco tax, and to reduce the taxation on marine policies. Many of the proposals in the budget, notably those relating to national-debt charges, will be vigorously opposed in the House of Commons.

On the 26th Mr. Gladstone criticised the budget, contending that its main proposals were at variance with sound financial principles. The proposals to change stamp duties would facilitate business upon local loans. He would give no unfavorable opinion, except to say that the concurrent creation of new per cent. stock would be a great disadvantage. Regarding the tobacco duty, it was easier to reduce it than to get rid of it. The manufacturers of tobacco would certainly be benefited, but the reduction would never reach the consumer. The reduction of the income tax was against sound financial principles, because such a reduction should arise from a rigid system of public economy, not at the expense of the sinking fund. The House had been asked to reduce the fund from £7,000,000 to £5,000,000. Serious reflection could not warrant a proceeding so opposed to the traditions, so contrary to the interests of the British nation. Lord Randolph Churchill also criticised the budget, and Mr. Goschen defended it.

Mr. Gladstone has written that he attaches very high value to the manifestations of American sympathy with the Irish people in the crisis created by the causeless, insulting, and insidious bill at present before Parliament, and has asked that an endeavor be made to present some estimate of the aggregate numbers of persons by whom recent meetings in America to express sympathy with Ireland have been attended, and especially an estimate of the numbers of Governors, Mayors, Senators, Representatives, clergymen, and other official or highly responsible persons by whom such meetings have been countenanced. Mr. Fitzgerald, the President of the American Branch of the Land League, is making an effort to collect this information.

Continued expressions have been reported daily of the popular disapproval in the United Kingdom of the Coercion Bill, and many of the leaders of both parties have found occasions for more speeches. Lord Salisbury, in an address before the Primrose League on the sixth anniversary of the death of the Earl of Beaconsfield, said the hollow agitation carried on during the Easter holidays by the Opposition had failed, and that the Government's cause was the country's. Mr. Gladstone's imagination deceived

him when he attempted to prove that his party's prospects were very bright. He criticised the Liberals for association with men with blood-stained hands and for dependence on murderous organizations. Mr. John Morley, addressing an audience at Wolverhampton, declared that no other great leader than Gladstone had ever launched a great issue or fought for a great cause with a spirit so entirely forgetful of its own personality, and so entirely shutting out the mean and ignoble considerations which seemed to affect ignoble minds. Sir William Harcourt, in a speech at East London, endorsed Earl Spencer's recent assertion that there was no evidence which showed that the Parnellites had ever associated with criminals. He said that, in view of Mr. Parnell's denial of the accusations made against him, it remained for his accusers to substantiate their charges. Mr. Gladstone has written that he does not desire a general election to Parliament until the English mind is as ripe on the Irish question as the Welsh and Scotch minds are, but that time is rapidly advancing. "Anyhow," he says, "I am prepared to face anything to defeat coercion. I continue to hope for much from vigorous action on the part of the constituencies whose representatives in Parliament have the decisive votes on the issue."

Of the 203 amendments to the Crimes Bill, the Parnellites have contributed 88, Gladstonians 69, Conservatives 38, and Unionists 8. It is thought that 100 more amendments will be added before the final vote on the bill is taken.

John Bright, advocating a continuance of free trade in England, has written a letter in which he says that the reason other nations maintain high tariffs is, that those who are protected are an organized army, while the consumers are merely a mob. The United States, under a system of protection, he declares, are burdened with a large surplus revenue, yet refuse to lessen duties, thus promoting a system of corruption unequalled in any other country.

It was published in London on April 20 that Lord Salisbury had offered to the United States Government to revert to the fishery clauses of the Washington Treaty without compensation. No statement concerning such a despatch has been made by Secretary Bayard. The London *Times's* comment is that the offer is "generous, almost Quixotic." "To do more," it says, "would be weakness."

A "multicycle" for military use has been invented and constructed, and is soon to be tested at Aldershot, England. It is a vehicle, shaped like a long racing boat, on which a dozen soldiers can sit in single file and propel it at the rate of sixteen miles an hour, and can draw eight baggage wagons after them. It is steered by one man, will travel over rough roads, and turns in less space than an ordinary hansom. It is an English invention and is not to be offered abroad.

The English racing cutter *Thistle*, which is to come to America to compete for the *America's* cup, was launched April 26 on the Clyde.

The Government's Ecclesiastical Bill, having passed the Upper House of the Prussian Diet, was the subject of a warm debate in the Lower House. National-Liberal leaders spoke against it, and on the 21st Prince Bismarck spoke in favor of it for more than an hour, declaring that the bill must be accepted in the shape in which it passed the Upper House, as had been agreed upon between Prussia and the Vatican, because peace with the Church was desirable both for internal and external reasons. In conclusion he said that if the bill was not accepted unchanged, he must resign, so far as his authority in Prussia was concerned. The bill passed the Lower House April 26, on the second reading, in the form in which the Upper House approved it. The German Government has introduced a bill in the Reichstag for a loan of 172,000,000 marks for the completion of the army equipment.

The *Volks-Zeitung* (Berlin) brought an action for libel against Prince Bismarck for an attack upon that paper made by him in a speech in the Reichstag, and the court has decided that it has no jurisdiction in the matter, as the Prince, being a German general, is amenable only to a military tribunal.

An official report on German emigration presented to the Reichstag shows that the number of emigrants from Germany who passed through Hamburg, Bremen, and Stettin during the year 1886 was 66,671, a decrease of 22,000 from the previous year. The emigration from Austria-Hungary, Russia, Sweden, and Norway through the same ports in 1886 was largely in excess of that of 1885. Most of the German emigrants were from the farming districts of Prussia.

Many Polish peasants, possessors of small estates, are emigrating from Posen and western Prussia to the United States; and a movement to America of Fins is reported.

It was reported from Rome by way of London on April 21 that the Vatican is renewing its efforts to induce the Rev. Dr. McGlynn of New York to go to Rome, and that the Pope's decision of the controversy about the Church's attitude to the Knights of Labor has displeased many of the reactionary Cardinals, who have signed a remonstrance addressed to the Holy See, maintaining that the Knights' organization contains all the elements of Socialism, and that the case ought to be reconsidered. The Pope has ordered the Catholic press to avoid discussion of the matter.

In the Italian Chamber of Deputies April 25 Gen. Viale, Minister of War, on the passage of the bill calling out 17,000 reserves for active service, announced that fresh reinforcements were required for the Massowah garrison. It is stated that 32,000,000 francs will be required to meet the extra military expenditures.

On April 21 a French commissary named Schnaebelé, who was stationed at Pagny-sur-Moselle, was arrested by German police and imprisoned at Metz. This incident has ever since been the absorbing topic of discusston in Europe, and the French and German Governments are conducting correspondence, and their Ministers are holding conferences about it. Cabinet councils have been held at both capitals. On April 26 a long despatch was received at Paris from M. Herbette, the French Ambassador at Berlin, describing an interview he had had with Count Herbert Bismarck, the German Foreign Minister, and it was reported that the German Minister of Justice for Alsace-Lorraine had been instructed to make an entirely fresh investigation of the affair. The circumstances of the arrest have not yet been made entirely clear. Schnaebelé was probably arrested on German soil; but it is asserted and denied both that he was decoyed and that he was a spy. The German Government expects to prove that he was arrested on German ground, and that he is guilty of complicity in a system of espionage of anti-German agitation. A rumor has gained circulation that Bismarck expects to implicate Gen. Boulanger in Schnaebelé's treason. While the incident has not yet really made war imminent, the situation is sufficiently serious for the Pope to have offered his mediation and for the French newspapers to be congratulating France that 200,000 men are under arms. The stock markets, especially at Paris, have been depressed. The latest report is that, if an arbitrator has to be chosen, France will prefer the King of the Belgians.

Victor Hugo's will, which has just been admitted to probate, shows that he had property in England valued at £92,000. His daughter and grandchildren are the sole heirs. An annuity of £400 is left to the widow of his son Charles.

The Russian Government has prevented Russian admirers of Gen. Boulanger from sending him a sword of honor, because such an act would create erroneous impressions in regard to Russia's foreign policy.

Reports of the discovery of more Nihilistic plots come from Russia. A chorister in the Military Academy church at St. Petersburg committed suicide April 21, and his house was discovered to be a Nihilist rendezvous. A quantity of dynamite, arms, and revolutionary documents were found. The Czar has given up his plan of staying several weeks in St. Petersburg, and has returned to Gatchina, because, it is said, of the arrests of a number of persons who had taken positions along one of the thoroughfares to kill him.

Russia has issued a 4 per cent. internal loan amounting to 100,000,000 rubles at 84 per cent. The Government will accept the bonds at their face value as security from contractors employed on public works.

A fresh pro-Russian conspiracy has been discovered at Sofia. Several men who formerly were officers in the Bulgarian Army have been arrested for participation in it.

Emperor Francis Joseph has written a letter to Archduke Albrecht congratulating him upon the sixtieth anniversary of his entry into the Austrian Army. Numerous fêtes and receptions have been given in his honor.

Two Englishmen displaying the American flag recently imprisoned a Hebrew merchant of Alcazar, Morocco, for debt. They took him in chains to Tangier, parading him through three towns on the way. The outrage was aggravated by the fact that it was inflicted during the period of the Passover. The principal Hebrews of Tangier have joined in an appeal to the French, Portuguese, and British Consuls for assistance in an attempt to have all the governments unite in an effort to suppress the system of consular abuses under which these outrages are perpetrated.

Advices from Stanley, dated March 25, have been received from Matadi, on the Congo River. When his expedition reached Boma, the seat of the general administration of the Congo Free State, a cordial reception was given to it. Mr. Stanley was confident of the success of his enterprise, and hoped that by June he should be able to render effectual assistance to Emin Bey by surprising the enemies that hedge him. The English and French mission stations of the Upper Congo have been asked to place their two steamers at his service. The appointment of Tippu Tib to the Governorship of Stanley Falls is regarded as a master stroke of Mr. Stanley's.

The conference of representatives of the five Central American States which recently met in Guatemala drew up a comprehensive plan to further the establishment of a permanent confederation, and to "provide for their final fusion into one country." The agreement provides that differences between any two of the States shall be decided by arbitration. All the republics bind themselves to respect the independence of every one of them, and to prohibit the preparation in any one of armed expeditions against any other. Citizens of any State shall enjoy similar privileges and rights throughout them all. The constitutions of the States which do not contain this proviso are to be amended. An international Congress is to assemble every two years, and the Congress which shall convene in 1890 is empowered to perfect the confederation, if present obstacles shall be removed.

The Mexican Chamber of Deputies has passed the bill to amend the Constitution which makes the President ineligible for two successive terms. This is interpreted as a preparation for the reëlection of President Diaz, in spite of his assertion that he is not seeking a renomination.

The Canadian Department of Agriculture reports that the tide of immigration to Manitoba and the Northwest promises to be unprecedented this spring and summer, especially from England.

Resolutions against the Coercion Bill were passed in the Canadian House of Commons April 26 by a vote of 135 to 47.

THE ONE THING NEEDFUL.

EVERYBODY who pays any attention to such Democratic expressions of opinion as come from representative newspapers and politicians all over the country, knows very well that the talk of President Cleveland's not being renominated is simply what Beaconsfield called "the harebrained chatter of irresponsible frivolity." The two Democratic newspapers which have been foremost in disputing his claim on the party for a second term, the New York *Sun* and the Louisville *Courier-Journal*, do not, as far as we have been able to observe, exert the smallest influence on any serious subject on the opinions of any rational human being. Lovers of small fun read the political articles of the one; lovers of blatherskite read the political articles of the other; but party nominations are neither made nor hindered by the funny people or the blatherskites. With all the sober-minded men of the party Mr. Cleveland's renomination is a foregone conclusion, for two reasons. One is, as we pointed out some weeks ago, that the arguments against renominating him cannot be revealed. They are arguments which politicians whisper to each other in hotel corridors, or communicate to reporters, on condition that their names are not to be mentioned. But they are not arguments which sober-minded newspapers can embody in articles, or sober-minded orators produce on the stump.

The other reason, and the greatest one of all—the reason, in fact, which includes or swallows up all others—is that Mr. Cleveland is the only candidate the Democratic party has got. This fact, of course, did not come out prominently until the chatter about rejecting him began. Then, when those who were disposed to consider the possibility of doing without him began to look about for a substitute, they were appalled by finding that they were looking into an aching void. The party, they saw, has got to take Cleveland once more—first, because it has nobody else, and, secondly, because he is the only man it can possibly elect. All the Democratic newspapers which are worth considering, as we have said, acknowledge this. All the leading Democratic politicians recognize it. Everybody of note in the party is making haste to repudiate or contradict all stories connecting him in any manner with arguments against Mr. Cleveland's renomination, or reports that for any reason whatever, including his refusal, he would not be renominated.

If all this be true, and we do not believe it can be successfully gainsaid, the activity displayed by some of his subordinates in getting ready for the nominating convention, by making and filling vacancies in the public service, shoving Republicans out without cause, and shoving Democrats in, making bargains and promises, and dickering and dealing about offices, becomes perfectly incomprehensible. This sort of work enables managers to control conventions, we admit, but the day has gone by when it enabled them to control elections, for the simple reason that no nomination on either side is nowadays sufficient to carry with certainty the full party vote. We venture to assert that it is in the States in which the President has permitted most of this dickering and dealing, that he would be to-day weakest at the polls, however faithful to him the delegations from these States might be in the Convention. Nay, we will go further, and say that the only thing which to-day would put his chances in peril at the polls in any State carried by him in 1884, are those departures from the programme traced in his letter to the National Reform League, which some of his followers have made in the insane delusion that they would thereby "strengthen the party"—as if the party had or could gain strength from any source except the promise of improved administration which it was able to make to the country by and through Mr. Cleveland. In short, it is the election and not the renomination which all true friends, both of the President and of the Democratic party, now need to look to.

If it be asked what the things are which will make for his reëlection, we answer that they are the very things which have made his renomination inevitable, namely, the good he has done and the enemies he has made. When one considers the hold on the intelligent and industrious voters which such acts as the rescue of the New York Post office from politics, the veto of the Pension Bill, the appointment of Mr. Fairchild to the Treasury, and, above all, the manner in which he has filled the Inter-State Commerce Commission, have given him—when one considers the weight which such acts have as arguments with everybody in the United States who labors and saves, loves his country and desires to see the Government in safe hands—one is amazed at the want of confidence indicated by the license or encouragement given to the trumpery activity of the office-brokers, every one of whose tricks alienates probably fifty voters for the one drone whom it placates, or for whom it provides a livelihood.

THE KNIGHTS AND THE TRADES.

THE process of reducing the Order of Knights of Labor to an absurdity goes on slowly but very surely. Almost every day now produces some incident illustrating the impracticability and folly of trying to give the whole community a voice in settling the affairs of each individual. This is really what the organization aims at. It proposes to make up boards or assemblies composed of men of all callings except bankers, brokers, gamblers, and liquor-dealers, and give them the right to meddle in the private concerns of everybody within a certain district who lives by wages. The result, thus far, has been that we have seen a cigarmaker from Albany telling silk-weavers in New Jersey when to quit work; bookbinders and hackmen and coopers meddling in the disputes of coal-heavers and 'longshoremen and freight-handlers; and 'longshoremen, freight-handlers, and coal-heavers trying to get stationary engineers to leave their work.

We are witnessing probably the most curious illustration of all this in the case of the silver-chasers who are now locked out. These men follow a trade which is on the very verge of art, if it be not really art itself. They are and have to be a highly intelligent body of men. Some of them receive as much as $50 a week, or in other words, much more than most clergymen, or professors, or lawyers, or doctors, or clerks. It appears that a large proportion of them have joined the Knights of Labor. Now, what do they gain by this? Simply the right to take a hand in managing the business of handicraftsmen of a much lower grade, about which they know absolutely nothing. And what do they concede in exchange for it? Neither more nor less than the right of 'longshoremen, hackmen, car-drivers, and coal-heavers to decide how the business of chasing silver should be conducted and paid. And what is the origin of this extraordinary arrangement? Simply a curious delusion, largely circulated by the aid of dreamy social speculators, that the men who work with their hands have interests separate from and even opposed to the rest of the community, and can make themselves rich and happy by uniting to wage war on everybody who works with his head, or has saved money and is living on it; and that the capitalists have somewhere a vast treasure which, if the manual laborers could get hold of the Government, would be distributed in annual dividends, that would give everybody abundance of leisure and lots of fun.

The complaint of the employers in the case of the silver-chasers is two-fold: first, that the men deny their right to decide how many apprentices they shall keep, although it is not maintained that the number has been so great as to deprive any skilled workmen of full work. The trouble about apprentices has mainly arisen out of the charge that they were used to do work which would otherwise have to be done by a journeyman. In the case of the chasers it is acknowledged that there are not enough competent men to do the work which offers itself. Consequently the objection to apprentices in this case is simply due to the old-fashioned desire to keep down the number of persons in the trade, or, in other words, to make silver-chasing as much of a monopoly as possible. All the skilled trades, we believe, share in this feeling. They therefore seek to deny to all but a very small number of youths the privilege of learning their art. We have read and heard a great many expositions of the views of "Labor" on the constitution of society, but we have never come across a defence of this denial which was anything more than an expression of selfishness in its most brutal form. To say that a youth shall not learn one of the arts of civilization simply because he would become a competitor of those who already practise it, is tyranny of the coarsest kind. The nearest approach to it the modern world has seen is the denial to the slaves at the South of the privilege of learning to read. We can understand and sympathize with the desire to exact the very highest tests of skill and proficiency from any one seeking to enter a trade, no matter how difficult the entrance to it might thus be made; but to refuse to allow a young man to acquire the skill and proficiency if he can, is the act of a barbarian. Any man, whether employer or not, who prescribes, encourages, or connives at such a prohibition is, so far, an enemy of civi-

zation, and, we may add, no friend of his fellow-men.

The second complaint of the employers of the silver-chasers is, that they found that District Assembly 49, or, in other words, the hackmen and coal-heavers and car-drivers, were being called in to decide how the business of silver-chasing should be carried on. This is, on its face, a condition to which no rational man could submit a large capital such as most dealers in silverware are obliged to possess. The great objection to such an arrangement is that it is not a human arrangement—that is, it is totally opposed to the plans and principles by which the affairs of sane men in all callings have been successfully conducted since the dawn of civilization. If men had always acted on this plan to the fullest extent, we never should have had any civilization at all, and in so far as they have acted on it civilization has been retarded.

Mr. Alexander, the Secretary of the Executive Board of Brass and Silver-Workers, has written a letter to the *Times*, for the most part very temperate, in which he complains of the employers' locking out all the silver-chasers as a "boycott." If he will change his point of view very slightly, we think he will see that what the employers have done is simply to retire from the silver-chasing business until they see their way to carrying it on on what they consider favorable conditions. They are no more bound to carry it on under any and all conditions than the silver-chasers are to continue in it. The trouble with those who organize sympathetic strikes is, that they do not recognize in other men the right they claim for themselves, to suspend their industry on general considerations. No capitalist is bound to go into or stay in any business, in any country, under circumstances which he thinks would put it in danger or make it unprofitable. What Labor needs of all things to learn in this country is the timidity and fugaciousness of capital.

AN AMERICAN APPLICATION OF ENGLISH ELECTION METHODS.

A VERY interesting bill is pending in the Michigan Legislature, which is notable as the first attempt that has been made to apply some of the principles of the English election laws to our system of balloting. It is properly entitled a "bill to preserve the purity of elections and guard against abuses of the elective franchise." The first section makes the provision which is the foundation of all reform in this direction, namely, that "all ballots hereafter voted at any election in the State of Michigan, held in any incorporated city thereof containing over 10,000 inhabitants, shall be printed by the State." The ballots are to be of three different colors. Constitutional amendments and candidates for Presidential electors and State officers are to be voted for upon a white ballot. Candidates for Congress, circuit judge, probate judge, sheriff, county clerk, county treasurer, prosecuting attorney, and a few other offices, mainly county, are to be voted for upon a blue ballot. Candidates for the Legislature and city and ward offices are to be voted for upon a red ballot. The white ballots are to be printed by the Secretary of State and bound in blocks of 400 ballots each, the expense to be defrayed from the State Treasury. The blue ballots are to be printed and bound in the same way by the county clerk, and the expense defrayed from the county treasury. The red ballots are to be printed and bound in the same way by the city clerk, and the expense defrayed from the city treasury.

Any person can have his name as a candidate placed upon the ballots by presenting to the officers in charge of the printing of the different ballots a certificate of his nomination by any assembly, gathering, or convention of citizens qualified to vote for any candidate for such office, provided he present his name thirty days before election if he be a candidate for a State office, twenty days if for a county office, and ten days if for a city office, and on payment of a fee of $50 for a State, $25 for a county, and $10 for a city office. The ballots are to be of uniform size, and to have the name of State, county, or city and ward printed at the top. The names of candidates are to be printed after the name of the office and in the order in which they are handed in. After each candidate's name, his politics shall be designated. Opposite to each candidate's name in the margin of the ballot there shall be a vacant space in which the voter shall designate his choice by a cross (X). The form of the ballot for Governor would be as follows:

STATE BALLOT.

		Vote for one
Governor — CYRUS G. LUCE — Republican.	X	
Governor — GEORGE L. YAPLE — Fusion.		
Governor — SAMUEL DICKIE — Prohibition.		
Governor —		

The blank space at the bottom is required on each ticket, and the voter can write in it the name of any person for whom he desires to vote, whose name is not printed on the ballot. Any State, county, or city clerk failing to perform his duties as prescribed shall be punished by a fine not less than $100, nor more than $1,000, or imprisoned not less than thirty days, nor more than two years, or by both such fine and imprisonment.

Elections are to be held in districts each containing not more than 300 voters. At each polling place there shall be provided boxes for voting, as many in number as the kinds of ballots voted, one box painted white, one red, and one blue. In the room in which the board of election sits, or immediately adjoining it, there shall be a number of compartments so constructed that a voter can retire into them and be free from observation. When a voter presents himself, an inspector of election, after ascertaining that he is entitled to vote, shall tear from the blocks a ballot of each kind that is to be voted, and, placing his (the inspector's) initials upon the back of each, shall hand them to the voter. The latter shall then retire to a compartment and there indicate by a cross in the margin the candidate for each office for whom he wishes to vote. He shall then fold the ballots so that their faces shall be concealed, but so that the initials of the inspector may be seen upon the backs, and then he shall offer them to the inspectors, who will put them in their proper boxes. No person shall be allowed to remain in the voting-room except the officers of election and policemen, and the number of voters admitted at one time shall in no case exceed the number of compartments by more than two. The inspectors may limit the time during which a voter may remain while preparing and depositing his ballots, but such limitation shall not be less than five nor more than fifteen minutes.

If an elector inadvertently spoils a ballot, he may return it and obtain another, but the inspector must preserve the spoiled one and return it to the proper clerk, together with all unused ballots, no more of which must be torn from the block than are required in the voting. No ballot can be deposited without the inspector's initials. No ballots can be distributed except in the voting-room, and any person removing any of the ballots from that room shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and subject to fine or imprisonment or both. When a voter makes oath that he cannot read, or for any reason cannot mark his ballot, one inspector, in presence of all the others, shall mark it as he designates, and any inspector who discloses how such an elector has voted, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor and subject to the penalty therefor. It is made unlawful for any election officer or any person in the voting-room or compartments to persuade or endeavor to persuade any person to vote for any particular candidate, and the penalty is a fine not exceeding $500 or imprisonment not exceeding sixty days.

The different coloring for the ballots strikes us as entirely unnecessary, though there is no objection to it. The divisions into State, county, and city could be made just as effectively by having the titles to that effect printed upon the backs where the inspectors' initials are put. The printing of his politics after each candidate's name is a defect which ought not to be allowed to remain in the law. It is allowed in many States, but in New York it is expressly forbidden to indicate in any way upon the ticket the political party to which the candidates upon it belong. If we are to have a perfectly free and untrammelled ballot, the voter, when he goes into the seclusion of the compartment to mark his ballot, ought to have no political designation to guide him. He ought to be free to choose his candidates upon their merits. The only proper guidance for him to follow would be the information required to be put on the ballots by the English laws, namely, the address and occupation of each candidate.

In general, this Michigan proposal is an admirable one, and is a distinct sign of progress. Like the Wisconsin law, which is to go into force on June 1 of this year, it provides for the abolition of some of the most pernicious and corrupting influences about the polls. It takes the distribution of ballots out of the hands of political "heelers" and "strikers"; it makes it impossible for those agents of corruption and intimidation to get near the polls, and it removes the polling places themselves from the liquor-saloons, where it has come to be the custom to locate the greater part of them in all our large cities. These are reforms of the greatest moment, which ought to be secured without delay in every city in the land.

THE ITALIAN ARMY.—1887.

FLORENCE, March 26, 1887.

"EVERY citizen is a soldier," may now be truly said in Italy, for, indeed, every male citizen between the ages of eighteen and thirty-nine, capable of bearing arms, is bound to do so at his country's call. The formation of the Italian Army since 1860 has been the constant care of King, Government, Parliament, and of the few veterans left from the old revolutionary campaigns. The method adopted is simple, and as merciful as the barbarous institution of a standing army can be. This army is divided into three categories: (1) the permanent army, composed of men in active service—varying from eighteen to twenty-eight years of age; (2) the mobile militia destined to support the active army, protect its operations, insure its communications and provision, garrison fortresses, etc., and liable to be called to perform the same service as the first category in cases of necessity; (3) the territorial militia, destined for defence of the State and for coöperation with the mobile militia when required. These divisions correspond pretty closely to the permanent army, the Landwehr, and the Landsturm in Austria and Germany, to the active, territorial, and territorial-reserve army in France.

Taking the recruiting law and the population merely, you would say Italy has over 3,000,000 of soldiers; but death, sickness, disability, avoidance, exemption reduce this number considerably, so that the figures for the 1st of January, 1887, stand thus:

First category, active service...	802,687	Permanent army.
Mobile militia at their homes, but liable to be called out at any moment	365,717	
Territorial militia.....	1,128,928	
In the navy, for which service fishermen, coasting traders, and sailors of the merchant service are drawn in the seaboard cities.....	16,061	
Total.....	2,403,393	

On the 1st of January the syndic of each commune informs every youth who will that year be eighteen, that he must enter his name on the levy rolls of his commune. From the 1st to the 15th of February the lists of all who have or ought to have inscribed their names are published, rectified, and sent to the prefect or sub-prefect. Every year the Minister of War proposes the number of men to be called to arms—*i. e.*, the contingent for the first category. When Parliament has approved, increased, or decreased the numbers, they are sent to the prefect, who is also the president of the levy council, a body composed of two provincial counsellors, two officers of or above the rank of captain, an officer of the carbineers, and a surgeon-doctor. On the day fixed for the conscription, a member of the prefecture, an officer of the carbineers, and the syndics meet at the chief town of the district; the lists are again diligently scrutinized to erase the dead, those who figure in other communes, etc. Then the lots are drawn. Excluded from the "lottery" are any who did not present themselves at former levies, or who this time did not voluntarily inscribe their names, or who were rejected "provisionally" in other years; all the others take their chance. Say, for instance, that the year's contingent for the first category is 75,000 men, that the total number of youths of eighteen in that year is 260,000, that the military district A offers 3,500 conscripts, the proportion stands thus: Enrolled in all Italy, 260,000; contingent required, 76,000; inscribed in district A, 3,500; soldiers taken, 1,023. Hence the heart-burning and suspense of the 3,500 till cruel fate has dealt out the numbers from 1 to 1,023. But even then the misery of those who have drawn higher numbers is not ended. The cripples, hunchbacks, deaf and dumb, and idiots are excluded, of course, but then there are men below regulation height (one metre fifty-four centimetres), sickly, weakly, and otherwise afflicted, only sons, or eldest sons with brothers twelve years younger, or whose father is seventy, eldest sons of a widow, only nephew of a childless uncle of seventy or of a widowed aunt, eldest brothers of orphans, one who has already a brother in active service, or who has volunteered, or has died or been disabled on the field! As all these are exempted from the first and second and passed into the third or territorial militia category, the others do not feel safe till the examining commission of officers and doctors has reported, and, their report being accepted, the actual lists have been published. Then comes the destination of the new conscripts, to be settled by the commanders of the district, who is guided by the necessities of the corps and the special adaptations of the conscripts. The strong, sun-burnt peasants generally get sent to the artillery and engineers, the mountaineers to the Alpine regiments, etc., care being taken to recruit the regiments with men from all the five zones into which military Italy is divided.

Once their destination settled, the infantry are dressed at the depots, the others at their respective corps. The dress of the soldier is his own, and at the end of his term he may sell it at its estimated value to the contractors, so that he keeps his clothes as tidy as he can. The time of service for those of the first category is twelve years in the permanent army, *i. e.*, three under arms, six in *congedo illimitato* (on furlough), but liable to be recalled at any moment, then three in the mobile militia; afterwards they pass into the territorial militia, subject to so many days' instruction every year; finally, at the age of forty, they secure their *congedo assoluto*, and can only be called on in case of a levy in mass. The second category pass eight years as complementary troops of the permanent army, and are reckoned on to fill up the blanks caused by death, sickness, desertion, or prisoners of war; then these too pass into the territorial militia. The cavalry soldiers pass four years under arms, five on furlough, then pass into the territorial militia. The royal carbineers, chosen from the finest, strongest, best-conducted youth, pass five years under arms, five on furlough, attached the whole time of service to the permanent army.

Perfect equality there is not, as any youth whose parents or guardians consent, may, in his seventeenth year, inscribe himself as a volunteer of one year on payment of a sum (varying from $1,200 to $1,500 for infantry, $1,500 to $2,000 for cavalry) into the military treasury, where it serves to pay such soldiers as choose, after their compulsory term is over, to remain in the ranks. Also, volunteers must produce a certificate of having passed an examination in the superior elementary schools; these pass one year under arms, seven on provisional furlough, four in the mobile militia, and need not complete their term of service until twenty-six years of age, and this facility may be extended to the university students of the first category by special permit of the Minister of War in time of peace. Of these volunteers such as have passed an examination for the first year in a lyceum or technical school may be made corporals after six, and sergeants after twelve months' service. Again, if they choose to remain another six months and pass a fresh examination, with the consent of their superior officers, they pass lieutenants, and after still another six months are licensed remaining complementary officers. Or a sergeant of one year's service may pass to the military school in Modena, and, after two years, issue lieutenant. At Turin there is a war school for the officers destined for the staff, etc., a school for artillery and engineers, a military academy. Four military colleges, at Milan, Florence, Messina, and Rome, prepare boys to pass into the academy. There is a normal cavalry school at Pinerolo; three battalions of instruction for the infantry sub-officers and the sanitary corps, and other depots in various cities; a national institute for the sons of officers and soldiers; a military orphanage at Naples.

Save in cases of special promotion on the battle-field, an officer must serve two years as second lieutenant to pass to first lieutenant, another two to become captain, another four to become major, three as major to become lieutenant-colonel, two to become colonel. This is the minimum, but many pass years and years without promotion. No lieutenant can marry without a deposit of 40,000 francs, a captain of 30,000, a major of 20,000. Soldiers, on the other hand, are free to marry before or after their three-years' term is over.

The sanitary corps has special regulations, and they are deemed especially hard. Rarely does a medical student who has served as a one-year volunteer complete his expensive medical education and obtain his degree until he is twenty-six years of age. Then he must pass seven months in the military sanitary institution in Florence, where he passes three in purely manual military exercise. Then promotion in the army for the sanitary corps is slow and rare, so that the greater portion prefer to seek a *condotta* (become parish doctors), or a position in the universities and hospitals, or to practise on their own account. Competent writers admit unwillingly that, if Italy were to engage in war, the sanitary department would be found in a somewhat unsatisfactory condition. The question has been brought before Parliament; the *Military Review*, an excellent periodical, is taking up the question. This would be a sad mischance, as the medical corps during the revolutionary wars distinguished itself. Garibaldi's "surgeon soldiers" were famous for their courage in picking up and tending the wounded under fire, and this when no providential red-cross international neutrality protected them.

To conclude, military Italy stands thus: Out of a population of thirty millions (the census of '85 gave 29,699,785), the following numbers compose the three categories of the national army: Permanent army, first category, 802,687; permanent army, second category, mobile militia, 365,717; territorial militia, 1,128,928; navy, 16,061; total, 2,403,393.

When first united Italy called on all her citizens to become soldiers, great was the aversion in the provinces hitherto free from conscription. The peasants especially shirked, and the priests assisted in hiding them. But as soon as the registers were in proper hands, the missing ones were sought for, found, and punished. Now the *renitents* are few, the deserters fewer. The fact that all, rich and poor, must serve as soldiers, and cannot provide substitutes save in certain cases of one brother for another, has done much to diminish the repugnance of the peasants and artisans. Target shooting has popularized the use of arms. The regional "target" is under the direction of the Minister of War. All the districts may found a society when one hundred citizens are inscribed. To-day in 2,300 districts there are 611 societies. The council is elected partly by the members, partly by Government officers; the members are composed of students, soldiers, and men who have served their time. All who can, pay 3 francs annually, the poor nothing, and receive the cartridges gratis; those who can, pay 8 centimes a shot. The carbines are provided by the Government, which, with the province and the commune, supplies the necessary funds. Every year there is a shooting match; the emulation is great, and the prizes highly esteemed.

Grievous is it to think that so large a portion of the population should spend their youth and strength in learning the art of killing; but, all things considered, the methods employed for the formation of the army and for keeping it up to the regulation standard are as fair and equal as can be. A standing army is, alas, a costly affair. At the best, Italy's income is, for the present year, to be 1,719,027,139 francs. Of this the army consumes for ordinary and extraordinary expenses 257,000,000, the navy 85,000,000; whereas for public instruction only 37,000,000 are expended.

J. W. M.

THE CATHEDRAL OF ORVIETO.

Rome, April 6, 1887.

Looking over the various objects preserved in the Archivio of Orvieto, the architect in charge of the restorations, Sig. Zampi, one of the thoughtful and faithful restorers who, I believe, can be found nowhere but in Italy, pointed out a worm-eaten and faded drawing on parchment of a façade, evidently a scheme of that of the Cathedral, differing essentially from the actual façade of Maitani, but with so many features in common that it was clearly an earlier scheme, abandoned for that actually carried out. What had directed the conjectures of Zampi to the probable authorship of the earlier plan was the fact that the famous pilasters of the façade, containing the Bible history in a series of bas reliefs known to have been made by the pupils of Niccolò Pisano, were given in the elevation as they now are, in a series of designs on so small a scale as to be scarcely distinguishable except with a lens. This to Zampi pointed to the identity of the designer of the bas-relief and the façade; and, in his opinion, this could be no other than Arnolfo di Lapo, who was, in fact, designated by the most ancient records as one of those who executed the reliefs.

As I had brief time to give to the question there, I got the documents concerning the Cathedral and set myself to work out the problem of which I was convinced that Zampi had indicated the solution, leaving only the demonstration to me. The study of the design in question side by side with that known to be by Maitani, and signed by him, which is also in the Archivio, gave me satisfactory internal evidence that the anonymous design was earlier, and inspired by a finer taste, than that on which the façade had been finished—the differences, which were not inconsiderable, being mostly variations of the original ideas in the direction of heaviness and elaboration; and I was satisfied that the man who was capable of designing the abandoned one would never have adopted that actually executed. The lower part of the façade is the same, but above the side doors in the original the tympanum springs lightly up to near the level of the eaves of the church like an inspiration, while the executed design has a double tympanum, totally devoid of the airy grace of the other. The original is basilical, with a graceful fall of the line of the cornice from the central compartment to the eaves, the central alone preserving the triangular tympanum, while the actual front is tricuspidal. One must see the two side by side to judge of the immense superiority in lightness and variety in composition of line of the original. The tricuspidal termination had always distressed me somewhat, but I could not tell why until I saw the other plan, and then I was convinced without argument that the original plan had been to build the façade with a basilical termination. The central square window is in both, but the frame is enlarged by the addition of the double row of statues around, and the gallery beneath is added. In the original plan, designs fill every space reserved for mosaics, as well as all the surface of the broad pilasters which divide and flank the doorways.

The study of the documents disclosed the following facts. In 1285 the Bishop and Council of Orvieto decided to build a new and more magnificent church in honor of the miracle of Bolsena and under the dedication of the Madonna. The minute in the archives says: "In nomine Domini, Amen. Anno 1285, Indictione XIV, Tempore Martini PP. IV, die tertia Martii. Cum in nova Ecclesia construenda ad honorem B. M. V. sicut tractatum est per Ven. D. Franciscum Episcopum Urbevetanum et stabilitum per consilium Civitatis oportet destrui cameras quasi omnes Archipresbiteri et Capituli, &c., &c., &c., pro solo ubi dicta Ecclesia construi debet, &c." In February, 1288, three pounds and twelve soldi are paid for the carriage of 143 stones for the work on S. Maria, and July 16 of the same year Giovanni Scrimario is paid three pounds for work done beyond the time which had been stipulated and probably paid for. In 1290 Nicholas IV. laid the corner-stone with magnificent festivities. In 1292 a tax was laid on all the towns, castles, etc., then subject to Orvieto, whose rule extended from Empoli to Orbetello, to hasten the construction of the church, which it was intended to make the most magnificent in Italy. Up to 1293 the contributions amounted to 3,362 pounds, a much larger sum relatively than would be that figure in sterling to-day. In 1295 Fra Benvegnate was called in as master builder to superintend the work, and in 1300 he was given full authority over the under-masters and workmen, in the selection of whom Orvieto people were to be preferred, other things being equal. The Captain and seven consuls ordered "quod F. Benvegnate sit operarius [superintendent] Ecclesiae S. Marie *sicut fuit antea*, cum salario sibi ordinato per litteras olim Episcopi Urbev." In June, 1310, the Council and Captain decided that it was necessary to get the marble for the façade, "quod necessarium sit facere deportari marmora de contrata Montis Pisi et a Civitate Ortana et aliis contratis pro edificandis in pariete anteriore dicte Ecclesie."

In 1309 Boniface VIII. (not Guido Farnese) said the first mass, and in September, 1310, the Council proposes to call in Lorenzo Maitani, "quod magister *Laurentius* olim magistri *Vitalis* de Senis, universalis caput magister ad fabricam supradictam; pro parte comunis [*sic*] Urbevetani multoties requisitus, venit ad civitatem Urbevetanam ad reparandam ipsam fabricam, que quasi minabatur ruinam, et ad hedificandam eandem" (Documenti raccolti dal Dott. Milanesi, Siena, 1854, Tom. I. p. 172.) The church was going to ruin, and he was called in to repair it, which does not indicate that he had been the original architect, since, had that been the case, there would hardly have been the confidence in his ability which was shown by the Orvietans. "Multoties requisitus" does not mean had *come* many times, but had been called many times; and, with all the cataloguing of the sculptors and workmen employed on the church from 1285 down to 1310, no mention has ever been made of Maitani.

But who was Maitani? Milanesi, in his 'Documenti, &c.,' says, after quoting the above-mentioned document: "Here we have Lorenzo Maitani, the celebrated architect of the Duomo of Orvieto, whose fame we may say began about 1310, as we know not from an earlier date what work he did. In Siena he is scarcely known [*ricordato*], and though I have with great diligence and love searched the records for news of him, I have found very little before he went to Orvieto." He was by this search shown to be the son of a master mason and builder, Vitale di Lorenzo, and beyond this and his coming to Orvieto we know nothing. The assumption that he was the first architect of the Orvieto Cathedral is without any other basis than I have given—too little to overcome the arguments against it, of which the two designs and their relation to each other are chief as internal, and the total absence of mention of him conclusive, taken in connection with the other. I cannot, in the space the *Nation* can afford, go in detail over the whole ground, but this is the general solution I suggest.

We know that Arnolfo was at work in Orvieto between 1280 and 1288, and left the monument of Cardinal de Bray, still in the Church of S. Domenico, as a testimony of his presence and abilities. The good folks of Orvieto had been disposed in the first place to make the Cathedral a copy of S. Maria Maggiore, then the typical basilica of the Church, less splendid, but probably (its glories are now hidden by a barocco shell of late incrustation) far more pleasing to the thirteenth century taste than St. Paul-beyond-the walls; and commissions were sent to Rome to get the plans to build by. But the façade is not borrowed from anything Roman If, however, one will compare its motive of decoration with that of the tomb of Cardinal de Bray, he will be struck with the similarity of the decorative feeling to that of the façade, and the architectural character of the tomb. With the intervention of Arnolfo for the design of the façade, and the known participation of the pupils of Niccolò Pisano in the execution of the bas-reliefs, the Urbevetani thought, not without reason, that they could trust a master builder to build the body of the church on the proportions of S. Maria Maggiore. In 1295 Fra Benvegnate, who was pretty certainly the same who had been engaged with Niccolò Pisano and his pupils in Perugia, and was superintendent of the construction of the Duomo there, was called in; and since, in 1298, Arnolfo was definitely and more honorably employed in Florence, he probably abandoned Orvieto altogether, and then Benvegnate was made master builder with a control over all subordinates, masters, and laborers—which was absolutely inconsistent with any authority or participation of Maitani. Benvegnate, if superintendent of Perugia with old Niccolò of Pisa, must have been an old man, and probably gave out ere long, as Niccolò is supposed to have died about 1290. I conclude, then, that Maitani was called in only when, after Benvegnate's death or retirement, the work began to decay from neglect and want of authority to direct the workmen and secure the quality of construction considered necessary. The people made their festivity when the church was finished, and forgot who had begun it half a century before. This is how history was then written.

W. J. Stillman.

Correspondence.

THE AMERICAN ARCHÆOLOGICAL EXPEDITION TO ITALY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have just read in the *Nation* of April 21 a letter from Mr. Joseph Thacher Clarke, of the American archæological expedition to Italy. This letter refers to certain excavations undertaken by the above-named gentleman on the site of the Temple of Juno Lacinia at Croton, and to the alleged interference of the Italian authorities against the success of the enterprise. The Italian authorities are denounced by Mr. Clarke as "vandals," as "having done their utmost to prevent the examination of any site in Magna Græcia," as directed not by love of science, but by "temper"; in fact (as he wrote a few weeks ago to a common friend), Mr. Clarke thinks that, as

regards archæological interests, the Turkish Government is far above the level of the Italian.

In my official capacity of director of excavations in central Italy, and as a person fully and minutely acquainted with Mr. Clarke's doings from the beginning to the end, allow me to declare that in all his statements there is not a particle of truth, and that the whole affair seems to me misrepresented so as to throw on the Italian Government the responsibility of the failure, which rests exclusively on Mr. Clarke's rebellion against the laws of the country of which he was the guest.

No country in the world has a more liberal and generous legislation on archæological matters than Italy has. No distinction is made between Italians and foreigners; everybody has the right of excavating the ground for scientific purposes; the discoverer has the absolute property of his findings. The only condition imposed in exchange for so many advantages and liberalities is, that the Government at Rome should be notified in advance of the nature of the explorations and the place selected for them, and should be notified periodically of their scientific and material results. As regards the exportation of antiquities from the kingdom, the Government has simply the right of buying what it considers to be of national interest, at a price determined by common consent.

In consequence of this liberality in our legislation, every year some great undertaking is started by foreign enterprise, individual or collective as it may be. To mention one instance only, Sir John Savile Lumley was able to excavate in 1886 the whole extent of the Temple of Diana Nemorensis, and to send over to England about *four thousand* objects of archæological interest. Frenchmen, Germans, Austrians, are at work in various points of the country, with the sanction and assistance of the Italian Government.

To come back, however, to Mr. Clarke's case. In June or July, 1886, Prof. Norton of Harvard and Prof. Frothingham of Princeton wrote to me on the subject of a proposed expedition in southern Italy, under the auspices of the American Archæological Society, asking advice and information to insure its scientific and material success. I hastened to give the advice and the information required, to the best of my knowledge. I pointed out plainly the necessity, the condition *sine qua non*, of notifying the Government of the intentions of the Society. I expressed my opinion as to the place which would most likely yield a good archæological harvest. I recommended the matter to the Department of Rome. I actually placed at the disposal of Mr. Clarke my own best and cleverest officer, Auselmo Gasparini, and, on my way through London, I had a personal interview with the gentleman, repeating by word of mouth what I had already fully explained and recommended in writing.

What was the stand taken by Mr. Clarke, the minute he found himself on the spot intended for his explorations? To rebel against the rules of the country which was favoring him with a liberal hospitality. He went to work on the site of the Temple of Juno Lacinia, with the consent of the owner of the ground, but with no permission whatever, either from the local authorities (who, after all, have no power in the matter of excavations) or from the central Government at Rome. He was warned many times to stop his illegal proceedings; he did not pay the slightest attention to the warning. Finally, the Government was compelled to resort to the last argument in its power—the direct interference of the police.

I do not complain of the total and absolute want of consideration which the leader of this unfortunate expedition has shown to me—to me who had acted as his sponsor and guarantor before the Government; I want simply to show how unjust and groundless are the charges contained in his letter to the *Nation*.

As regards the thrilling description of "the gable sculptures of the temple flung [*sic*] into the trenches," it is our constant practice (when we choose to renounce our rights of sequestration) to protect and insure the preservation of antique marbles by covering them up again with earth until their fate is decided.

To end this official statement of mine with the same words with which Mr. Clarke ends his own, "the want of the most elementary principles of international and personal courtesy on the part of Mr. Clarke requires no comment."—Yours obediently,

RODOLFO LANCIANI.

219 MADISON AVENUE, NEW YORK, April 23, 1887.

THE PROGRESS OF FEMALE SUFFRAGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you give, as far as they are accessible, the statistics as to female suffrage in the United States with regard to the following particulars: (*a*) Names of States and Territories where women vote, and since when; (*b*) States and Territories where women have full suffrage, and where they have limited suffrage, and the limitations; (*c*) number of women registered in each State or Territory, and number actually voting therein for the past five years, severally; (*d*) percentages of votes to registrations; (*e*) total number of registrations of women in the United States, and total number of women actually voting during the last five years; (*f*) percentage of total votes to total registrations for the five years; (*g*) percentage of total votes to total registrations for first year, the same for the fifth year?

Perhaps your correspondents in different States could supply lack of collected statistics.

Respectfully yours, T.

ROANOKE COUNTY, VA.

[Not being able of ourselves to answer these interrogatories, we have referred them to an eminent advocate of woman suffrage, whose reply we subjoin.—ED. NATION.]

Women have suffrage on terms and for purposes more or less restricted, upon questions connected with the public schools, in thirteen States, viz.: New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, New York, Michigan, Minnesota, Nebraska, Kansas, Colorado, Kentucky, Wisconsin, Oregon, Indiana, and New Jersey; also in three Territories, viz.: Idaho, Dakota, and Wyoming. In Utah and Washington Territories they have exercised it until recently, but have lost it within the present year—in Utah, by the passage of the Edmunds bill; in Washington, by a decision of the Territorial Supreme Court on a technicality.

A number of States which do not allow women to vote on school matters nevertheless allow them to hold school offices. Among these are Illinois, Iowa, Louisiana, Pennsylvania, and Rhode Island. In California women are eligible to all educational offices except those from which they are excluded by the State Constitution. In Wisconsin they are eligible to any office but that of State Superintendent. In Maine they are eligible to "certain" school offices; in Connecticut they may be school visitors; in Tennessee they may hold school offices, etc.

School suffrage, however, does not always mean suffrage on all questions or on any questions on equal terms with men. In Massachusetts the right is limited to a vote for school committee. In Michigan, Vermont, and (until recently) in New York, the right is limited to tax-paying women; in Oregon, to widows having taxable property and children to educate; in Indiana, to women, not married nor minors, who pay taxes, and are listed as parents, guardians, or heads of families, etc., etc.

Women have full suffrage in one Territory—Wyoming. There they have exercised it on the same terms as men since 1869, and they now habitually vote in somewhat larger proportion to their numbers than do the men. Women also have a right to vote "by petition" on the granting of liquor licenses in Arkansas and Mississippi. In Kansas women have this winter been made voters in all cities of first, second, and third class, which last includes incorporated towns and villages containing only 300 inhabitants. The Kansas women have just taken a very active part in the April elections, generally in the interest of the Republican party and of the enforcement of the Prohibition Law.

No complete and reliable statistics have ever been obtained of the number of women who register and vote on school questions. This varies greatly in different localities, and in the same localities in different years. With women, as with men, the questions connected with the schools do not suffice to bring out many voters as a rule. Those few who have voted hitherto have been of more than average character and ability, and influenced wholly by public spirit. But comparatively few, even of suffragists, have as yet availed themselves of the privilege. To secure any general participation of women in elections, a wider range of subjects must be thrown open to them. Wherever, as in Kansas, party issues and moral questions are involved, the women show a greater interest. In several States, as in Kansas, Iowa, and Rhode Island, prohibition amendments are said to have been carried by the efforts of women-workers at the polls, although not themselves voters.

WOMAN SUFFRAGE IN KANSAS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your discussion of woman suffrage in Kansas in the *Nation* of April 14, you give the population of Wichita as 4,911. As a correct statement of the population will add force to the facts concerning the voting of women, it is well to bear in mind that seven years have made a substantial change in nearly all of the towns in Kansas. A count of the population of Wichita made in June, 1886, gave this city about 22,000. There were over 4,000 voters registered at the last election. There were probably not less than 3,500 women qualified to vote at that time. About 200 of them voted. The incidents of the canvass were such as to cause the sober-minded to regret that this new element had been introduced into politics. The evils of the universal suffrage of men are certain to be many times multiplied, with no counterbalancing good.

EDWIN WHITE MOORE.

WICHITA, KAN., April 18, 1887.

WOLSELEY AND LEE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Col. Allan's argument, that Lord Wolseley's opinions are entitled to great consideration on account of his high position in the British Army, would be more convincing but for the immediate presence of the fact that the forces of France, a far more military nation than England, are at this moment in the hands of Gen. Boulanger.

(2.) Col. Allan misunderstands me in supposing that I hold the opinion that the Seven Days' fighting was anything other or anything less than a defeat for McClellan. It was a distinct defeat; and the theory of a "change of base" ought not to have imposed upon anybody. But in order to accomplish that defeat, Gen. Lee was obliged,

both on the 27th and again on the 30th of June, to place the wings of his army far out of supporting distance. Moreover, on the 29th of June, the unexpected detention of Jackson at the bridges left Magruder's force in the presence of largely superior numbers. It was these facts which caused me to write, in my former letter, that Lee's army was on several occasions more at the mercy of McClellan than the Potomac Army was, on any one occasion, at the mercy of the Confederate leader.

(3.) I do not see that Col. Allan's citation of a few contemporary opinions, to the effect that Lee might advantageously have attacked McClellan at Harrison's Landing, justifies Lord Wolseley's assertion that the Army of the Potomac was there "at his mercy." We know how fallacious and even foolish contemporary opinion often was during the war. What I complained of was, that Lord Wolseley should, twenty-five years after the occurrences in question, repeat the most mistaken of the judgments of the time.

Col. Allan is not fortunate in his citations. The Committee on the Conduct of the War entertained an unrelenting hostility to McClellan, and gave a cordial welcome to every complaint against him. Gen. Casey was not in command of his division during the Seven Days' battles, and cherished a deep and probably a well-founded sense of injustice in McClellan's treatment of him after Fair Oaks. Hooker's noisy and insubordinate abuse of his superior officers was long one of the worst scandals of the army.

I can hardly believe that Col. Allan himself entertains the opinion that Lee could advantageously have attacked McClellan at Harrison's Landing. The net result of the mere fighting of the 29th and 30th of June and the 1st of July had not been unfavorable to the Union arms. The 2d of July found the Army of the Potomac in a defensible position, its flanks covered by the fire of the fleet. Not a brigade had been captured or destroyed during the retreat; of the eleven divisions not more than four had in any sense been shattered in the fighting of the preceding week.

But even if sufficient military reasons would have justified Lee in attacking on the 2d of July, what excuse is there for saying that he had the Army of the Potomac "at his mercy"? Such an expression could only properly be used when the opposing army had not a fair fighting chance. That any one can now believe that the Army of the Potomac had not such a chance on the very day following the great victory of Malvern Hill, seems inconceivable.

(4.) Regarding the situation after the battle of Fredericksburg, I scarcely know how to express myself. With the Army of the Potomac still in largely superior numbers; with courage and temper unbroken, as the desperate charges made at dusk on the 13th of December abundantly testified; with the whole front of the Union Army completely swept by the almost superabundant artillery on the commanding Stafford Heights—that it was at Gen. Lee's "mercy," in such a sense that it could have been run over by columns emerging from the Confederate works, still seems to me, in spite of the opinion of the unknown "Line officer" of the British Army whom Col. Allan cites, a judgment "silly, empty, and vain." The subsequent history of the war justifies no such disparaging opinion of either of the two great contending armies.

(5.) In neither this nor my former letter have I sought to set up any grounds for challenging Col. Allan's estimate of Gen. Lee; nor have I written in any spirit of disparagement regarding the Confederate forces. I believe it to be the duty of the former soldiers of both armies equally to resent such contemptuous views of the valor, discipline, and endurance of our American soldiers, North or South, as underlie the two military judgments of Lord Wolseley on which I have commented with what seems to Col. Allan undue severity. FRANCIS A. WALKER.

GEN. LEE'S "COUNTRYMEN."

To the Editor of The Nation:

SIR: It has been my good fortune to have occasion to visit portions of the South from time to time, and the result of these visits has been to make me a sincere admirer and warm friend of the people in that section of our country. But one thing has often surprised, and sometimes irritated, me while among them; and that is, the way they have of talking about "our country" and "our countrymen," in distinction from "your [my] country" and "your [my] countrymen," meaning the North and the people of the North.

I was reminded of this, and experienced a little of the old irritation, when I read Mr. Allan's letter in last week's *Nation* apropos of Gen. Walker's criticism of Lord Wolseley's "silly, empty, and vain" article on Gen. Lee. Mr. Allan says: "His countrymen have admired, loved, venerated him [Lee] not so much," etc., and the connection makes it plain that Mr. Allan uses the term "his countrymen" in a sense which would exclude from that number Gen. Walker, for example. Mr. Allan, it seems, lives in Maryland. Does he consider himself one of "his countrymen"? If so, in what sense is a man who lives in Maryland any more Gen. Lee's countryman than a man living in Massachusetts? Now, it never occurs to a Northern man to speak and act as if he were abroad on foreign shores the moment he crosses the Ohio River. New Orleans is a part of his country just as much as Boston; and to him the countrymen of Gen. Grant are also the countrymen of Gen. Lee. From Mr. Allan's letter, however, one would never suppose that Lee surrendered at Appomattox, and that Mahone had, until recently, represented Virginia in the Senate of the United States. Does Mr. Allan suppose that there is a single man in the North who is not, as an American, proud of Gen. Lee's splendid talents and still more splendid virtues, and who does not glory in the reflection that his fame is the immortal possession of *his* country? E. O.

CHICAGO, April 18, 1887.

A LOCAL-OPTION VILLAGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

SIR: The following facts may throw some light on the prohibition question. This is a village of about 3,000 inhabitants in a town of about 7,000, chiefly engaged in agriculture. We have a branch of the Women's Christian Temperance Union and a flourishing lodge of Good Templars. The temperance sentiment is fairly strong. The following table of the majorities in the town for license and no license respectively since the passage of the local-option law indicates the drift of public opinion on the subject:

1875	For license	150 majority
1876	For no license	21 "
1877	"	254 "
1878	"	54 "
1879	"	3 "
1880	For license	221 "
1881	"	274 "
1882	"	18 "
1883	For no license	108 "
1884	"	118 "
1885	For license	258 "
1886	"	313 "
1887	For no license	179 "

There are in the village three licensed hotels, five licensed drug-stores, and three or four licensed saloons, one of which, whose proprietor boasts of three beds, is euphemistically styled a hotel, and enjoys corresponding privileges.

In March of this year one Huntress was convicted in a court of special sessions of selling whiskey under an ale-and-beer license and fined fifty dollars. Chapter 549 of the laws of 1873 provides that any conviction for a violation of the excise law by a person holding a license shall forfeit and annul such license. The Court of Appeals has decided, in People vs. Meyers, 95 N. Y. 223, that a conviction operates *ipso facto* to annul the license. After his conviction Huntress continued to sell ale and beer. He was complained of and prosecuted for selling without a license. Upon the trials there was no dispute as to the facts. He admitted the former conviction, that he was then told that such conviction annulled his license, and the subsequent selling. His counsel claimed that his license was not forfeited until the Board of Excise formally revoked and cancelled it. The case was tried three times. Each time the district attorney cited the Myers case, dwelt on it, and expounded it to the jury, and the magistrate charged that such is the law. Yet the jury on each of the first two trials failed to agree, in both instances standing three for conviction and three for acquittal, and on the third trial rendered a verdict of acquittal. The juries were fairly representative of the usual country jury in justice's court. The district attorney, who was thoroughly in earnest in conducting the prosecution, said that he was satisfied with them and considered them good men. The magistrate certainly did not lean in favor of the defendant. When asked how they could so disregard the law as to overrule the Court of Appeals, one of the last jurors said that they thought that the defendant had been punished enough on the former conviction.

From the almost periodical alternation between the license and no-license majorities in the table, it might be argued that neither free rum nor absolute prohibition gives permanent satisfaction to our good people, and that high license might prove to be a golden mean. But my purpose is to give facts, not to draw inferences. * * * * *

CANTON, N. Y., April 19, 1887.

VERSIFYING MADE EASY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

SIR: On looking over the April number of the *Brooklyn Magazine* I discovered a piece of verse entitled "A Bachelor's Reverie," purporting to have been written by F. M. Cooper.

As this poem, under a slightly different heading and with an additional verse, was contributed by myself to the January number of the *Trinity Tablet* of Trinity College in 1884, I was somewhat surprised at seeing it here. I claim no merit for the verse, it being merely a typical college effusion, but I do think that the world should know how Mr. Cooper writes his poetry.—Yours respectfully, CHARLES M. ANDREWS.

BALTIMORE, April 20, 1887.

THE VERSATILE PLASTOUNOFF.

To the Editor of The Nation:

SIR: Although enough has already been said in your columns about the eminent literary character, Roman Plastounoff of Kieff, to prevent any of your readers falling into his trap, one more tribute to the catholicity of his taste and the ingenuity of his methods may not be out of place. One would suppose that a man who professed to be anxious to obtain American books for the purpose of translating them into Russian would have spared a translator of Russian into English. But the clever way in which he has ignored the problem and baited the hook for me arouses my enthusiastic admiration. He has "accidentally heard of my translations," and "most humbly" begs me to send him a specimen, as it will be impossible for him to procure one without my "amiable assistance." In return,

he does not offer me his own famous work on Embryology, but says that he has "already made arrangements" to have a certain book sent me on its publication, "a month hence or so."

I have reason to suppose that if the book (which is attributed to an actual author) ever reached me, it would be worth, including postage, about ten cents. But the thoroughness of his method is displayed in still another manner. Whereas he wrote to his other American correspondents in pigeon English on paper with a French heading, he has tickled my vanity by writing in Russian on paper with a Russian heading, which is much more elaborate than the one which you have already reported. The concluding words, "I am, madam, yours most obedient servant," gently hint that he will be able to read the volume or volumes which I may send. This carefully prepared Russian heading to his paper would also seem to intimate that he plies his artistic begging scheme in his native land as well as abroad. The interesting question then arises: What does he say in the letter corresponding to the second one reported by Prof. Laughlin (February 10), when he is within reach of the deluded and wrathful author?—Yours truly,

ISABEL F. HAPGOOD.

BOSTON, April 18, 1887.

Notes.

THE success of their uniform Hamilton and Franklin series has induced G. P. Putnam's Sons to project a corresponding edition of the writings of Washington, probably in twelve volumes. It will contain the diaries, addresses, and correspondence, together with a number of papers never before printed. The name of the editor is not announced.

Prof. Skeat has consented to be treasurer and secretary of an organization, separate from the English Dialect Society, but in harmony with it, for the publication of an English Dialect Dictionary. The editor will be the Rev. A. Smythe Palmer, and the Syndics of the Cambridge University will undertake the publication of the work, which will be a fit companion to the Philological Society's Dictionary now appearing under the auspices of Oxford.

Thomas Whittaker will shortly issue Prof. Warfield's 'Introduction to the Textual Criticism of the New Testament,' and a Hebrew Grammar by the Rev. W. H. Lowe.

Mr. J. G. Cupples, senior member of the well-known Boston firm of booksellers, has withdrawn in order to devote himself entirely to the publishing business. If it has been his taste that has marked the manufacture of the books hitherto bearing the imprint of Cupples, Upham & Co., the reading public is to be congratulated on his larger scope in this direction.

Mr. John Morley's address "On the Study of Literature," delivered in February before the students of the London Society for the Extension of University Teaching, has been printed in tract form by Macmillan, and also as a shapely little book for permanent preservation, which it well merits. It is explicit, sensible, and practical throughout, and will act as a deterrent to the making of poor "literature" as well as a guide to the cultivation of the genuine sort. Mr. Morley estimates what one may achieve in a year by reading for a fragment of an hour daily; and incidentally reveals his own power of rapid assimilation when he fancies that "in half an hour . . . you can read fifteen or twenty pages of Burke." He is a hearty disbeliever in the culture derivable from "the hundred best books." Style he rightly subordinates to clearness and precision of statement, and to purity of language, which, by the way, he regards as more in danger from our American innovations than from any other source.

Mr. Morley has some wholesome remarks on the general incapacity both to read and to write, concluding that much time is wasted on themes and compositions. One may find exemplifications of the truth of this in 'English as She is Taught' (Cassell & Co.), which consists, as readers of the April *Century* know, of genuine answers to examination questions in our public schools. It is, indeed, such a commentary on the little wit of teachers that one finds it difficult to laugh at the mass of absurdities like—"Milton's principal work is the exclusion of bad angels out of heaven," or "Julius Cæsar wrote a book for beginners in Latin."

Teachers of Latin will be glad to have an English paraphrase, by Messrs. Bond and Walpole, of the Kraner-Dittenberger edition of Cæsar's Commentaries on the Gallic War (Macmillan). The Introduction, showing what led up to the conquest of Gaul, and displaying the military organization in Cæsar's time, is well calculated to stimulate the learner's curiosity and to make his progress intelligent. The apparatus of running-titles, numberings of paragraphs and lines, notes, geographical and grammatical indexes, etc., is uncommonly helpful. There is no vocabulary.

Gertrude Strohm's 'Universal Cookery Book' (White, Stokes & Allen) is an avowed compilation from the many that have gone before it, due credit being given in every instance of borrowing. What is again unusual is a garnishing of the text with "literary selections and quotations," which are apt enough, and have their separate index.

Mr. William M. Ivins's recent luminous writings on 'Machine Politics and Money in Elections in New York City' have been gathered into a volume for Harper's Handy Series (No. 127), and deserve the very widest circulation. In the fourth appendix it is shown in detail how the Corrupt Practices Act has worked in England.

'Two Royal Lives: Gleanings at Berlin and from the Lives of their Imperial Highnesses the Crown Prince and Princess of Germany,' by Dorothea Roberts (Scribner & Welford), may fairly fall under the category of "Jubilee" literature, though having an independent design. It is the work of an unpractised hand, but it serves to give some idea of the simple, kindly, and charitably useful lives of the future ruler of Germany, his English wife, and their family. Numerous photographic portraits increase the value of the volume, and there are even domestic groups of the children, practically employed.

Few of us are aware of the extent to which American authors are reprinted in England in the collections vaguely corresponding to the "Seaside Library." A recent number of the *Athenæum* contained a full-page advertisement of one firm publishing several "Popular Series of Standard Books." The first of these was the "Royal Library of Choice Books by Famous Authors," 101 volumes, of which nearly twenty were of American origin. A second series of the same publishers is "The People's Standard Library of English Classics," in ninety-seven volumes, of which eighteen were written by Americans. The third of their series is a "Popular Library of Literary Treasures" (at threepence each); this extends to some twenty-five numbers, of which five are by Emerson and Longfellow.

We record the appearance on our table of the first number of the *Writer*—"a monthly magazine for literary workers" (P. O. Box 1905, Boston). Its aim is practical, and this has been well attained at the start. The editors are Messrs. Wm. H. Hills and Robert Luce, members of the editorial staff of the Boston *Globe*.

A writer in the Toronto *Week* for April 21 bases an interesting article concerning "Slavery in Canada" on an appendix to the third volume of the Abbé Tanguay's 'Dictionaire Généalogique des Familles Canadiennes.' The subject is so novel to most readers that the very collocation of words is a surprise, like "slavery in Vermont" or "slavery in Idaho." *Fugitive* slaves in Canada we know abounded.

The most striking article in the February *Antiquary* is an illustrated paper upon "the development of fencing" by Monté. It is somewhat technical, but describes with sufficient clearness the history of this modern art—called into existence by the abandonment of defensive armor in the sixteenth century—as worked out by the Spanish, Italian, and French schools. The April number has several articles of considerable interest. The first is "The Cromwells of America," by James Waylen, with a cut of a house in Cecil County, Maryland, and a portrait of Oliver Cromwell of Kentucky. "The Folk-lore of Guillim," by Mrs. Damant, contains much very curious matter, and the second paper on "Old Storied Houses" is devoted to Compton-Wynyates in Warwickshire, in which it is believed that Charles II. was concealed (and nearly roasted alive by Cromwell's soldiers) after the battle of Worcester. The article on the "Roman Baths at Bath" calls attention to "some atrocious work" committed at Bath in spite of the vigilance of the Society of Antiquaries." It seems that the necessities of the modern baths are likely not to destroy, but very much to obscure the interesting Roman remains, and make them difficult of access and study.

Walford's *Antiquarian* for March contains the first of a series of papers upon "Cromwell and the Saddle Letter of Charles I." This letter, said to have been intercepted by Cromwell and Ireton in a stable of the Blue Boar Inn, Holborn, is believed to have afforded, in its contents, the occasion for Cromwell's dropping negotiations with the King, and taking up the plan of placing him on trial. This first article contains the various accounts of the affair by Ashburnham, Disraeli, Dugdale, and others. The paper is not continued in the April number, which contains several articles—"The Curiosities of Ale" (illustrated), "How to Trace a Pedigree," "Words, Idioms, etc., of the Vulgar"—all of which well deserve consideration. Under the title "The Romans in Cambria," the Rev. Samuel Barber contributes a pleasant article on the antiquities of Seascale and its neighborhood.

The *Siberian Compendium*, a periodical scientific and literary publication, which forms a supplement to the *Eastern Review*, has issued Parts II. and III., under the editorship of N. M. Yadrintzeff, and furnishes valuable material in various directions for those who are desirous of studying that almost unknown land. It contains historical studies, sketches of the life of to-day in various parts of the country, and miscellaneous information, which will assist the reader to form an idea of the subject as a whole. One of the notable articles in the present issue is "A Trip to the Monastery of Atchun-kanuzun of the Urdzhanisi," by Mr. Potanin, consisting of an episode of travel from the experience of this unwearied explorer, who has now completed his expedition, which has lasted for many years, and from whom important information is expected, with regard to Mongolia and China, that will serve as a supplement to the explorations of Przhvalsky.

The April Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society contains a condensed account of Gen. Przhvalsky's discoveries in Central Asia, as well as a short notice of Potanin's journey in northwestern China, both by Mr. Delmar Morgan. In addition to these and the usual notes,

there is also an interesting paper descriptive of an extensive journey by three Englishmen through Mantchuria. They report the country to be extremely rich in gold, silver, iron, coal, furs, silk, and opium (the cultivation of which last has greatly increased, so that the drug is now exported to all parts of China), but to be suffering terribly from the fact that, through the weakness of the Mantchu Government, the land has become a prey to organized bands of robbers.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for April has a very suggestive article, packed full of facts, by Mr. J. T. Wills, on the rainfall in Australia, accompanied by two carefully shaded maps, and a description of the Sierra Nevada de Santa Marta in the South American State of Magdalena, by J. T. Bealey. There is also given the concluding part of the very instructive and suggestive lecture, by School Inspector Jolly, on a "Realistic and Dramatic Method of Teaching Geography."

The *Illustrirte Zeitung* for April 9 has an article on the German possessions in East Africa, accompanied by a map so shaded as to show the territory claimed by the German East-African Association, as delimited at the recent London Conference. Out of this enormous tract, covering nearly twelve degrees of latitude and ten of longitude, and including the larger part of the great lakes, only a comparatively small portion, consisting of the country to the west of Zanzibar, is actually under the protection of the German Government and can properly be regarded as a part of the empire. There are now twelve German stations in East Africa.

The *Portfolio* for April (Macmillan) is a capital number. Mr. Hamerton discourses on "Vitality in Portraits," contrasting the old (and not yet extinct) manner of careful posing against dark and meaningless backgrounds with the treatment exemplified by William Hole in his etchings, from life sketches, of the High Officers and Professors of the Edinburgh University at the time of its recent Tercentenary Festival. Here the background indicates the specialty of each professor, and helps explain his characteristic attitude. Some excellent instances of the old-style portraits are copied in the same number after Raeburn, to accompany Mr. Walter Armstrong's second paper on Scottish painters One of those "processed" is of the artist himself; another is a striking full-page photogravure of Lord Newton in his robes. Mr. Lawrence continues his interesting papers on "The Skirts of London a Hundred Years Ago,"; with copies of old prints. There is a cheerful etching after a seashore painting by Philip Wouverman. Much the best full-page illustration, however, to our thinking, is the photogravure of the late William Hull's view of the Blea Tarn Valley, a fine composition, whose mountains in mass and line possess a singular beauty. Some agreeable letters from the English Lakes, written by this artist during his studies in that region, attend the print, and are illustrated by pen sketches of Helvellyn, Skiddaw, Rydal Water, Thirlmere, etc.

The *Studio* has a good many notable picture sales in this city to record, and gives samples from the canvases in the Probasco collection, including a Millet, a Rousseau, and a Fromentin. An accurate photographic copy of Trumbull's pencil portrait of Gen. Israel Putnam (the only authentic one) also adorns the *Studio* for April.

If this journal makes itself a medium for exhibiting the good qualities of Mr. Kurtz's "process" engraving, the *Art Review* renders the same service to the Photogravure Company of this city—to the benefit of the public in both cases. The March number of the *Review* has three plates—one after Mr. O. L. Warner's "Diana," a statue which one would like to have had pictured in several aspects; another after Mr. Edwin H. Blashfield's painting, "The Tiger Lily"; and the third after a woodland scene by George Inness. Add to these a genuine etching, a marine, "Honfleur," by Mr. C. A. Platt. Mr Warner's career as a sculptor is told admiringly by Mr. Ripley Hitchcock.

In the *Courrier de l'Art* for March 11 we read of the formation of a Franco-American Artistic Society composed of the most eminent artists and amateurs, and having its headquarters on the corner of the Rues Laffitte and Le Peletier (the former gallery of the water-colorists). Besides a permanent exhibition hall, there will be reading-rooms and other conveniences for the direct intercourse of the two nationalities concerned in the foundation.

Lebrun's list of the 'Etchings and Other Prints of Jean François Millet,' translated and annotated by Frederick Keppel, with a sketch of the artist's life (F. Keppel & Co.), makes a pretty little square volume in parchment covers, and is illustrated with a portrait of Millet by himself, and photogravures (some at scale) of etchings, a wood-cut, and a unique lithograph by this master. Mr. Keppel has made his work interesting to the general reader as well as useful to the collector. The edition is limited.

The fortunate owners of the prints of the Society for Photographing Relics of Old London are familiar with the two which show the present state of the White Hart Inn, Southwark. The inner court of this famous hostelry has been etched by Mr. Percy Thomas as it was in 1882, on a plate 14 by 11, and published by S. Drewett, at 1 Northumberland Avenue, Trafalgar Square, S. W., London. A comparison of this print with the corresponding autotype in the series above mentioned is very favorable to the etching, which grasps all the picturesqueness of the scene, while revealing even more of the architectural details than the camera has done—at least at first glance. This inn, we believe, is still standing, and it has a literary association with Dickens and Sam Weller. The Tabard Inn, however, the successor (on the same spot) of Chaucer's, has been demolished, and Mr. Thomas's companion etching of it, which also comes to us from Mr. Drewett, is already a valuable memorandum of the building. Of the two it makes rather the more interesting design. Being an exterior view, it is the proper complement of the White Hart etching. We commend both to the lovers of what is ancient as well as what is artistic. An historical letter-press description goes with each.

M. Georges Monval, the archivist of the Comédie-Française and the editor of the *Moliériste*, has recently worked out most ingeniously and thoroughly one of the minor problems of the biography of Molière. Who was the body-servant of Molière to whom Grimarest refers as though he were well known? In his pretty little book, 'Le Laquais de Molière' (Paris: Tresse & Stock; New York: F. W. Christern) M. Monval proves beyond question that this vague personage was Du Périer, who was first Molière's servant, then for twenty years a useful second-rate actor at the Théâtre-Français, and then the founder of the Parisian fire department, and as such of great assistance in the saving of the Tuileries from a fire which broke out in 1704. M. Monval gives all the documents in the case.

Alfred de Musset has been until very lately practically excluded from the class-room. But now an *ancien professeur* has made a selection from his works, *à l'usage de la jeunesse*, under the title 'L'Œuvre de Alfred de Musset' (Paris: Charpentier; Boston: Schoenhof). This makes a thick volume of nearly 600 pages, in which almost every work of importance of Musset's is represented to a greater or less extent. There are long scenes from all the plays, and some of the tales are given in full. There are even thirty-six pages picked out of 'La Confession d'un enfant du siècle.' The poetry is fairly represented, and the extracts are preceded by a biographical notice of the poet by his brother, Paul de Musset. The volume is disfigured by a hideous reproduction of the well known portrait of Musset by Ch. Landelle.

An authoritative work from the Roman Catholic standpoint on the history of European civilization which should be abreast with the best scholarship of its time, has long been a desideratum. 'Les Origines de la Civilisation Moderne,' by Godefroid Kurth of the University of Liège, published a few months since, seems to promise us a work of that kind. The two volumes which have appeared extend from the Christian era through the age of Charlemagne. The ecclesiastical bias is very evident, and occasionally the influence of such a suggestive writer on the same period as Wilhelm Arnold is to be seen. But these things are too manifest to be of the slightest injury; indeed, a strong, decided, but thoroughly scholarly presentation of the Roman Catholic view of the history of civilization is exactly what is wanted. It is to be hoped that these two volumes may be only the beginning of a work on the whole course of European history. The author's treatment of the Reformation period will be awaited with special interest; and if it shall fulfil the promise of this beginning, it will be without doubt greatly superior to anything yet produced from a Catholic source on that age—beyond all comparison, for instance, above the much talked of, we may almost say notorious, work of Janssen.

V. Shenrok has published a sketch of Gogol's school life. One of the most urgent needs for the history of Russian literature is a proper biography of Gogol. Since the publication, nearly thirty years ago, of Kulish's book on this author, the subject has not received the requisite broad and thorough study, based on the materials at hand, which it demands, and Kulish's work is unsatisfactory in many respects. Gogol's inner life and his views of the world have formed the subject of acrid dispute up to a very recent period. Mr. Shenrok begins the work which is demanded with this study of Gogol's life during his school years and up to the date of his departure for Petersburg and his entrance into the service in 1831. The contents are: (1.) Ancestors; parents; the personality and influence of his mother. (2.) A brief sketch of his childhood up to his entrance at school; correspondence with his mother; his relations to his mother during his school years; the style of his letters. (3.) School life; his passion for reading and the theatre; his relations to his comrade Vuisotzky; his dissatisfaction with life in Nyezhin, and with his surroundings; his dreams of Petersburg, and life abroad. (4.) Conclusion of his course in Nyezhin, and change to Petersburg; his idyl of "Hans Kuchelgarten." (5.) First impressions in Petersburg, and first productions. (6.) A short review of his letters to his mother from 1829 31. (7.) His efforts to find a definite career in Petersburg. Further studies are suggested.

While, as we lately noticed, the Italian Government has put its hand to a complete edition of the works of Galileo, the firm known as the Successori Le Monnier will bring out at the same time a cheap but elegant edition which will be within the reach of every student.

The American Economic Association and the American Historical Association will hold their annual meetings in connection in Boston on May 21-25, mostly at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology; but one session will be held at Harvard, and on the last day there will be an ex-

cursion to Plymouth, Mass. The Brunswick Hotel will be the common headquarters. Members intending to be present should address the Secretary of the Economic Association, Dr. Richard T. Ely, Baltimore.

—The *Harvard Law Review*, of which the first number appeared on April 15, and the 'Report of the Organization and First General Meeting of the Harvard Law School Association,' just published, evidence the deep interest which the students and the alumni of that excellent school take in its welfare. The *Harvard Law Review* is to appear monthly during the academic year. It is undertaken by the undergraduates, but the professors and several of the alumni of the school are among its promised contributors. The editors of the *Review* state that it is not intended to enter into competition with the established law journals, and that its primary object is to furnish news of interest to those who have studied at the Cambridge Law School, and to give all who are interested in legal education some idea of what is being done under the Harvard system of instruction. If the high standard of the first number is maintained, the editors will accomplish this and more. The article of Prof. James B. Ames on "Purchases for Value without Notice," is a scholarly treatment of one branch of that important subject. The article on "Tickets," by Joseph H. Beale, jr , one of the undergraduates, is a well-reasoned and thorough discussion which cannot fail to be of assistance to the practitioner. A publication which shall give to the profession the result of the careful work now being done by the professors of the Harvard Law School must be of substantial service to the bar; and we venture to predict that many of the contributions from the undergraduates will prove to be of permanent value. Mr. Morawetz's work, the 'Law of Private Corporation,' which was undertaken almost immediately upon his graduation from that school, shows what can be accomplished in the field of legal literature by able young men who have had the opportunity of acquiring proper methods of study and investigation. From the "Notes" we learn that a bequest of $50,000 (subject to a life estate) has been made to the Harvard Law School, to establish a professorship of international law. We also find there the following extract from President Eliot's last report, which will be of interest to law students: "It is good evidence of the value of the full three years' course (at the Law School), that for several summers past the school has been unable to fill all the places in lawyers' offices which have been offered it for its third-year students just graduating. There have been more places offered, with salaries sufficient to live on, than there were graduates to take them."

—The 'Report of the Organization, etc,' an excellently printed pamphlet of ninety-nine pages, will be read by many besides the members of the Association. Our readers will remember that the celebration of the 250th anniversary of the founding of Harvard College was opened by the "Law School Day." Judge O. W. Holmes, jr., delivered an oration at Sanders Theatre, and then some four hundred of the former members of the school dined together in Hemenway Gymnasium. Judge Holmes's oration and Prof. Langdell's address, which was delivered after the dinner, have been published already in the English *Law Quarterly* and several American periodicals, but it is a pleasure to read them again in their new dress. They, as also the address by Mr. James C. Carter, should be read by all who are interested in the subject of legal education. Prof. Langdell has given a clear exposition of the method of instruction now prevailing at the Harvard Law School, and both Judge Holmes and Mr. Carter, while approaching the subject from very different points of view, give strong testimony as to its value. Indeed, one feels, in reading these addresses and the other after-dinner speeches, that Prof. Langdell had, on November 5, 1886, quite as much a celebration as Harvard College. The picture of "Austin Hall" (the new Law School building) serves as a frontispiece, and the address of Prof. James B. Thayer, on the introduction of the study of the law at Cambridge, which was delivered at the dinner of the alumni of Harvard College on the Monday following, is found in the appendix. Both add to the interest and value of the Report.

—Mr. Aldrich is the poet of the May *Atlantic*. His piece is curiously compounded of three sonnets and an epilogue, and is written with unusual elevation and with a width of view that place it almost in the class of reflective poetry; but when one remembers how exact is the Parisian local color, and in what clear-cut swift pictures the scenes of the last Napoleonic régime are passed before the reader in preparation for the twilight soliloquy in the early autumn in the garden of the Tuileries, one must describe it as primarily imaginative. In other words, it is reflective without being didactic; while in compass of meaning and closeness of execution it is not rivalled by any recent contributions from our poets of distinction. It is in a vein seldom worked by its author, who is known too exclusively as a writer of lyrics; but work of this sort is nobler, and is, besides, perfectly modern and contemporary. We have so frequently remarked on the very instructive papers by Mr. Hamerton, in his comparative study of France and England, that it is hardly needful to call attention to his latest, in which he points out the great variety of each nation within its own limits. It is the sort of information most difficult to obtain for one's self, and, coming from one whose faculty of observation is so extraordinary in fineness and range, and whose judgment seems perfectly temperate, it is of quite inestimable value to the student of nations or of classes of men. One acquires from Mr. Hamerton not only information, but modes of looking at things, and hence one in search of culture can find no better modern books to bring out the mind than those he writes upon human life. The first chapter of the Emerson biography, which is here published in advance, is a sample of the work which will make readers impatient for the remainder. The period of boyhood only is dealt with, but the scene takes in much of New England life and character, and the hardships of the Emerson household and the bringing up of the boys are told with admirable directness. A plain New England home of the old time does not bear tampering with in the interest of a mistaken respectability, and that Mr. Cabot has shown such excellent sense and judgment is a good sign for the rest of the work.

—A memoir of great interest, on "Pictographs of the North American Indians," which is to form part of the forthcoming Annual Report of the Bureau of Ethnology, has been printed in a separate form for distribution among expected collaborators, as a means of obtaining further information on the subject. The memoir, though modestly entitled "a preliminary essay," is an elaborate work of more than 250 pages. The author, Col. Garrick Mallery, has undertaken to do for the subject of picture-writing what he has already accomplished for that of "sign-language." The two modes of expression have, in fact, as he points out, much in common, and are mutually illustrative. The nucleus of the present work is a very remarkable product of Dakota intelligence, which Col. Mallery had the good fortune to discover some ten years ago. It was published in 1877, under the title of "A Calendar of the Dakota Nation," in a bulletin of the United States Geological and Geographical Survey. The present reissue comprises many additional facts and explanations concerning this notable production. It is a pictorial chart, originally painted on a buffalo skin, in a peculiar spiral order, in which every year, beginning with the first year of the present century, is denoted by the picture of an object recalling to mind some remarkable event which occurred in that year. Though not precisely a history, it presents the primary elements of the annals from which history is made. The existence among these wild nomads of the West of such an ingenious method of preserving the knowledge of dates and events is a novel fact which will be a surprise to most persons. It has been confirmed by the discovery of several similar and perhaps still more important calendars, one of which (discovered by Dr. Wm. A. Corbusier, U. S. A) actually professes to go back to A. D. 900. The earlier portion of this remarkable chart is not given in the present work, on account of the expense of printing so many colored illustrations, but may be looked for in a future publication.

—These calendars—or "winter-counts," as the Indians style them—are supplemented by two very curious pictorial "rosters" or native censuses of Dakota bands, in which each family is ingeniously represented by some object recalling the name of its head. Many other illustrations are given, some now first published, and others added, for comparison, from the works of well-known authorities. The author refrains from theories in this tentative publication, but the conclusions to which the facts thus presented necessarily lead are clearly set forth. He finds that these pictographs, which represent the earliest stage of written language, are for the most part purely objective, or mere pictures denoting the objects depicted, or some person named from these objects. A smaller number are ideographic, suggestive of an abstract or generic meaning; and a very few are symbolic, involving a mystic interpretation. The latest stage of all, which had been attained by the Egyptians, and to some extent by the Mexicans—that in which the pictures express words or parts of words—had not been reached by these northern Indians. Their system, however, is shown to be much more elaborate and useful than had been supposed, and its study, on many accounts, is highly important. It is easy to foresee that Col. Mallery's work, even in its present form, will be a storehouse from which writers discussing the subjects to which it relates will draw freely for illustrations. It must rank among the best of the many valuable contributions to science by which our Ethnological Bureau has gained a reputation honorable to the country.

—In looking over the lately published volume of E. P. Whipple's essays on 'American Literature,' we come across a curious bit of unsympathetic hypercriticism. "Dwight," he says, "as a Latin scholar, occasionally felt called on to show his learning in his rhymes. Thus, in one of his poems he characterizes one of the most delightful of Roman lyrists as 'desipient' Horace. After a diligent exploration of the dictionary the reader finds that *desipient* comes from a Latin word signifying 'to be wise,' and that its English meaning is 'trifling, foolish, playful.' It might be supposed that in the whole range of English poetry there was no descriptive epithet so ludicrously pedantic; but, fortunately for our patriotism, we can convict Dryden of a still greater sin against good taste. In Dryden's first ode (1687) for St. Cecilia's Day we find the following lines:

> "'Orpheus could lead the savage race,
> And trees uprooted left their place,
> Sequacious of the lyre.'"

If Mr. Whipple had known his "delightful

lyrist" a little better, he would have recognized in the obnoxious epithet a playful allusion (a desipient allusion, let us say) to *dulce est desipere in loco*, and would have been less emphatic in his denunciation; but be evidently missed the point entirely. Dryden's sequacious, too, one might suppose, from the manner of quoting it, to be a ἅπαξ λεγόμενον, but it is to be found often enough in English prose, of the learned sort to be sure, and is not unexampled in poetry, as witness Thomson's "sequacious herd" and Smart's "sequacious earth." With Dryden it was no doubt a reminiscence of Virgil, who was fond of the word, and it is not out of place in treating a classical subject in the elevated style.

—The extracts from the 'Journal intime' of Benjamin Constant are continued in the *Revue Internationale* for March 10, and concluded in that for March 25. There is an interval of several years between the earliest of these extracts and those immediately preceding them in the number for February 25. Those now given begin May 15, 1811, with Constant's final departure from Switzerland and his subsequent residence with his wife in Germany until early in 1814. We hear only the last dying echoes of the tempests which agitated those early years of his marriage, and the references to Mme. de Staël gradually cease. From this time onward to the close of the Journal, the great interest and occupation of Constant's life was a political one, which nothing breaks in upon after the episode of Mme. Récamier. From this episode the editor gives comparatively few extracts, four or five pages in all from the daily entries extending over almost a year. These give the tone of the whole, however; and a comparison of them with Constant's letters to Mme. Récamier, written at the same time and published in part many years ago, is extremely interesting. So is the picture of Mme. Récamier herself, and the glimpses we have of Mme. de Krüdener. The public life of Benjamin Constant during the Hundred Days is the portion of his political career which has been most severely criticised. For this reason the passages in the *Revue* for March 25 have a greater value and even a greater interest than any others which have been selected. They extend from the return of Napoleon from Elba to September 26, 1815, when Constant, who had taken refuge in England at the second restoration of the Bourbons, finally returned to France. Here the Journal closes. The editor, M. Adrien Constant de Rebecque, has, however, added a short account of the last years of his relative, when he filled so large a place in the political world as a leader of the Liberal opposition to the Government of the Restoration, and, as he has been called, "the father of the Revolution of July." The impression made by those portions of the 'Journal intime' which have been given in the *Revue* is, upon the whole, favorable to Benjamin Constant, as compared with that produced by the articles of Sainte-Beuve published in 1840 and 1841 ('Portraits littéraires,' iii; 'Portraits contemporains,' v). The spirit of these articles is well represented by one of the comprehensive judgments of the great critic in "Un dernier mot sur Benjamin Constant." (Port. cont., v, 279), where he calls him "Celui que la popularité proclama un grand citoyen, et qui fut seulement un esprit supérieur et fin, uni à un caractère faible et à une sensibilité maladive." The Journal certainly shows anything but "une sensibilité maladive" in Benjamin Constant.

—The pleasantest feature of Prof. A. F. Pott's 'Allgemeine Sprachwissenschaft und Carl Abels Aegyptische Sprachstudien' is the evidence it brings that the veteran philologist still lives and interests himself with the old-time ardor in the science to which he has devoted his life. Pott is now eighty-four years old. His 'Etymologische Forschungen,' with which the history of scientific etymology may be said to begin, was published in 1833. For more than half a century he has been Professor of General Linguistic Science at Halle, and claims the honor of having been the first to bear that title. He has seen his science grow and change in remarkable ways. He has seen it outlive the contempt with which it was at first treated by the older classical philologists, and acquire the dignity of an indispensable branch of modern inquiry. He has witnessed the coming and going of schools and scholars and doctrines, and is now, perhaps, the only living representative of the original band of pioneers. Naturally enough, he looks out to-day upon kings who know not Joseph. At any rate, there are few philologists of distinction at the present time who would think it worth while to trouble themselves long about matters of the kind to which Prof. Pott devotes the above-named pamphlet. The publisher (W. Friedrich, Leipzig) announces that this work is the first of a series which is to appear under the name "Einzelbeiträge zur allgemeinen und vergleichenden Sprachwissenschaft." "Specialists have long regretted," he observes, "that manuscripts which exceed somewhat the usual length of an essay in one of the periodicals often cannot get into print," or the printing of them is delayed until they have become antiquated, and in any case they must be bought, if bought at all, in connection with other matter which is perhaps not wanted. So Herr Friedrich proposes to come to the rescue of the philological fraternity.

—Such an enterprise would seem to deserve success, but we fear it has not made a very auspicious beginning. Prof. Pott's pamphlet shows indubitable signs of old age. The first half of it is taken up with statements of, and reflections upon, various matters which have long been familiar to everybody who could possibly be interested in them. The latter half is devoted to some recent productions of Carl Abel, notably an essay, 'Gegensinn,' in which an attempt is made to rehabilitate the old *lucus-a-non-lucendo* theory in etymology; and a second opusculum, entitled 'Einleitung in ein Aegyptisch-Semitisch-Indoeuropäisches Wurzelwörterbuch.' Pott criticises Abel in the tone of one who is himself more than half in doubt whether he is not dealing with genuine and highly important discoveries. It does not seem to strike him that Abel's methods and theories are essentially identical with those that were in vogue before there was any such thing as a science of language. The world had often heard before of "Semitico-Aryan roots," and had made up its mind about them. Abel metamorphoses the old Centaur into a new Cerberus, and sets about those very feats of etymological prestidigitation at which Voltaire aimed his famous epigram.

BANCROFT'S BRITISH COLUMBIA.

History of the Pacific States of North America. By Hubert Howe Bancroft. Vol. XXVII.—British Columbia. 1792-1887. San Francisco: The History Co. 1887. 8vo, pp. xxi, 791.

THE indefatigable energy with which Mr. Bancroft pursues his important historical undertaking, in spite of serious disaster, is worthy of all respect. His latest volume exhibits the careful research, the candor, and the just intentions which have distinguished others of the series, and which, in a history, are certainly cardinal merits. It is unfortunate that they are accompanied and marred by some provoking drawbacks. One of these is inherent in the plan and proportions of the work. It seems to be considered necessary that the history of each separate State and province shall have at least one volume of a certain size devoted to it. In this instance, more than eight hundred solid octavo pages are given to a territory of little note, with the population of a fifth-rate American city, and with annals embracing nominally but ninety-five years, and in reality barely forty. The events of its history—if history such a loose collection of petty incidents can be called—are of the most insignificant character. No foreign or Indian war, no political revolution, no eventful enterprise falls to the historian to record. Any county of the Eastern States, settled in ante-Revolutionary times, would probably supply materials for a far more exciting narrative. Unluckily, also, the most interesting, as well as the largest, portion of the population—the Indian tribes—had to be in great part excluded from the volume, having been comprised in a former portion of the series. The same may be said of some of the most notable incidents of discovery, for which we are referred to the author's 'History of the Northwest Coast'; and for others still, the histories of Oregon, of California, and of Alaska are needed. Thus the purchaser of this ponderous book, unless he possesses the whole series, finds that, in spite of its huge dimensions, he has, after all, only half a history.

To fill out the allotted space, under these conditions, has been a task requiring all the compiler's ingenuity. A great part of the book is occupied with trifling occurrences and long-drawn narratives, which do not rise above the level of village gossip. The account of the gold discoveries, which fills nearly a third part of the volume, chronicles with wearisome minuteness the story of every "creek" and "branch" on which the adventurers made their temporary camps. With the same tedious particularity, the biography and traits of every person of any local prominence are discussed. The characters of two Hudson Bay traders—Dr. McLoughlin, the Company's jovial, hard-headed, and free-handed manager in Oregon, and Mr. (afterwards Sir James) Douglas, their shrewd, grasping, and unscrupulous agent in the Vancouver colony—are compared and contrasted with an elaboration and at a length (twelve pages) which an ordinary historian would not think of devoting to a comparison of Bismarck and Cavour.

As a work of literature, the history is almost beneath criticism. Short, jerky sentences, tawdry rhetoric, intolerable attempts at humor, with surprising faults of grammar which any ordinary proof-reader should have corrected, make it singularly unpleasant reading. The following passage, describing the intercourse of the English and Spanish captains, Vancouver and Bodega y Quadra, who were jointly surveying the coast, affords a really favorable specimen. A few unimportant sentences are omitted:

"Grace, mercy, and peace continue the order of the day. Vancouver offers to salute the Spanish flag, if Bodega y Quadra will return the compliment, which offer is gracefully accepted, and so from either side thirteen guns bellow forth honors.—The representatives of the august rival powers now eat much together, and talk in genuflections.—Letters pass, and deep diplomatism is in order. To whom shall belong the several shanties on this barbarous coast, is of primary importance to civilization. It is unnecessary to follow here the subtile logic of these ship-captains; the subject is exhausted in another place. Suffice it to say, in aught save urbanity and obeisance, they cannot agree. Bodega y Quadra is ready to draw the line on this shore between Spain and England; Vancouver's orders extend only to taking possession of his Majesty's huts. Jointly to glorify themselves, and likewise to make immortal the brotherly love which swells the breast of both commandants in their distinguished disagreements, Vancouver proposes, and Bodega y Quadra serenely smiles acquiescence, that the great island whereon they now sit shall for ever be known as Quadra and Vancouver Island."

To this is added, in a foot-note, what may

probably claim the distinction of being the worst English sentence—if English it can be called—that has ever appeared in any history:

"Both commanders were well aware that in thus giving so large a body of land their joint names, and so recording it in the text and on the maps of the expeditions of Vancouver and of Galiano and Valdés, one, and but one, would remain, and that would depend entirely as to which nation the territory fell."

Mr. Bancroft himself can do much better than this, as his other volumes show; but if he chooses, in his peculiar method of book-making, to assume all the credit of the successes of his collaborators, he must be content to accept the responsibility of their failures.

Passing from these ungrateful topics, it is a pleasure to be able to commend the general spirit and temper in which the work is composed. As it treats of a foreign community, the author has very properly put himself on the side of the colonists, and has looked at their affairs in the light in which the people most concerned may be supposed to regard them. In some respects, indeed, he is more British Columbian than the British Columbians themselves. The disparaging criticisms with which some disappointed English emigrants have assailed the country are resented with as much warmth as might be shown by a resident of Victoria or New Westminster; and his anticipations of the future of the colony are as rose-colored as any local speculator in townsites could desire. If this is a fault, it is one which, under the circumstances, may fairly be said to lean to virtue's side. In one respect certainly his praises are no higher than the facts fully warrant. When the gold discoveries attracted to the wildest part of the Territory a miscellaneous crowd of adventurers from almost all civilized and many barbarous countries—from Europe, California, Australia, China, the Pacific Islands, and other regions—the respect for law and order which prevails in all British colonies made itself apparent and dominant with wonderful force and completeness. The rules prescribed by the authorities were everywhere implicitly respected. Not a single outbreak of lawless ruffianism is recorded. The contrast between this picture and that which the early gold-mining period of California presented may well be regarded with pride on the one side, and with shame—if a community can be made to feel shame—on the other.

The history of the colony, so far as it can be said to have a history, may be told in a few words. The first white occupants were the traders of the Hudson's Bay Company. Their possession lasted about twenty years—from 1830 to 1850. The emigration from the United States into Oregon made it evident that the territory north of the international boundary could not be kept much longer as a fur-trading preserve. The British Government determined to begin by making Vancouver Island a colony. The shrewd managers of the Company, naturally averse to the scheme, were able, by large promises and specious professions, to induce the Government to place the control of the colonizing operations in their charge. Their object, of course, was to delay the progress of settlement as long as possible. In carrying out this betrayal of their trust, they found a ready and useful instrument in Sir James Douglas. His ingenious devices for this object, including his farcical colonial legislature and ministry, composed of his own relatives and creatures, are well described in this volume. Then came the gold discoveries, and the rush of adventurers, scattering all the Company's precautions to the winds. Douglas hurried to the mainland, where a separate Government was hastily established and placed under his charge. He made some efforts, not ill-judged, but costly, to meet the exigencies of the situation, by opening roads, establishing courts, and appointing officers. Then the two colonies were united in one, and Douglas retired from a charge for which neither his talents nor his training fitted him. He left the colony overwhelmed with debt, and glad to throw it off upon the Canadian Confederation, which was just then established. With the true trader instinct, inherited from the founders of their community, the colonists, while gaining this great advantage, had the shrewdness to stipulate for one far larger. They required that the Dominion should undertake to construct a railroad from Eastern Canada to the Pacific within ten years. The confederated colonies undertook the task, which in their circumstances might well be styled stupendous, and have carried it out with admirable energy and thoroughness. The description of this great work forms one of the most satisfactory portions of Mr. Bancroft's volume.

The glowing prophecies which the author puts forth, in his temporary rôle of a British Columbian Micawber, hardly seem to be warranted by the facts. After a settlement of forty years, the white population does not exceed 30,000 souls. The greater part of the country has been well described as a "sea of mountains." A few tracts of arable land are scattered among the mountains; and in the far interior, about the headwaters of the Peace River, there is a considerable area of good prairie land, with a climate not too cold for wheat. The gold returns are gradually falling off; but coal of good quality, and fortunately situated, affords a valuable and increasing export. Doubtless other useful minerals will in time be discovered. Timber, chiefly pine, fir, cedar, and hemlock, is an important resource. The river and coast fisheries may be deemed, under proper regulations, inexhaustible elements of wealth. The transcontinental railway offers commercial advantages. A population of fishermen, miners, and traders, with some agricultural settlements scattered here and there, seems to promise for the country the character of an American Norway. It will have the advantage of a somewhat milder climate than that of its European prototype, with an equally hardy, intelligent, and law-loving people. The Lapps will be well represented by the Indians, who are fast acquiring a rude civilization, and will add a picturesque element to the population.

Some small maps, scattered through the work, afford useful aid to the reader. The principal map, however, is framed on a method now becoming common, against which a decided protest seems necessary. In this method, the map is first drawn on a large scale and then reduced by photography. With the greatest skill and care, the result is almost always unsatisfactory. When such skill and caution are not exhibited, the product is simply a repulsive nuisance. In the present instance the rivers are reduced to a hazy network of filaments, the mountains have vanished almost entirely, and most of the names of places are so contracted as to be only legible with the aid of a microscope. If by exhibiting this "frightful example" Mr. Bancroft shall succeed in expelling this detestable style of illustration from our geographical literature, he may feel the satisfaction of having accomplished a good work.

FRANKLIN IN FRANCE.

Franklin in France. From original documents, most of which are now published for the first time. By Edward E. Hale and Edward E. Hale, jr. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1887. Pp. xx., 478.

It is a little pathetic, to say the least, that the year 1840, in which the nearly 3,000 "Franklin papers" recently acquired by the United States Government were discovered in London, was the very year in which Dr. Sparks, writing the preface to his ten-volume edition of Franklin's works, referred with pardonable satisfaction to his "endeavors to make this edition a complete collection of the writings of Franklin." The precious documents now seen to supplement so largely what was previously known about Franklin's career, had then been lying for years on the top shelf of an obscure London shop; and the fact that they are now at last accessible to the student is chiefly due to the enterprise of the late Henry Stevens.

The "lost" Franklin papers have proved even unexpectedly rich. The "lost books" of Livy have been regarded by more than one modern historian as possibly exceeding in importance those which have been preserved to us; and if one were to choose what in a record of Franklin's career could least be spared, the best judgments would perhaps assign this preëminence to his services in France, from 1776 to 1785. Fortunately it is just in this period of his career that these "lost papers" are found to be exceptionally strong. Their recovery, therefore, is an event of uncommon literary interest—to say nothing of their historical interest—even in a literary history like Franklin's, which, as Mr. Bigelow has remarked, is "a succession of surprises." The gain in bulk in the successive editions of Franklin's works which have appeared is itself very noteworthy. The three-volume edition, brought out by William Temple Franklin in 1818-19, was long accepted as containing all the accessible material. Dr. Sparks's edition of twenty years later was the result of so much and so diligent searching of public and private sources that it contained "some 460 pieces" never before printed. Mr. Bigelow's edition, in turn, of which the first two volumes have just appeared, is, of course, based on the Stevens acquisition now first accessible, and will contain nearly 400 papers never before included either by Dr. Sparks or any of his predecessors.

Pending the completion of Mr. Bigelow's edition and the consequent utilization of the entire Stevens material, it has not unnaturally seemed proper to the Messrs. Hale that different editors should attack, as they say, "different parts of the collection, and bring forward for the use of the public such documents, before unpublished, as are of the most value." The scope of the volume now before us is expressed in its title. It comprises such portions of the collection as relate to five of the years spent by Franklin in France, namely, 1776-1781. There is hardly a period which could be of more interest to a student of American history. The success which the American colonies ultimately attained was due scarcely more to Washington's efforts in the field than to Franklin's in European diplomacy. So recently as 1880 an acute writer in the *Edinburgh Review* has declared that "so far as any historical events can be appropriated to individuals, those two men were the joint authors of the great republic."

Mr. Hale has added to the interest of the present volume by prefacing it with a chapter on "France and the Treaty of 1763." And, in truth, any study of Franklin's connection with this period which should fail to look well before the event and well after it likewise, would be manifestly inappropriate. It was through no accident of good judgment that Franklin's services proved to be so invaluable to his country. It was because his was by nature one of those rare minds which are constantly accustomed to look before and after, in entering upon any action. So far back as 1754, we find him in the Albany Congress advocating measures which almost startle one by the extent to which they anticipate the

discussions of 1776 and 1787, and displaying an extraordinary political prescience. In 1783 he saw clearly the bearing of the Peace of Paris upon the dreams of France for colonial extension, and his perception of this fact was no doubt constantly in his mind in all his negotiations with Vergennes, fifteen years later. In 1774 his mind seems to have deliberately relaxed its hold on the notion that the hope of the colonies could be placed longer on what Parliament could or would do for them. From that time he acted as if assured that the help of the colonies was to be found in their own endeavors alone.

Franklin was not at the outset in favor of direct efforts to secure the opening of diplomatic negotiations with the European Powers. To use his own expressive language, he held that "a virgin State should preserve the virgin character, and not go about suitoring for alliances, but wait with decent dignity for the applications of others." In this, he says, he "was overruled," largely through the persistent efforts of John Adams, who was the chief advocate of the measures for securing alliances. What the colonies would have gained or lost, had some other mind than Franklin's been the influential one in the negotiations actually undertaken, can only be a matter of conjecture; yet, with all we now know on the subject, we can only be thankful that Franklin's was the controlling mind—that his dignified and self-possessed personality was the agency by which America was represented abroad. Certainly there would have been no gain in dignity had the chief control been in the hands of John Adams. His correspondence with Vergennes in 1780 is the very best evidence on that point. Certainly Silas Deane would have been no gain; nor would Arthur Lee, whose apparently selfish malevolence is coming to be more and more generally interpreted as insanity. Franklin's conduct, like that of all men whose work is for posterity, was not wholly understood by his contemporaries—not wholly, indeed, by the writers of our own generation, as we shall have occasion presently to observe. But in the light of history his services are seen to be of the enduring kind.

The "knowledge of the end," says Sir Arthur Helps, we must regard as "one of the most dangerous pitfalls which beset the writers of history." Seldom has this truth been so well exemplified as in the case of the French alliance; for it has been entirely too common for recent writers, seeing what strong reasons could be urged in its favor, to treat it as a foregone conclusion and a matter of course. When, however, as in the volume before us, we are enabled to see what was in the minds of the actors on both sides, the event is perceived to be only the resultant of strongly opposing tendencies. No doubt it was true, and by no one was it more strongly urged than by Franklin, that the Treaty of Paris in 1763 was for France the source of the bitterest disappointment and resentment towards England; that an opportunity to humble her ancient rival in an equally signal manner was precisely what France was most anxious to discover; and that by taking a hand in the struggle between England and her revolted colonies, there was a preëminently effective method available for paying an old score. It was, moreover, natural that France should take an interest in permanently establishing on the opposite side of the Atlantic a friendly Power, capable of carrying on a flourishing commerce with her, and contributing to the enrichment of French merchants. But there was another side. Our authors have outlined it very forcibly.

"Was it natural," they ask, that France "should desire to aid these American colonies to gain their independence? Revolution against kings was no more a part of the Bourbon creed in 1776 than in 1820, the days of the Holy Alliance. Would Louis XVI. care to join a Revolutionary army, even against an inveterate foe? And again, these colonists were men who twenty years before had stood shoulder to shoulder against the French regiments in America, had marched with the Iroquois against Quebec and Montreal. George Washington, their general, was that very leader of the provincials who was associated painfully in the minds of the French, by the Jumonville affair, with that war which had ended in the expulsion of the French from America."

These are the ideas, it must be borne in mind, which were constantly in the minds of both parties to these diplomatic negotiations. There was another idea present, no doubt, in the minds of both. Vergennes hoped, the American Commissioners feared, that the pressure of events might force the American people into a decidedly compromising attitude of armed alliance with France against her enemies. Franklin knew well enough that it would be a sad day for the young nation should the result prove to be merely a change of masters. The yoke would be no easier to wear because Gallic rather than British.

The papers here printed for the first time are particularly numerous for the important years 1778 to 1780, and show very plainly how persistently overtures were received from those who were then acting for Great Britain, up to the very date of the French Treaty. In a letter to David Hartley, dated February 1, 1778 (almost on the eve of the signing of the treaty), Franklin says (quoting a saying of Ariosto, that things lost on earth are to be found in the moon), that "there must be a good deal of good advice in the moon. If so, there is amongst it a good deal of mine, formerly given and lost in this business. I will, however, at your request, give a little more, but without the expectation that it will be followed; for none but God can, at the same time, give good counsel and wisdom to make use of it." Later in the same year he writes again to this same friend of his in England—who, by the way, is seen to have had some intimate connection with Lord North's reconciliation scheme of 1778. He declares that the conduct of Great Britain has "extinguished every thought of returning to it, and separated us for ever. You have thereby lost limbs that will never grow again."

The papers here printed come to an end in 1781, leaving one to infer, though it is not expressly stated, that beyond that point the Stevens collection has nothing new to give us. Additional light on so interesting a matter as the Treaty of 1783 with England would indeed have been interesting, but, with the richness we have in the letters now printed, we certainly cannot complain. Especially welcome is the light here thrown on what have perhaps been the two principal points of obscurity in connection with the French negotiations. The first of these is concerned with the question how far the French Government wished and was willing to be committed to coöperation with America in the years 1776 to 1778. That the position in which the French Government held itself was an anomalous one, has always been felt. That it was distinctly meant to be anomalous is what is now seen to be the case. All of Vergennes's "diplomatic skill and clever astuteness," say our authors, were applied "to maintain France" in this very position, neither openly committed in favor of an American alliance nor, on the other hand, opposing in out-and-out fashion such an alliance. Many hitherto dark matters find their solution here, including "secret aid" to America, rendered through the fictitious firm of "Roderique Hortalez & Co.," rather than outright by the French Government; the temporizing replies of Vergennes to Lord Stormont, the British Ambassador; the palpable, yet apparently deliberate, violations of international law perpetrated by the cruisers under Conyngham and Wickes, with the knowledge of Franklin and Vergennes. When, as they inevitably did, questions arose as to the disposition to be made of the captured vessels, say our authors, "according to public international law, as understood to-day, every one of them would be answered in the negative." From more than one point of view, then, the news of Burgoyne's surrender was a most welcome event, precipitating as it did the change from this anomalous state to that which made the signing of the treaty a necessity.

Of no less importance is the light here thrown on the attitude of Franklin himself during the later years of his stay in France. The grave charge of subserviency to Vergennes has long lain against him, deliberately made in the first instance by John Adams in a letter printed as one of the "public documents" of the "Diplomatic Correspondence." The charge has been many times repeated, and as recently as three years ago by one of Adams's biographers, who says: "He comfortably agreed with de Vergennes and quite contentedly fell in with that minister's policy." While nothing here furnished can be denominated a confutation in set terms of the opinion expressed by Mr. Adams and his biographers, yet the numerous letters to and from Vergennes during these years, now for the first time printed, show anything but a subservient spirit on the part of Franklin. They do, indeed, in several instances show an apparent belief that Mr. Adams was incapable of comprehending the true bearing of events, and an unwillingness, possibly a blameworthy unwillingness, to undeceive him.

We have already referred to the conditions of the Treaty of Paris in 1763 as an antecedent circumstance to be considered in any view of Franklin's negotiations in France. No less important in its bearing on these negotiations are the relations into which this country was later brought with France, during the years 1789 to 1815. The necessity for avoiding "entangling alliances" with any foreign Power was seen by Franklin and others many years before the time of Hamilton and the composition of Washington's farewell address. John Adams himself was perfectly sound on this point, and in his Autobiography wrote (though many years after the event) "that our negotiations with France ought, however, to be conducted with great caution, and with all the foresight we could possibly obtain; that we ought not to enter into any alliance" "which should entangle us in any future wars in Europe; that we ought to lay it down, as a first principle and a maxim never to be forgotten, to maintain an entire neutrality in all future European wars." And he adds, a little later on, "that our real, if not our nominal, independence would consist in our neutrality." This last remark is of a weight and significance not fully realized by Adams when he wrote it, nor could either Franklin or Adams have seen in 1778 or 1783 how vitally significant it was destined to become. Franklin died without being further enlightened on this point, but Adams lived to have it painfully impressed upon him that a real, as distinguished from a nominal, independence could indeed scarcely be claimed for the United States until after the peace of 1815, concluding the second war with Great Britain. The semi-dependent condition of the American Government during the earlier administrations, exposed alike to the warring factions of French partisans and English partisans within our own borders, and to the insolent exactions of English and French authorities alike outside the limits of the country, came too near to realizing the truth of Adams's words. That these entanglements, however, might have been more serious and much more compromising, had Vergennes been more of a match for Franklin, no one can doubt.

We have spoken of the aim of the Messrs. Hale

in this volume to make it a work which will appeal to the interest of the public. We are heartily glad that they have made it so. The public can hardly know too much or have too intelligent an opinion about Franklin's career or services. Franklin's Autobiography, it is true, is one of the few autobiographies in the English language which have been read by all classes of society. By means of it, the public mind has become familiarized with many features of Franklin's personality and private history. The story of his winning for his country a place among the nations of the earth deserves to be equally familiar to every American citizen.

RECENT PHILOSOPHIC LITERATURE.

Introduction to Psychological Theory. By Borden P. Bowne, Professor of Philosophy in Boston University. Harpers. 1887. Pp. 329.

Psychology. By John Dewey, Ph.D., Assistant Professor of Philosophy in Michigan University. Harpers. 1887. Pp. 427.

Some Problems of Philosophy. By Archibald Alexander, Professor of Philosophy in Columbia College. Scribners. 1886. Pp. 170.

The Conception of the Infinite and the Solution of the Mathematical Antinomies; A Study in Psychological Analysis. By Geo. S. Fullerton, A.M.B.D., Adjunct Professor of Philosophy in the University of Pennsylvania. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1887. Pp. 131.

Psychology: The Cognitive Powers. By James McCosh, D.D., LL.D., President of Princeton College, etc. Scribners. 1886. Pp. 245.

Realistic Philosophy, defended in a philosophic series. By James McCosh, D.D. Two vols. I. Expository, pp. 252; II. Historical and Critical, pp. 325. Scribners.

AMONG the many phobias, or morbid fears, now quite well defined, is mysophobia, or fear of dirt, first described in 1878, which impels the patient to wash every object he must touch, and to wash the hands after dreaded contact with everything more palpable than thin air, often scores of times a day, to avoid pollution or contamination. Its analogue we may call hylephobia, or morbid fear of materialism, also a very modern distemper, which afflicts now and then a philosopher with a horror of contact with the fresh facts of science so necessary to his survival in the world of modern thought, and impels him to try to purge every element of matter from facts he cannot escape. Prof. Bowne's book is, in a word, a labored effort to deneuralize the mind. Instead of being neuro-physically interpreted, as most of the best and latest researches now suggest, he pleads that the psycho-physic law is purely psychic. The doctrine of "specific energy" is true, not of the nerves as every one has held before, but of the soul. The so-called cerebral theory is "a set of fantastic and grotesque whimsies." The mind must not be conceived as extended in space, etc. He repudiates the use of "madhouse and hospital stories" in psychology, yet has much to say of aphasia, of sleep, and morbid mental phenomena later. This suggests a sentence from Galton's 'Mental Imagery' (p. 68). After speaking of the "floods of light" thrown "by the every-day experiences of the madhouse," he adds: "No professor of metaphysics or psychology or religion can claim to know the elements of what he teaches unless he is acquainted with the ordinary phenomena of idiocy, madness, and epilepsy. He must study the manifestations of disease and congenital folly as well as those of society and high intellect." Again, Prof. Bowne thinks that in his book "many will not find what they want, and probably still more will find what they do not want." This, by the way, is almost the precise claim made, as we remember, by a book-maker against whom Anthony Comstock waged legal warfare. Our author's case is, of course, far less serious, and this remark merely betrays, like so much else in the book, the painful self-consciousness of a man in a field where he is but little at home.

This is shown not only by many errors, some of them grave, which should be here noticed in detail were there not a worse fault that demands our space, but by the hardihood of assertion about many matters as to which no well-informed man—least of all an expert—would venture any positive statement. Here at once both the dogmatic habit of the metaphysician and the 'prentice-hand of the novice are plain. Prof. Bowne reiterates, with many and ingenious variations, the trite but still grand old formulæ of objurgation which Kant first taught men to use against sceptics and dogmatists. All we can know is soul and its present states, and not brain, or light, or vibrations, or matter, or future or past, as such. There is nothing in the world but consciousness, which unites its own manifold states, manifests itself spontaneously in feeling and in will, which is a free first cause, being both ultimate and undefinable in other terms. Herbart was wrong in saying mind is constituted by the reactions and collisions of ideas upon each other. We agree to this, too, but think even that better than to make it seem to be the mutual action and reaction of words. There are processes of disinfection that are more dangerous than the disease. The restatement of the venerable problems of philosophy in terms of neurology, psycho-genesis, and anthropology gives them definiteness, makes them real and pressing, and is already making the present an era in the history of philosophic thought by applying solutions and better working hypotheses to education, administration, economics, experimental research, etc. To invoke here again the reign of chaos and old night is simply to repel from idealism every vigorous and able young mind that both needs it to live by, and must, by a deep and healthy instinct, abhor all such colloquative mysticism in an age and land like ours. There is absolutely no such antagonism between experiment and introspection, the material and the ideal, the cerebral and the mental, as is here asserted. Rather the active co-operation of these two methods is the new hope of true philosophy and of religion. Historical idealism and empirical scientific psychology are the two tools which every one who would speak to be heard in the very near future must learn to use together like mathematics and physics. We can only deplore in this volume a spirit so unlike that of Lotze, whom the author followed with such fidelity in an earlier work, or that of Prof. Alexander, who says: "There are two common mistakes—one, the denunciation of physiological methods by men who have never seen a ganglion cell; the other, the denunciation of subjective methods by men who have never given an hour to introspection. It does not appear to be necessary, however, that a knowledge of one set of facts should be incompatible with a knowledge of the other set. A combination of the two is the ideal psychology." There is a narrowness of view, a lack of knowledge and valuation of facts, and a petty violence of spirit about this book in striking contrast with every other book in our list, and still more so with the broad and scholarly work of Prof. Ladd, which makes a book like this quite superfluous.

Dr. Dewey states that "what is ordinarily called physiological psychology cannot aid psychology directly; the mere knowledge of all the functions of the brain and nerves does not help the science, except so far as it occasions a more penetrating psychological analysis and thus supplements the deficiencies of introspection." Psychology is defined as "the science of the reproduction of some universal content or existence, whether of knowledge or action, in the form of individual, unsharable consciousness": and consciousness, we are told, cannot be defined or described, but is presupposed in all definitions. The standpoint is thus that of absolute idealism. There is no sense of antagonism and there is more information than in the preceding work, but the author is far too intent on expressing the doctrines of the above creed than on the clear, succinct statements of demonstrated facts, which a text book, in the present condition of psychology, should chiefly attempt. The disappointment of several instructors we know, who hoped to find this in it, is dire. The unusual ability and promise of the author are abundantly manifest, and we are confident that we only anticipate by a few years his own regretful verdict of his work. What so many teachers now want is a simple outline of such leading chapters—each soon to be represented, we trust, by a volume—as time, space, images, binocular vision, the Weber-Fechner law, dreams, hallucinations, and will—each the centre of a large new literature, and of great and deepening interest. These studies can never make the world seem less, but more, ideal and miraculous to young men. The literature which Dr. Dewey cites at the end of chapters, though there is abundant internal evidence that it was an after-thought, is the most helpful part of the book, yet is not utilized in the text; and nearly every author he cites would not agree with the argument, for such it is, of his book.

The contrast between these two books and the others on our list in spirit and method is vast. Prof. Alexander's work consists of eighteen articles, all but the last (on Cause and Effect) brief. The Immortality of the Soul is discussed in two pages; the Atheistic Meaning of Pantheism in one; the Problem of the Will in two; the Ego in two, etc. Those who measure merit by pages will have nothing but contempt for all this. But the absence of philosophic verbigeration and long-winedness, the direct, simple, well-bred statement of results, the rapid sketching of the main outlines of the immortal problems of human life and duty, is most pleasing and effective. It is possible by a simple apparatus to apply a heavy weight to the tactile surface of the human skin so very gradually that the finger may be almost crushed, and not only no pain, but no increase of pressure felt, while even a very small weight, falling on the skin from a very small height, may be acutely felt. So in writing there is probably no thinker so feeble that he cannot make his wisdom impressive by sufficient concentration, or so-able that diffuseness is not fatal to effectiveness. This no more implies that conciseness is feebleness than that prolixity is ability. No less admirable than the pedagogic tact and insight and modesty is the breadth of sympathy shown in this volume, which is not worked by the method of exhausting thought-possibilities, but by all-sided open-mindedness.

Probably the most commendable book on our list is the little volume by Prof. Fullerton, which is a logical and psychological analysis of the mathematical antinomies and of the Infinite. A somewhat abstruse but important and clearly defined problem is carefully examined in good historical light, and the conclusion is reached that, contrary to views now widely current, the Infinite is "neither contradictory nor beyond the grasp of the human mind," and is, in fact, a very common conception as well as real, and consonant with experience and with the Christian doctrine of immortality. It is a work that every student of Kant should know, and is a really valuable contribution to an important topic.

The new volumes of President McCosh, following so soon his volume on Psychology, indi-

cate at first sight most extraordinary activity from a man of his extended administrative responsibilities, to say nothing of ripening years. But the intending reader should be plainly told beforehand that much of the material has been printed before, in pamphlets, articles in magazines, etc., and some of it substantially long ago, especially the logical part. Except the historical continuity of the second volume, topics succeed each other in the most disconnected way, which might be indefinitely varied. There is much irrelevance, which sometimes drops almost into garrulity. Uncle Toby's stockings, which are chosen as the insignia of the "system," are darned with many colors, new and old, but the original Scotch texture is still seen. The author's idea of an "American philosophy," for which he pleads (and which is, so far as its ethical aspects go, less absurd than the postulate of an American chemistry or mathematics would be), is probably illustrated by such eclecticism. Next to the American realism for which he pleads, the author is most open-minded towards physiological psychology, the importance of which is clearly seen. Despite his long and vigorous polemic against him, it is plain that he has inner leanings to much of the drift of Herbert Spencer; but Hegel, and especially Kant, he cannot abide, because they represent idealism, and he criticises them at great length. "Surely," he says, "no one would give ideality a place in science as science. Idealism has no place in philosophy any more than in science. Philosophy will never be properly established till this is acknowledged." Here we have the same sort of blindness to the most important lessons of historical philosophy, from Plato to Hegel, that we complained of in the first writers on our list towards inductive psychology, both involving, as we profoundly believe, the gravest loss to their pupils in the entailment of prejudices which seriously hinder the unfoldment of mental powers and future effectiveness in dealing with a large class of problems in a field where the very strongest of all pedagogic stimulus, the deepest insights, and the most steadying poise can be given to young men by a teacher of catholic sympathies, even if he have no more of a system than realism. After all, however, we cannot refrain from admiration of the vigor, receptivity, clearness, and pedagogic power displayed in these curious volumes.

Le Romantisme français. A Selection from Writers of the French Romantic School. 1824-1848. By Thomas Frederick Crane, A.M., Professor of the Romance Languages in Cornell University. 16mo, pp. xlvii, 362. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1887.

PROF. CRANE is seeking and finding new paths in his specialty. A few years ago, in collaboration with others, he published his 'Tableaux de la Révolution française,' which has proved to be an excellent elementary reader on a plan hitherto little tried. He now presents a work of higher aims, and more novel in character and arrangement. As he says in his preface, no attempt had been made before his own to group the principal writers of what has been called the Romantic movement, and to give by extracts an idea of the literary school of which Victor Hugo is the greatest name. 'Le Romantisme français' is not a book for elementary students, and Prof. Crane very wisely has not tried by notes of an elementary character to bring it within the reach of a beginner. He has succeeded, consequently, in making a book the interest of which is due as much to what he personally contributes to it as to the extracts he presents. These extracts fill 322 pages, and there are 40 pages of notes, which the editor might easily have extended to twice that number had he not used the utmost discretion. In making notes to such erratic writers as Hugo and Gautier, it is difficult to know where to stop. Prof. Crane has not allowed himself to display any useless erudition. What he says is just enough to make the passage annotated intelligible, and he leaves enough unexplained to allow the student to think out for himself difficulties of style or construction. The twenty pages of Introduction are such a good and clear statement of the literary movement in France between the years 1824 and 1848, that it is to be regretted that the editor could not have developed his ideas more fully. As he shows such discriminating tact in what he has chosen to say and to leave unsaid, he will certainly see the justice of the following remark. As an instructor he must know too well the disturbing influence of unnecessary information not to feel that in referring to Lamartine, for instance, it is enough to call him by his name, or at the most to write Alphonse de Lamartine, and not Alphonse de Prat de Lamartine—a compromise, after all, for the whole name, as it is found in biographical and bibliographical dictionaries, is Alphonse-Marie-Louis Prat de Lamartine, though the addition of Prat is condemned by the latest authorities, as may be seen in the just-published work of M. Émile Faguet, 'Études littéraires sur le dix-neuvième siècle,' p. 73 (Paris: Lecène & Oudin; Boston: Schoenhof). It also adds little to the information of a student of literature to begin speaking of George Sand as Amantine-Lucile-Aurore Dupin, especially in such a condensed review as is here given of her work.

Prof. Crane's list of books to be consulted on the Classic and Romantic theories is very good, very rich, and just what it should be in an educational work. To the excellent references on p. xi, on the dramatic unities, one might have been added as being easily accessible, viz.: the chapter on "The Three Unities," in Mr. T. S. Perry's 'English Literature in the Eighteenth Century.' It was, of course, not the editor's intention to give in nine pages an exhaustive list of works on Hugo, George Sand, and the rest. What he has given shows discrimination and taste, and the short remarks about many of the books cited could have been made only by one thoroughly conversant with the literature of the whole subject.

In his Introduction, as well as in his extracts, Prof. Crane limits himself to what was accomplished by the Romantic movement in poetry, fiction, and criticism. The lion's share is justly given to Victor Hugo. Alfred de Musset and Théophile Gautier are generously dealt with; George Sand, Balzac, and Mérimée are also fairly represented. Sainte-Beuve, as the critic of the school, has about twenty pages. There are no other writers. The editor's answer to the objections that might be made to this limitation is that, by a judicious elimination, he has been able to present, in many cases, complete works, "long enough to give a fair idea of the author's style." This is very true, and satisfactorily accounts for the total omission of the drama and of many minor writers. But it may be regretted that one extract, at least, from Michelet was not given to show how the Romantic movement reached beyond the regions of fiction and poetry. It would also add to the fulness of the impression left by the volume if in a few, a very few, cases one characteristic poem or page were given from some of the Romantic writers who had their day of brilliant success in the thirties, like Gérard de Nerval and Émile Deschamps. The celebrated "Sonnet d'Arvers,"

"Mon âme a son secret, ma vie a son mystère,"

would be a graceful addition to any volume on the Romantic movement.

It would be invidious to close this notice with anything that might seem to find fault with Prof. Crane's volume. He has given an excellent selection of the best and most characteristic French Romantic poetry and prose. He has enriched school literature with a book fit to be put into the hands of the most advanced pupils. He has shown that scholarly work, worthy to be ranked with what has often been done for the Greek and Latin classics, can be produced in treating the literary productions of the nineteenth century. We are glad to learn that it is Prof. Crane's intention to continue his work at some future time by a volume on French society in the seventeenth century, in its relations to the literature of that period, which will consist of extracts from contemporary memoirs, letters, and novels. This will be a very desirable and practical commentary upon the classical French writers usually read in colleges, and valuable as an introduction to the more modern literature.

Gazetteer of the British Isles, Statistical and Topographical. Edited by John Bartholomew, F.R.G.S. Edinburgh: Adam and Charles Black; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1887.

A READY welcome awaits this work, which has been long needed. One finds in it political subdivisions down to parliamentary and municipal boroughs, parishes, villages, hamlets, hundreds, and liberties; and, besides these, railroad stations, castles, halls, seats, with forest and moor as well as lake, river, and mountain. Even schools of the larger sort have a place in the alphabet: even Scotland Yard is separated from the metropolis. A cave entrance, like Speedwell Mine, is found in its alphabetical place. The scale of treatment may be judged from Liverpool, which fills a column and a quarter, and London, which demands eight. Wales, as a principality, is allowed a separate article, but none is given to England, Scotland, or Ireland. The English poverty of invention in town nomenclature, or the proof of a former isolation through imperfect means of communication, is shown in the case of the Newtons, whose number, if not past counting, is not easily stated. The origin of the curious name of Portobello is explained, but there is no systematic attempt to do this, even by interpreting once for all the commoner suffixes, such as -ford, -ham, -bury, -by, -caster, etc., with an indication of their geographical distribution, or by showing the great part which rivers play in the naming of towns. The historic and literary associations, however, are well remembered, and the former often reveal the etymology. The population is given according to the census of 1881, together with the present parliamentary representation. The market day—any day but the first two of the week—is stated for market towns. The leading industries are noted—that of London being, we are told, brewing. We miss specific mention of the great cycling industry of Coventry. Girton College is remembered, while Newnham is overlooked. Our eye detects by chance the absence of a cipher by which Chelmsford is placed 3 miles from London instead of 30.

The appendices decidedly enhance the value of this gazetteer. Meteorological and vital statistics are tabulated with great fulness, and the census figures displayed in one view. One sees how the inhabitants of Ireland, exceeding 8,000,000 in 1841, had fallen off a million and a half when first enumerated after the famine, and have almost steadily declined, till 1881 marked a decrease of 3,000,000 in forty years. Occupations, agriculture, railways, commerce; parliamentary representation according to the redistribution of 1885—such are some of the useful data to be found here. Twenty-three maps, physical, geological, meteorological, political; of birth and death rate; of stock; of lighthouses, etc., etc., complete the

sources of instruction. Among these, that of Scotland colored for density of population is most striking to any one who is accustomed to think of the entire peninsula when estimating North Britain as a factor in the United Kingdom.

Sketches and Impressions, Musical, Theatrical, and Social (1799-1885), from the after-dinner talk of Thomas Goodwin. By R. Osgood Mason. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1887.

MR. MASON'S little volume is a readable contribution to the history of amusements in New York and London. Mr. Thomas Goodwin was a music-librarian in this city, who died in 1886, aged eighty-seven years. The first twenty-eight years of his life were spent in London, and accordingly 140 pages are devoted to certain notable events in that city—Nelson's funeral, the first production of Haydn's "Creation," John Kemble's Shaksperian revivals, reminiscences of Mrs. Siddons, Edmund Kean, etc. In 1827 Mr. Goodwin came to New York, requiring for the passage sixty-eight days, at a time when it had been "scientifically demonstrated that no vessel could cross the ocean by steam, because no vessel could carry sufficient fuel for the purpose." Quite as primitive as the facilities for international travel were the musical and theatrical affairs of the city at that period: "In the theatres boots were sometimes seen reposing unrebuked upon the upholstered rail in front of the boxes of the third and even the second tier; though, after Mrs. Trollope's book came out, this display was often met by the observant occupants of the 'pit' with the cry, 'Trollope, Trollope! Boots, boots!' Boots, thus becoming conspicuous as an object of observation from all parts of the house, quietly but promptly disappeared."

The most interesting chapter in the book relates to the Philharmonic Society and the musical societies which preceded it. The Philharmonic was the first permanent musical organization in the city which had regular concerts and evenings for rehearsals. It had four conductors the first season. Beethoven's fifth symphony was the opening piece of the first concert, which took place on December 7, 1842; and this symphony has for forty-five years remained one of the favorite numbers in the Society's repertory. "The rehearsal of Beethoven's symphony in C minor for the first concert in 1842 is frequently spoken of by the few original members now alive and who participated in it, as something wonderful for its roughness; and the frantic efforts of the conductor, U. C. Hill, to obtain a *pianissimo*, or even a tolerable *piano*, are mentioned with a smile."

One of the most amusing anecdotes in Mr. Mason's book is told of the famous 'cellist Robert Lindley. One day when on his way to a music festival the stage-coach, which contained him and other musicians, was upset. No one was hurt, but on counting the passengers Lindley was found missing. Suddenly a strain of music was heard from a churchyard close by. "On making search they found Lindley sitting on the edge of a tombstone, examining his pet instrument, now sounding the various parts gently with his knuckles and now trying the chords, perfectly oblivious of everything about him." Suddenly he noticed his companions, and stammered out: "I was f-f-fearfully afraid my f-fine old 'cello was f-f-for ever ruined, but that strong case saved it, I d-do believe."

The Christian Platonists of Alexandria. By Charles Bigg, D.D. Oxford: At the Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1886.

THE author of these Bampton lectures brought to their delivery not only ample preparation, but also the skill to treat his subject in well-proportioned parts, and the courage to seem less learned than he was in order that he might be more generally apprehensible, and give his lectures something of literary form. It is easy to imagine how futile and unbearable the lectures would have been as heard if he had attempted to empty into them the learning which, in his printed notes, makes up an amount of matter nearly or quite equal to the body of the text. The arrangement of the material is excellent. The first lecture is upon Philo and the Gnostics, after some introductory matter on the Alexandrian Jews and the Septuagint translation of the Hebrew Scriptures (assigned to 300-150 B. C.). The treatment of Philo is extremely sympathetic. The same is true of the author's treatment of the great Alexandrian Christians, Clement and Origen. It would be hard to find a book with less *odium theologicum*, or less disposition to warp the teachings the author exhibits into the service of his own ecclesiastical opinions. The treatment of the Gnostics, if it errs at all, certainly does not err on the side of adverse criticism. Dr. Bigg says: "The interest, the meaning, of Gnosticism rest entirely upon its ethical motive. It was an attempt, a serious attempt, to fathom the dread mystery of sorrow and pain, to answer that spectral doubt which is mostly crushed down by force—Can the world as we know it have been made by God?" But the attempt seems to us to have been made almost entirely from the intellectual side. The intellectualism of Gnosticism was its most striking characteristic. Its enthusiasm was all for daring speculation. It had the Hindu vice of devotion to Gnosis, knowledge, as the saving good of life.

It is strange how many things are written here, apparently with little or any consciousness of courage, which in the 'Essays and Reviews' of 1859 would have brought a storm about the writer's ears. What an allowance that the strength of Gnosticism was in its Old Testament exegesis, which was extremely hostile, and that this "was so powerful because it was so true"! Equally remarkable is the allowance of Alexandrian elements in the Fourth Gospel, and of the gradually evolved distinction of priests and bishops in the course of centuries. Still more remarkable is the credit given to the Gnostics for the preservation of St. Paul's Epistles. Renan is not more explicit on this head; and probably he would agree with Dr. Bigg that the Gnostic admiration for St. Paul was a ground of orthodox neglect.

The second lecture is upon Clement, and is interesting in showing how extremely loose and vague were the conceptions which a few centuries later became hard as rock and as fixed as they were hard. Lecture three continues the account of Clement's teaching. His allegorical interpretation is dwelt upon. Already the six days of Genesis were not six literal days, though they were far enough from being Hugh Miller's geologic periods. The pages relating to the Eucharist could have met with little favor from the ritualists of Oxford, showing as they do how slightly ritualistic was the Eucharist in Clement's time, and how little magical or sacramental. Three lectures upon Origen follow those upon Clement. We feel that we are in the presence of a larger mind, a richer personality, but the difference of opinion is not great.

The point at which these lectures have distinctest reference to present controversies in the English Church, as well as in America, is that of future punishment. Clement and Origen were frank Restorationists, and Dr. Biggs's sympathy with them in this particular is undisguised. For "the Unitarian Channing," "the Buddhist ascetic," and "even the naked savage on his sea-swept coral reef," there is hope. "We believe that one star differeth from another star in glory, and in these words lies all that any sober-minded man has ever maintained." Then there have been many Christians who have not been sober-minded.

The chapter on "The Reformed Paganism" is one of the most interesting in the book, and that on Celsus is the most interesting part of it. Such a mere name to spit upon is Celsus in ordinary polemics that it is good to have him made real to us, and to have him treated with respect. The pages upon Apollonius of Tyana are in perfect agreement with Dr. Réville's admirable monograph, 'The Pagan Christ of the Third Century.' The comparison between Origen and Augustine in the closing chapter is generally adverse to the latter. One does not like to doubt the course of history, but it is impossible not to feel how much more genial and humane the Christian centuries would have been if they had been dominated by the mind of Origen rather than by that of Augustine.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, Prof. H. C. Public Debts: An Essay on the Science of Finance. D. Appleton & Co. $2.50.

Armstrong, W. Five-Minute Sermons to Children. Phillips & Hunt. 80 cents.

Bancroft, H. H. History of the Pacific States of North America. Vol. III. Central America. 1801-1887. San Francisco: The History Co.

Beecher, H. W. Norwood; or, Village Life in New England. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. $1.25.

Bibliothèque patriotique et républicaine. No. 2, Général Boulanger. No. 4, Gambetta et l'affaire Baudin. Boston: Schoenhof.

Black, W. Sabina Zembra: A Novel. Harper & Brothers.

Brooks, Rev. P. Tolerance: Two Lectures. E. P. Dutton & Co. 75 cents.

Browne, W. H. Archives of Maryland: Judicial and Testamentary Business of the Provincial Court. 1637-1650. Baltimore: Maryland Historical Society.

Costello, A. F. A History of the New York Fire Department, Volunteer and Paid. Augustine E. Costello.

Crawford, F. M. Saracinesca. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.

Cushing, W. Initials and Pseudonyms: Dictionary of Literary Disguises. Thomas Y. Crowell. $5.

De Amicis, E. Cuore: An Italian Schoolboy's Journal. A Book for Boys. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.

Drysdale, W. Proverbs from Plymouth Pulpit: Selected from the Writings and Sayings of Henry Ward Beecher. D. Appleton & Co. $1.

Dulles, C. J. Claude Gellée le Lorrain. Scribner & Welford.

Dunn, Dr. L. R. The Inquisition. Phillips & Hunt.

Haggard, H. R. King Solomon's Mines: A Novel. Harper & Brothers.

Hardy, T. The Woodlanders: A Novel. Harper & Brothers.

Hémon, Félix. Théâtre de Corneille. 3 vols. Paris: Delagrave; Boston: Schoenhof.

Jacquet, A. La Vie littéraire dans une ville de province sous Louis XIV. 8vo. Paris; Garnier; Boston: Schoenhof.

Jeffries, R. Amaryllis at the Fair: A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 15 cents.

Johnson, Dr. F. The New Psychic Studies in their Relation to Christian Thought. Funk & Wagnalls.

Johnston, G. The Poets and Poetry of Cecil County, Maryland. Elkton: George Johnston. $1.50.

Kelly, Rev. T. Pulpit Trees and Homiletic Undergrowths. Funk & Wagnalls.

Larousse. Grand dictionnaire universel du xixe siècle. 9e supplément, fasc. 3 Afar—Æthia. Paris: Vve. P. Larousse; Boston: Schoenhof.

Lemcke, E. E. An Illustrated Grammar of Skat, the German Game of Cards. 2d ed., enlarged. B. Westermann & Co. $1.00.

Ludlum, J. K. Was He Wise? Phillips & Hunt. $1.

Meyer, Paul. Alexandre le Grand dans la littérature française au moyen âge. T. I. Textes. T. II. Histoire de la légende. Paris: F. Vieweg; Boston: Schoenhof.

Mohn, Prof. H. Grundzüge der Meteorologie. 4th ed. Berlin: Dietrich Reimer.

Morley, J. On the Study of Literature: An Address. Macmillan & Co. 50 cents.

Nicholson, Prof. H. A. Text-Book of Zoölogy for Junior Students. 4th ed. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.

Novum Testamentum Græce (Textûs Stephanici). Henry Holt & Co.

Orton, E. Geological Survey of Ohio: Parliamentary Report upon Petroleum and Inflammable Gas. Columbus: A. H. Smythe. $1.

Official History of the Great Strike of 1886 on the Southwestern Railway System. Compiled by the Missouri Bureau of Labor Statistics. Jefferson City.

Pearse, M. G. Some Aspects of the Blessed Life. Phillips & Hunt. 75 cents.

Reade—Reade. Charles Reade, D.C.L., Dramatist, Novelist, Journalist. Harper & Brothers.

Reddall, R. F. Who Was He? Six Short Stories. Phillips & Hunt. $1.

Rogers, J. E. T. The First Nine Years of the Bank of England. Macmillan & Co. $2.

Rolfe, W. J. Tennyson's Enoch Arden, and Other Poems. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 75 cents.

Sims, G. R. Poetical Works. Excelsior Publishing House.

Six Weeks in Old France; or, Doctor Thom's Holiday. American Bureau of Foreign Travel. $1.

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Spencer, H. The Factors of Organic Evolution. D. Appleton & Co. 75 cents.

Stephen, L. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. x. Chamber—Clarkson. Macmillan & Co. $3.25.

Stinde, J. The Buchholz Family. Second Part. Sketches of Berlin Life. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.25.

Stinde, J. Woodland Tales. Thomas Whittaker. $1.

Strohm, Gertrude. The Universal Cookery Book. White, Stokes & Allen. $1.50.

Summers, J. C. "Who Won?" 1886. The Official Yacht Record. New York: J. C. Summers. $1.

Taylor, B. Hannah Thurston: A Story of American Life. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 50 cents.
Taylor, B. The Story of Kennett. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 50 cents.
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Thoroddsen, J. T. Sigrid: An Icelandic Love Story. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Vermont, E. de V. America Heraldica: Coats of Arms, Crests, and Mottoes of Prominent American Families Settled in this Country before 1800. America Heraldica Publishing Association.
Vigny, A. de. La Canne de Jonc. Macmillan & Co. 50 cents.
Vose, Prof. G. L. Bridge Disasters in America: Their Cause and the Remedy. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Walsh, Dr. W. P. Echoes of Bible History. Thomas Whittaker. $1.50.
Wheatley, H. B. The Dedication of Books to Patron and Friend: A Chapter in Literary History. A. C. Armstrong & Son.
White, A. D. A History of the Doctrine of Comets. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 25 cents.
White, Lieut.-Col. T. P. The Ordnance Survey of the United Kingdom. Edinburgh: William Blackwood & Sons.
Whitney, A. D. T. Daffodils. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Whitney, A. D. T. Pansies. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Winter, J. S. Garrison Gossip: Gathered in Blankhampton: A Novel. Harper & Bros. 15 cents.
Wood, H. Natural Law in the Business World. Boston: Lee & Shepard.

Fine Arts.

THE ACADEMY EXHIBITION.—II.

"STUBBORN," No. 338, by Louis Moeller, is a small picture, representing three old men in an apartment in which law books and papers, dictionaries and encyclopædias, are scattered about on the table and strewn over the floor. The old men are apparently in the heat of an argument, one of them yet unconvinced being the central figure, and he is shown as emphasizing his convictions with a determined gesture, which leaves no doubt as to his opinion on the matter under discussion. As a story-telling picture it is all that could be desired. If it had no other merit than this, however, it would not be entitled to notice; but, as is usual in Mr. Moeller's work, the figures are concisely drawn, and, though detail is pushed to the last extreme, a certain breadth of painting is preserved, and there is a completeness of ensemble in the picture which makes it very good work indeed. It is the best of the figure works of its kind in the exhibition, and quite worthy of the painter of "Puzzled," the wonderful little picture in the Academy of 1885.

"Washing of the Feet, St. Mark's, Venice," No. 156, is the most ambitious picture Mr. Charles F. Ulrich has ever produced. There is in it more freedom of handling, and in parts of it more carelessness also, than in his usual work. As a composition it is not without serious merit, and, both as to line and masses of light and dark, it is effective. The long row of beggarmen in their white suits on the dais at the right of the picture is painted in a light key, and this group is in happy contrast with the dark purple and red masses of the figures of the priests and acolytes on the left. The picture may be justly reproached for cheapness of color and for a slightly theatrical air, but it contains many serious qualities, notably excellent drawing in the figures of the old men already mentioned.

"Rose Festival," No. 202, by H. Siddons Mowbray, is a variation of his Oriental themes. The scene in this picture is out of doors; the group of pretty young girls amid the roses in the foreground is refined in color, and the figures are cleverly painted. This picture is suggestive of fairyland and is singularly bright and attractive.

"The Lacemakers," No. 323, by Edgar M. Ward, is a picture of two girls seated at work, with their frames in hand, in a large room with white-washed walls and beams. It is carefully painted, and is one of the best genre pictures in the exhibition. "Buckwheat Cakes," No. 351, is in most respects the best of the negro subjects of which Mr. Alfred Kappes has produced so many in late years. The light is well managed, and there is less exaggeration of the effect of light on the figures, which had become a noticeable characteristic of some other pictures in the same line of subject by this artist. Mr. Kappes was awarded the first Hallgarten prize this year for this picture, which shows it to be esteemed by his fellow-artists. He relinquished the prize, however, since he is above the age prescribed in the conditions of the award, and the amount will probably be added to the same prize next year. "Infantry in Arms," No. 434, is a large picture by W. H. Lippincott, a family group of a lady and children in a richly furnished dining-room, which is remarkable for a well-told story and for good qualities of painting. "With Fate Against Them," No. 373, a battle episode—a small party of soldiers desperately defending themselves against an overwhelming opposing force — is of Gilbert Gaul's best work. There is much spirit in the picture, and the men seem to be fighting in earnest. In fact, it is chiefly because of this spirited action and air of reality that the picture is worthy of praise, for it is open to criticism in detail for loose and insufficient drawing and unpleasant color. "Two Friends," No. 359, and "A Kitchen Conservatory," No. 381, are two small interiors with figures by M. A. Woolf, both sober, quiet little pictures with the great merit of sincerity. "The Watched Pot Never Boils," No. 345, is one of Thomas Hovenden's familiar negro genres, about as good as usual, but not better. "Old Whalers at Nantucket," No. 328, by Eastman Johnson, is a group of old salts in a bituminous sort of atmosphere, in which a wall and a door here and there may be made out on close scrutiny. "Old and Rare," No. 319, is a good little bit of painting of the better sort of genre work by George W. Maynard. "Indecision," No. 280, is a single figure of a Puritan maiden in a characteristic interior, with some good qualities of color, by Arthur Hoeber. "Battle of Kennesaw Mountain, Georgia," No. 278, is a large military picture by T. de Thulstrup, a scene in the open in which an excellent landscape, with the mountain in the distance and a fine sky, forms an important part. "The Loiterers," No. 243, is a cleverly painted restaurant interior with two figures, by Irving R. Wiles. "Sunday Morning," No. 174, a life-size seated figure of an old woman with her Bible on her knees, by C. Y. Turner, is marked by a good effect of atmosphere and breadth of painting.

"Flower de Luce," No. 87, is the title given by Mr. Kenyon Cox to a small full-length study of a nude female figure. It is pretty in its general aspect, and the head and upper part of the figure are well executed, but the legs are strangely out of proportion. "Feeding the Pigeons," No. 116, a picture of but moderate merit, is signed "H. Lindenschmit, München." If it is the work of the Munich professor, it is not likely that his reputation here will be increased by its exhibition. It is hard and dry in handling and disagreeable in color. In "The Rehearsal for the Ball," No. 152, by Percy Moran, we find a deftly painted colonial interior, with a number of figures of young men and women preparing to dance a minuet. "La Mandolinata," No. 160, by William Morgan, a life size study of an Italian woman, shows good qualities of drawing and pleasing color. "An Unexpected Guest," No. 193, by F. C. Jones, is an effective little genre—two figures of an old man and an old woman at their modest table in a homely interior. "Two Generations," No. 231, by I. H. Caliga, is a delicate piece of figure work marked by good drawing and pleasant gray tones of color. "The Squire," No. 263, by Richard Creifelds, a small head, possesses considerable breadth of painting. In "The Click of the Latch," No. 398, we have one of F. D. Millet's pretty female figures in a bright cottage interior, in his usual style and of his better work.

Among the new comers in New York exhibitions there is gratifying evidence at the Academy that the number of young artists who have learned something worth knowing about the art of painting is still increasing. "Lotos Eaters," No. 95, by Louise H. King, is one of the most important pictures of this class in the exhibition. It is a figure composition with a landscape setting, the whole decoratively treated somewhat after the manner of Mr. T. W. Dewing's work, and is eminently creditable. "A June Morning in Prospect Park," No. 59, by A. W. Brown, an out-door study with a good feeling of air and light; "Cows," No. 42, by Edwina Post, a broadly painted vigorous cattle piece; "A Cabbage Garden," No. 226, by C. C. Curran; "A Parisienne," No. 284, by H. A. Levy, a small three-quarter length of a young woman in jaunty attire as jauntily painted; and "Lenten Lilies," No. 488, by Mary C. Richardson, a study of a young girl with an apronful of yellow lilies, characterized by refined sentiment and good painting, are other important works signed by comparatively new names which are worthy of mention.

In landscape work in the present exhibition there is a fair showing only. Quite the best thing Mr. Walter Palmer has sent to an Academy exhibition is "January," No. 418, a stretch of snow-covered plain at sunset, with a wide-spreading tree and some rocks and brush in the foreground. This picture is admirably truthful as a transcript of nature, besides being eminently well drawn and full and broad in painting. "A Quiet Afternoon," No. 354, is a handsome picture by H. Bolton Jones, in his best manner, in which some groups of thickly leaved trees, and undulating meadows, with a sky of intense luminosity, make up a picture of excellent quality, truthfully observed and broadly painted. D. W. Tryon is represented by a good example, "A Pasture," No. 97. Kenyon Cox shows a flat field with a large round-topped tree at the right, and a stretch of country in sunlight beyond, "Noon," No. 122, which is good in color and well drawn, but in which the foreground does not seem to "lie down." J. Francis Murphy has among other pictures "Approaching Night," No. 142, and "Neglected Land," No. 344, both representative and of his best; Charles M. Dewey, a characteristic and good "Landscape," No. 472; Horatio Walker, an "Arcadian Pastoral," No. 485; and Edward Gay, a large picture with an effective sky, called "The Pool in the Marshes," No. 432. By F. K. M. Rehn there is a good marine, "Gloucester Harbor at Sunset," No. 307; and by the late Arthur Quartley there are half a-dozen sea and shore views, all characteristic examples.

The exhibit of sculpture is small. This part of the exhibition is arranged in one end of the West Gallery, and it is so placed that the figures can be seen only from one side. A piece of sculpture, to be good at all, must be good from every point of view from which it may be looked at, and it is consequently impossible at the Academy to form a satisfactory judgment on the works shown in this branch of art. "Young Sophocles Leading the Chorus of Victory after the Battle of Salamis," No. 454, by John Donoghue, however, seems to be a powerfully modelled and well-composed figure. It is of heroic size, and is fine in movement and distinguished in pose. "Magdalen," No. 456, by F. Edwin Elwell, is a female figure, graceful in proportions, and well managed as to its great lines. There is also a fine little bust, "Portrait of a Gentleman," No. 458, by Olin L. Warner, and a large "Bacchante Group," No. 451, by Carl R. Smith, which is most ambitious in intention, but only moderately well realized.

The exhibition will remain open until May 14.

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Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1886	1,426,049 46
Total Marine Premiums	$5,235,299 99
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1886, to 31st December, 1886	$3,817,699 86
Losses paid during the same period	$2,206,588 68
Returns of Premiums and Expenses	$841,378 15

The Company has the following Assets, viz.:

United States and State of New York Stock, City, Bank, and other Stocks	$9,382,375 00
Loans, secured by Stocks and otherwise	707,100 00
Real Estate and Claims due the Company, estimated at	501,647 81
Premium Notes and Bills Receivable	1,568,134 20
Cash in Bank	285,254 68
[illegible]unt	$12,444,511 69

Six per cent. interest on the outstanding certificates of profits will be paid to the holders thereof, or their legal representatives, on and after Tuesday, the first of February next.

The outstanding certificates of the issue of 1882 will be redeemed and paid to the holders thereof, or their legal representatives, on and after Tuesday, the first of February next, from which date all interest thereon will cease. The certificates to be produced at the time of payment and cancelled.

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 375

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS 378

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:
A Very Important Announcement 380
Trusts and Confidences 380
"The Mugwump Idea" 381

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:
The Kentucky Resolutions in a New Light 382
An Exhibition of Photographs at Liverpool 384
Flaubert's Correspondence 385

CORRESPONDENCE:
The Excavations at Crotona 386
Western Mortgages 386

NOTES 386

REVIEWS:
Recent Works on Brazil 389
Crazy Heraldry 390
Carlyle's Indebtedness to Goethe 391
Noah's English Settlements in North America 392
Celebrities of the Century 393
Rambles in Old Boston, New England 394
The Pharaohs of the Bondage and the Exodus 594

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 394

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 5, 1887.

The Week.

SPEAKER CARLISLE, in an interview at Louisville on Monday, gave his ideas on the subject of revenue reform and also on the next Presidency. He believes that taxation will be reduced by the next Congress as a matter of necessity, and that the tobacco tax for one thing will be repealed by nearly unanimous consent. This will take off $30,000,000 of revenue. As Mr. Carlisle was understood to have prevented the repeal of the tobacco tax in the last Congress, his remarks at the present time carry something like positive assurance that the repeal will be carried next winter. There will still be a surplus of revenue, and since Mr. Carlisle is opposed to any meddling with the whiskey tax, it will be necessary to cut down the tariff somewhere. But of course Mr. Carlisle is no wiser than the rest of us in determining which way the wind will blow among the 401 men constituting the Senate and House of Representatives. In Mr. Carlisle's opinion, Mr. Cleveland will be renominated by the National Democratic Convention, and ought to be. He has a high opinion of the Mugwumps, and he promises them the happiness of being admitted into the Democratic party some time. He does not say who is to go out when they come in, but he probably has in mind the Old Jeffersonians, the Lifelongs, and the New York *Sun*.

The order, or suggestion, given by the President to the Secretary of the Interior, to grant title to a homesteader who had settled upon a piece of land included within the "indemnity limits" of the Northern Pacific Railroad, is distinctly just and undoubtedly legal. All principles of justice are violated by the withdrawal of the public lands from settlement in an indefinite way. Within the limits of the ten or twenty-mile strip of a land-grant to a railway a definite selection is made by the terms of the act, and it becomes apparent, as soon as the land is surveyed, what are the sections belonging to the railway and what are those belonging to the Government. In the "indemnity limits," which may extend as much as twenty miles beyond the land grant proper, it cannot be known what lands, if any, the railroad company may select to make good the deficiency, if any, of lands within the land grant proper. It has been customary for the General Land Office to withdraw all the lands within the indemnity limits from preëmption and homestead entry until the grantee, the railroad company, has made its selection, and of course the withdrawal operates to prevent anybody from acquiring title there. The Attorney-General could not fail to decide, as he did in this case, that the settler, Miller, had not, as a matter of fact, acquired title, the lands not being open to entry. The President now suggests to the Secretary of the Interior that he exercise such power and discretion as may belong to him to cure the defects in Miller's entry. Of course this ruling will govern in all similar cases hereafter. It is worth remembering that an opportunity to restore some four million acres of the Northern Pacific land grant to the public domain, without dispute or litigation, was given to the last Congress, but that the bill introduced for this purpose was "jumped upon" by one lot of demagogues after another, some wanting to forfeit the Cascade branch grant, and others the whole grant from the Missouri River westward, until it became so loaded down with amendments that nothing could pass.

The reader of Mr. Huntington's testimony before the Pacific Railroad Commission last week must be struck with a sense of the loss suffered by the nation in the death of the Hon. Richard Franchot, a man to whom any amount of money could be trusted without accounts, or vouchers, or even any inquiry on the part of those who supplied it as to its disbursement. Such men are seldom found anywhere, least of all in Washington city. The difference between Mr. Huntington and Mr. Franchot, according to the testimony of the former, was very much in Mr. Franchot's favor, because Mr. Huntington rendered an account for all the money he disbursed, thus putting himself in the category of those who must be subjected to the revision and scrutiny of auditors and comptrollers, whereas Franchot was never asked for a voucher. Such touching confidence would never be believed if it were not sworn to in the manner following:

> Q. Would you pay the sum of $5,000 without taking a voucher? A. Yes.
> Q. Without knowing where it went? A. I should know it was right if I gave it to Gen. Franchot.
> Q. Would you know how it was expended? A. No. There were certain things to be done. I knew he was a man of the strictest integrity—as pure a man as ever lived—and when he said, "I want $10,000," I knew it was proper and let him have it.
> Q. Without knowing how it was to be used? A. Yes; that's my way of doing business. I believe in the familiar couplet,
>
> Trust all in all,
> Or trust not at all.
>
> That is my way.

We find, by reference to the political almanac, that this incomparable man represented the Nineteenth District of New York in the Thirty-seventh Congress, 1861–3.

The *Times* on Wednesday week had an interview with Father McGlynn, the contents of which it amplified on Thursday in an interview with another person, professing to give the true inwardness of the support given to Blaine by the Catholics in this State in 1884. That Blaine received this support, there never has been any doubt. It was thus, and thus only, that he was able to creep up so near Cleveland in the final count. The reason why has always been shrouded in more or less mystery; that is, it has never been clearly explained what Blaine's *quid pro quo* was to be, in case he got into the White House, beyond general favor to Catholic views of politics and morals. Father McGlynn's explanation of the hostility of Archbishop Corrigan, and other Catholic prelates in this State, to Mr. Cleveland, is that he vetoed the bills appropriating money for the Catholic House of Refuge and for the Catholic Protectory. This, if true, however, only confirms a long-standing report. The oddest feature in the canvass of 1884 was the tenderness which broke out between Blaine and the *Tribune* and the dynamite faction of the Irish headed by Pat. Ford.

Mr. Blaine's Western trip served the excellent purpose of giving an opportunity for discovering the drift of sentiment in the Republican party regarding his candidacy in 1888. Just before he went out to the Indian Territory there had been a sort of "experience meeting" among the editors of Republican organs in that part of the country. The St. Louis *Globe-Democrat* led off with the explicit statement that "the Republicans certainly cannot defeat Cleveland in 1888 if they again confront him with the candidate which they put in the field in 1884." Other Republican papers, among them the Milwaukee *Sentinel*, the Burlington *Hawkeye*, the Council Bluffs *Nonpareil*, and the Keokuk *Gate City*, endorsed the *Globe-Democrat's* conclusion. Time enough has elapsed to develop dissent from this opinion among the Western Republican press if it existed, without bringing it to light. On the contrary, the revolt appears to be gaining strength. The St. Paul *Pioneer-Press*, in commenting upon the Rhode Island election the other day, remarked: "Nobody knows where the spirit of independence will break out next; but it lies very near the surface in every Republican State. It must be consulted, it must be placated by the nomination of men of high character and lofty political principles, and not by the meat offerings of patronage, if the party is to remain a power in politics and complete its yet unended mission." The Washington correspondent of the Buffalo *Courier* showed this deliverance to a leading Minnesota man, and asked his explanation, which was as follows: "That is exactly the situation in our State. The thoughtful Republicans are alarmed. Their party is threatened with disintegration. Blaine's nomination would be the weakest that could be made for us. Of 103 Republicans in our Legislature, a poll showed only about thirty for Blaine, and that is about the ratio throughout the State. . . . You will find Minnesota looking elsewhere than to Maine for a candidate next year."

It is estimated by good judges in Rhode Island that there are now in that State between 4,000 and 5,000 voters, formerly Republicans, who are henceforth confirmed Independents or Mugwumps—that is, they are men who will vote for the most fit candidates without regard to their party labels. This is the feature of the recent political revolution there which gives the Republican managers the gravest concern. The total vote shows that while over 2,000 more votes were cast this year than in 1884, the Republican vote was about 4,000 less this year than it was in 1884.

That represents a Republican loss of over 4,000 votes in a total of 19,000, or one-fifth. The entire vote of all parties in the State is less than 35,000, so that about one-eighth of it is independent. As every election is decided by a few thousand votes, it is manifest that these 4,000 Independents have the balance of power in their own hands. As they are certain to cast their votes against an unfit candidate, it is easy to understand why the best authorities in the State are agreed in saying that it will be lost to the Republicans if Mr. Blaine is renominated next year.

It is to be inferred from Mr. Conkling's letter to the Americus Club of Pittsburgh, which last week celebrated the sixty-fifth anniversary of Gen. Grant's birthday, that he believes that the Republican party is still in existence, though in a comatose condition. He intimates that it has not "kept step with the march of events," and has laid aside "the spirit, prowess, and earnestness which made and kept it great and useful and triumphant." As a cure for all this, he suggests "the revival of the Republican party, provided it can discover the questions deserving of attention, take the right side of them, and act up to its convictions." Of the nature of these questions he, however, unhappily does not give the slightest hint. We regret to say, "the bearings of this observation lays in the application on it." Until some truly great Republican reveals what the "questions deserving of attention" are, we fear the party will remain in its present inanimate condition. We believe Mr. Evarts knows what they are, but would not tell, even if he saw approaching the wild horses which were to be attached to his person to wring from him by torture his momentous secret.

The votes cast at the recent election in Michigan, except for one very small county, have been canvassed, and the showing merits careful attention. Beginning with 1882 and ending with 1886, the Democrats and Greenbackers "fused" at each election, so that the true comparison of this month's result is with the spring election of 1881, when the Democrats and Greenbackers for the last time ran separate tickets. The figures for the two contests are as follows, the candidate who led the Republican ticket being the one whose vote is used:

	Rep.	Dem.	Green.	Pro.
1881...	127,436	72,730	33,256	12,774
1887....	176,322	140,827	27,980	18,530

It will be observed that in 1881 the Republicans had a plurality of 54,706 over the Democrats, and of 21,450 over the Democrats and Greenbackers together, and a majority of 8,676 over all three opposing parties; while in 1887 they have a plurality of but 35,495 over the Democrats, and of only 7,515 over the Democrats and Greenbackers, and lack 11,016 of a majority over all the opposition. Supposing that the Democrats and Greenbackers had maintained their fusion, the Republicans would have increased their plurality of 3,308 in the Presidential election of 1884 to 7,515 in 1887 on a smaller vote. The vitality of the Greenbackers is worthy of note, their vote this year being within about 5,000 of their record six years ago, although in the meantime the Greenback "issue" has vanished from our politics.

The most striking feature of the canvass is the showing that the vote on the prohibition amendment to the Constitution considerably exceeded that for State officers, the aggregates being 365,302 for the former and 363,825 for the latter. In a number of counties hundreds of votes more were cast for and against the amendment than for the various judicial tickets, and in the whole State, as will be observed, the total is about 1,500 larger. This is a result without precedent, not only in Michigan, but in any other State. The rule is that amendments are neglected by the majority of the men who go to the polls, and there have been cases in Michigan where not more than a quarter of the men who voted for State officers took the trouble to express their views on a proposed change in the Constitution. Even when the liquor issue was last submitted to popular vote in 1876, the question being whether the section which had then been in the Constitution for twenty-five years prohibiting the granting of licenses should be stricken out, although 316,689 men voted for President, only 113,200 ballots were cast in all on the amendment.

Mr. Edward Atkinson delivered an address to workingmen at the Central Labor Lyceum in Boston on Sunday evening. The difference between his lecture and that of the Rev. Dr. McGlynn was the difference between a practical workingman, who is also a trained thinker, and the inmate of a mediæval cloister. Mr. Atkinson comes before his audience with a yard of cotton cloth. He has made millions of yards himself, and he knows to the thousandth part of a cent where the 6¼ cents that the yard sells for eventually goes. He shows that a little more than 3 cents goes to pay for the cotton, that is, to remunerate everybody engaged in raising, baling, and transporting it; that a little more than 1½ cents goes to the cotton operatives, spinners, weavers, packers, etc., and that the remaining 1¾ cents is divided between mill supplies (other than cotton), wear and tear of machinery, insurance, taxes, freight, commissions on sales, wages of superintendents, and *profit*. How much does profit get? It is a decimal fraction, .3412. On 17,500,000 yards, worth $1,100,000, the estimated yearly production of a mill having a capital of $1,000,000, the owners get $60,000 if the times are good, the cotton-growers, the dealers in mill supplies, etc., get $85,000, the State gets $15,000 in the way of taxes, and the labor immediately employed gets the balance, $940,000. Now, the question is whether capital, the great gormandizer and oppressor of the poor man, can be induced to put itself at risk, and give up the enjoyments which might be had in this fleeting world, for less than .3412 cent per yard of cloth, or less than $60,000 on an investment of $1,000,000. If not, where is to be found the $940,000 that goes to labor when capital retires and the mill stops turning? These are very hard facts. They belong to the "dismal science," as Carlyle called it. But Mr. Atkinson has the rare faculty of putting hard facts in their pleasantest guise, and expounding the dismal science in its brightest colors.

Cardinal Manning's article in the London *Tablet* on the Knights of Labor, if the version published in the *Herald* on Friday be correct, throws no more light on the subject than that of Cardinal Gibbons. He argues in defence of the right of laborers to combine, and of the need of combination in order to defend themselves against the power of capital, which nobody now denies or even questions. But he fails to take notice of the one new fact in the present case, namely, that the Knights of Labor are not a trades union, but an attempt to organize all men who are paid wages in any calling into an association hostile to everybody who pays wages, and in fact to everybody who has saved money and uses or lends it in any enterprise calling for the employment of labor. If this attempt were successful, it would really mean the constitution by the wage-earners of a new political society within the State, an *imperium in imperio*, under an arbitrary government, possessing powers of interference with the lives and property of its subjects such as the worst despotisms in the worst ages have never exercised or claimed. The Cardinal touches lightly on the way the power of the Knights has been abused in persecuting people who do not choose to join the organization. But such an organization must persecute in order to succeed. Men cannot be persuaded on any great scale to surrender their control over their private affairs to small committees made up of persons belonging to totally different callings, without more or less intimidation and annoyance. In other words, the Knights can only maintain and extend the order by making it very uncomfortable or even dangerous not to be a Knight. Consequently, most of Cardinal Manning's talk on the subject is sadly platitudinarian. He affirms what nobody denies, defends what nobody attacks, and avoids touching the only knotty point in the case.

We are informed by the cable that a Mr. White is coming out here on behalf of the Irish Woollen Manufacturing and Exporting Company, in order to look for a market for Irish woollen goods in this country. He is doubtless going to appeal to the patriotic sentiments of Irishmen in America, in order to get them to clothe themselves in Irish woollens. Probably nothing has done more, however, to make people doubt the industrial capacity of the Irish at home than these attempts, of which there have been many, to build up Irish manufactures on a sentimental basis. No people have ever long purchased their goods out of love for the makers. As Thiers well said, "Men will die for their country, but they will not make pig-iron for their country"—or, he might have added, buy it. The only way under heaven to make Irish woollens permanently sell here or elsewhere is to offer them cheaper and better than other woollens. And, even if Irish woollens could beat the English or Continental woollens in the home markets, they could not get much sale here without a lowering of the tariff. And yet at the last election, and, in fact, at every election, Irishmen are found voting for the high tariff for the purpose of damaging England, which is very like the Dublin mob in the last century which burnt the bills of the

Latouche Bank for the purpose of annoying the Latouches.

Prof. Atwater of Wesleyan University at Middletown, Conn., who begins in the May number of the *Century* what promises to be an exceedingly valuable series of papers on "The Chemistry of Foods," makes some remarks upon oleomargarine, from the standpoint of a thoughtful man of science, which deserve the attention of careless legislators. "This is a case," he says, "where mechanical invention, aided by science, is enabled to furnish a cheap, wholesome, and nutritious food for the people." Conceding that legislation to provide for official inspection of this, as of other food products, and to insure that it shall be sold for what it is, and not for what it is not, is very desirable, and that every reasonable measure to prevent fraud, here as elsewhere, ought to be welcomed, Prof. Atwater holds that "the attempt to curtail or suppress the production of a cheap and useful food material by law, lest the profits which a class—the producers of butter—have enjoyed from the manufacture of a costlier article may be diminished, is opposed to the interests of a large body of people, to the spirit of our institutions, and to the plainest dictates of justice." Fortunately, the tax imposed upon the manufacture and sale of oleomargarine by the law as it finally passed was so much reduced from the high figures first suggested by the dairy interests, that while it may help toward preventing improper sale of butter substitutes, and, by obliging sellers to pay high license fees, may considerably interfere with their general use, it will not be as effective in excluding them from the markets as was desired.

It is surprising that in all the discussions about the ash-barrel nuisance and the difficulties of street-cleaning in this city, no mention has been made of that great peculiarity of New York, the absence of back entrances to the houses. We are not able to say in detail how the matter is arranged in all other large cities, but certainly in no other large city is the back or kitchen side of the house wholly inaccessible from the street, as it is here. In Boston, the cleanliness and neatness of which are very striking, there is, in most streets, a narrow passage through the block, in the rear of the houses, through which the ash and swill carts have access to the back yards, in which the household refuse is deposited pending removal. The same arrangement exists in Philadelphia, in Chicago, and in London. In the continental cities the inner court of the great apartment-houses is always accessible to vehicles of some kind from the street, and the refuse can be kept there out of sight. There is probably nothing more extraordinary in New York than the utter disregard of this most necessary convenience in the building of all the upper portion of the city—by which we mean that portion of it which was built after people became conscious that it was going to be a really great city. From Union Square up, block after block has been built, and is being built, up to the Harlem River, without the smallest provision for a back entrance, although a passage through the block twelve feet wide would have sufficed amply for the purpose. The lots are usually 100.5 deep, and six feet from each back yard would never have been missed. A wider space somewhere near the centre of the block would be necessary to enable carts to pass each other, but this need not curtail more than one lot on each side. There are very fine blocks of houses going up on the west side of the Park, but, strange to say, not one is provided with a back alley. And yet it would add immensely to the comfort, convenience, and decency of them all—to say nothing of the preservation of the streets from disgusting nuisances. How is it that no builder has ever thought of this; and how is it that none of the legislators who love to tinker New York city has ever brought in a bill making these back alleys compulsory?

In fact, we doubt whether there is a city in the world which has done less through its municipal ordinances to teach habits of order and decency to the poor, and raise their standard of comfort. Tens of thousands of ignorant, slatternly people drop down here from Europe every year, of whom a large proportion soon acquire homes of some sort, but nothing that they see or hear around them teaches them that cleanliness and neatness can be had without wealth. The only clean streets they ever see are streets where rich people live. The only sidewalks they see which are always free from beastly barrels of offal and ashes, are the sidewalks in front of rich people's houses. It is not surprising that they soon come to regard squalid and filthy surroundings as the signs and concomitants of republican institutions. Those who move out to the suburbs carry with them the tastes which they acquired in the city. Is there in the world a more repulsive spectacle than our suburban villages? Can any one carry a foreigner along our roads and through our villages, between here and the Connecticut line, and on this end of Long Island, without hanging his head for shame, or wishing it were night time? The wretched roads (except along the Hudson River), worthy of the Middle Ages, the dirty little frame houses, the broken-down fences, the weed-grown yards, the litter of vegetable cans, hoop-skirts, old shoes, ashes, offal, and filth of every description which line the sidewalk, wherever there are habitations, make a very odious spectacle. But suburbs like these are fitting appendages to our streets. It would be useless to girdle such a city with more decent villages. We cannot expect the suburban population to dislike squalor and dirt more than the population of the city.

The mortality statistics of London show a steady lowering of the death-rate, amounting to about 20 per cent. during the last quarter of a century. The average during the ten years following 1860 was 24.4 per 1,000; from 1870 to 1880, 22.5, and since 1880, only 20.5, the rate in the last two years having been so unprecedentedly low as 19.8 and 19.9. The change is accompanied by a similar, though less pronounced, diminution in the birth-rate of late years, which ranged between 35.9 and 35.3 from 1870 to 1880, and since then has fallen steadily, year by year, to 32.3 in 1886. The decline in the death-rate of London is, of course, largely due to the development of an effective system of sanitary regulations. The decline in the birth-rate of recent years, the *Lancet* says, has not been confined to London, or even to England, although more pronounced in the metropolis than elsewhere.

The revelations made by Mr. Gladstone touching Parnell's state of mind after the Phœnix Park murders will greatly strengthen the prevailing belief that the *Times* has been the willing victim of a forgery. The temper in which that journal has of late been carrying on the warfare against the Irish party is one which of course makes anything in the way of credulity and readiness to be imposed on, seem possible. That the evidence of the authenticity of the letter could have been weighed by a person in the sort of frenzy about everything Irish in which the editor seems to live, is of course very improbable. To a person in that condition anything that seemed likely to back up the frantic accusations he had been making for many weeks, was very welcome—too welcome to be criticised or examined. But, on the other hand, it is almost certain that both the *Times* itself and a considerable number of the Tories and Liberal Unionists will now maintain that when Parnell made the communications to Gladstone which the latter reports, he was simply manufacturing evidence for future use—that is, to be produced on some such occasion as the present one. There is nothing, in fact, in the way of deep-laid villany they are not ready to ascribe to him, and do not ascribe.

The Tory position, and that of the *Times*, is that when a letter is produced, even by an enemy, containing what purports to be a man's signature, although unaccompanied by any proof of its authenticity, his repudiation of it is of no value, unless backed up by an action at law, to be brought in the midst of a prejudiced and even hostile community. In the present case, the *Times* offers only *à priori* reasons for believing in the genuineness of the signature—that is, the letter is genuine because it is just such a letter as a bad man like Parnell would be likely to write. The acceptance of this argument by a large body of English gentlemen is a striking illustration of the depth of the rancor felt towards the Irish party, and of the absurdity of the notion that there exists anything that can be called real "unity" between Great Britain and Ireland. If there were the semblance of such a thing, of course all politicians in England would hesitate, no matter what their real opinion of them might be, about heaping all the insults they can put into words on the legal representatives of the Irish people in the House of Commons. They would feel that, in reviling them en masse, they were wounding and exasperating a large body of fellow-citizens—a kind of thing which shrewd politicians in a constitutional country always avoid.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, April 27, to TUESDAY, May 3, 1887, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

EX-SPEAKER J. G. CARLISLE has declared that he does not wish to be considered a candidate for the Senate from Kentucky, and has made the predictions that the Fiftieth Congress will reduce the revenue both from customs duties and the tobacco tax, and that Mr. Cleveland will again be the Democratic candidate for the Presidency.

The Inter-State Commerce Commissioners have been holding sessions in the principal Southern cities, hearing arguments chiefly by representatives of the railroads to show that the long-and-short-haul clause of the law ought to be suspended; but an organization of farmers in Louisiana presented a petition for the enforcement of the whole law. Some of the Western roads have lost much cattle traffic because they have refused passes to cattle men while their competitors have continued to give them. Judge Cooley, the Chairman of the Commission, has informed a religious organization in St. Louis that the law does not prevent the granting of cheaper rates to preachers and other religious workers. The Oregon Railway and Navigation Company and the Union Pacific Railway Company are among those which have most recently asked for a suspension of the long-and-short-haul section. The United States Pacific Railroad Commissions, sitting in this city, have begun an investigation of the affairs of the Pacific railway companies.

The National Civil-Service Commission is proceeding with the organization of the permanent Board of Examiners, separate boards hitherto having been appointed at different times. Two of the seven members have already been chosen and have entered upon their preliminary duties. They are to have charge of all examination papers which come up from the several examination cities, and are to pass upon the qualifications of all applicants.

A new prohibitory law has been enacted by the Rhode Island Legislature, the principal features of which are as follows: Making the presence of an excess of two per cent. of alcohol in liquor *prima-facie* evidence that it is intoxicating; giving the Chief of State Police ten salaried deputies for use in any part of the State; strengthening the seizure section; giving members of the State Police authority to arrest and hold a prisoner twelve hours without a warrant; making drunkenness a statutory offence, with a maximum penalty of $10 fine or ten days' imprisonment; making the keeping of a club-room a penal offence, the maximum penalty being $1,000 fine and a year's imprisonment.

Dr. W. T. Northrup, a prominent physician at Haverhill, Scioto County, O., was murdered April 27 by Thomas McCoy, a saloon-keeper, and his brother and nephews, because Dr. Northrup had been active in favor of local option. They waylaid him and fired on him with pistols and shotguns. The murderers were arrested, and the excitement has been the greater because the murder was committed for the same reason as the Haddock murder in Iowa.

A sum ($8,000 or more) has been subscribed in Louisville, by liquor-dealers, to be used in the fight in Texas over a prohibitory amendment to the State Constitution. The Texan campaign is becoming very exciting.

At Fall River, Mass., on April 30, every one of the 300 liquor licenses expired, and prohibition under the no-license law went into effect. The town had got $60,000 a year revenue from this source.

Milo H. Dakin, a member of the Michigan House of Representatives, who was accused of soliciting money from his fellow-members on false pretences, and of making out a list of members and the prices for which their votes could be controlled, was found guilty under impeachment proceedings April 28, and expelled.

Gov. Green of New Jersey on April 28 signed the bill requiring the use of the Hall & Wood ballot-box, now in use in Ohio. It registers and numbers each ballot, and is secured with three different locks and keys.

Thirteen more indictments against men for committing frauds in the election at St. Louis last fall have been presented by the Grand Jury to the United States Court.

The Half-Holiday Bill, as it has passed both houses of the New York Legislature, provides that in case New Year's Day, Washington's Birthday, Decoration Day, the Fourth of July, or Christmas falls on Saturday, the next Monday shall be deemed the legal holiday, and in such cases commercial paper which would otherwise be payable on that Monday is payable on the Tuesday next succeeding. The bill, if it receives the Governor's signature, will make every Saturday afternoon a legal holiday, in addition to the days named above.

Another man having leaped from the New York and Brooklyn Bridge, a bill was introduced in the New York Legislature April 28 to make jumping from the bridge a misdemeanor.

The motion made by the counsel for Jacob Sharp, to quash the indictments against him for giving bribes to the New York Aldermen of 1884 to grant the Broadway Railway franchise, has been denied, and his trial will be begun on the day appointed—May 11.

The jury in the case of Paul Grottkau of Milwaukee, charged with inciting riot there last May at the time of the Anarchist activity in Chicago, found him guilty.

The largest natural gas well yet discovered is at Fairmount, Ind. The test of Prof. Orton, State Geologist of Ohio, shows that it is flowing nearly 12,000,000 feet per day.

Robbers stopped a Southern Pacific train near Tucson, Arizona, April 27, and took from the express car about $5,000.

The streams in New England, especially in Maine, have been swollen to a higher water mark than had been reached before in eighteen years. Two million logs at the Somerset Mills on the Kennebec River were washed away and many of them were carried to sea. The damage to railroad tracks and to other property is great.

Two sharp shocks of earthquake were felt at Spokane Falls, W. T., April 30.

During the winter season of 1883-4 48,869 persons were registered at the hotels in Jacksonville, Fla.; during the season of 1884-5 60,011; during the season of 1885-6 65,193, and during the season just ended 58,460. The comparative reports from the hotels in other towns in the State show about the same rate of increase up to 1885-6, and slight decrease this season.

A Philadelphia company has built four magnificent sleeping cars that are to be drawn by horses in the heart of the Argentine Republic. Horse power is used because of the scarcity of coal.

The report of the Massachusetts Railroad Commission on the Bussey Bridge railroad disaster has been presented to the Legislature. It finds that the contract for the bridge was carelessly made, that the designs and specifications should not have been accepted, and that the bridge had not been properly inspected. The Board recommend the passage of an act requiring every railroad, at least once in two years, to have a thorough examination of all bridges on its lines made by a competent civil engineer.

The 800 employees of Asa Cushman & Co.'s shoe factory at Auburn, Me., received a dividend of 4 per cent. on the amount of their wages for the year ended April 30. The business of the factory for the year amounted to $1,269,262; the cost of labor, $288,244, in addition to the dividend of 4 per cent., which amounted to $11,529. The business of the factory was larger by $150,000 under the profit-sharing system than ever before.

Mrs. Richmond of Batavia, widow of the late Dean Richmond, has given $25,000 for the purpose of erecting a library building in that place. Mrs. Osterhout, widow of the late Isaac Osterhout, died in Wilkesbarre, Pa., April 28. Her husband by his will bequeathed about $200,000 for the erection and establishment of a free library in that city, but provided that the fund should accumulate for five years. The five years have expired, and now by the death of the widow the fund is increased to nearly $400,000. Mr. Henry Woods of Boston has presented the Library Association of his native town, Barre, with a building, erected by him last year, and $5,000 as an endowment for a library.

The Metropolitan Museum of Art in this city has received two more notable artistic treasures. Mr. Henry Hilton has presented to it Meissonier's famous painting "1807," which he purchased at the recent sale of the Stewart collection, and Édouard Detaille's "Defence of Champigny."

Mr. Robert Henderson, who is employed by the Smithsonian Institution, arrived at Philadelphia April 28 with a large collection of tropical birds which he had made in the West Indies.

The hundredth anniversary of the birth of the German poet Ludwig Uhland (April 26) was celebrated by the Germans of New York April 28, and a literary society at Berlin gave a grand banquet in the Town Hall in honor of the same event. Among the guests were many authors, scientists, and other distinguished persons.

Gen. Grant's birthday, April 27, was observed by meetings at Pittsburgh and at several other places, many of them under the direction of the Grand Army posts. It is expected that the day will be observed every year.

A stone monument to ex-President Arthur will be set up in the cemetery at Albany, and a life-size bronze statue of him in one of the public squares in this city, by a number of his friends.

FOREIGN.

M. Schnaebelé, the French Commissary who was arrested by German police and imprisoned at Metz, was liberated April 30; but his trial will be continued, and is expected by the Germans to show the closest connection of the French Government with the spies. He arrived at midnight at Pagny-sur-Moselle, where he was arrested, and he was met by the populace of the town, headed by all the officers of the municipality. They cried "Vive la France," "Vive Schnaebelé." He proceeded to Paris, where he had an interview with M. Flourens. The Paris newspapers express pleasure at the manner in which the Schnaebelé affair has been settled, and pronounce it an honorable settlement. They praise the prudence and fairness displayed by M. Flourens, Minister of Foreign Affairs, in his conduct of France's side of the case. They draw from the incident the lesson that in the future France must redouble her vigilance in order to avoid surprises of the kind caused by the arrest of M. Schnaebelé. Germany seems to have even greater reason for gratification. Bismarck expects now to be able to show, whenever he chooses to find or make a *casus belli*, that the Government of France has officially sanctioned espionage of the most treacherous character. Schnaebelé's release will be exhibited as an act of magnanimity.

During the performance on the evening of May 3 in Paris of "Lohengrin," a crowd

gathered outside the theatre which hooted Wagner and Germany, sang the "Marseillaise," and cried, "Vive la France! Vive l'Armée!" The police cleared the street and arrested four persons. A rainstorm dispersed the mob before the performance was ended.

The remains of the composer Rossini, who died in Paris in 1868, were disinterred at Père-la-Chaise Cemetery May 1 in the presence of a number of admirers. They were taken to Florence for reburial on May 3.

Mr. Gladstone, in a speech at a dinner given by Labor members of Parliament on April 26, declared his disbelief in the accusations made against the Irish leaders. He said that in May, 1882, immediately after the assassination of Cavendish and Burke in Phœnix Park, Mr. Parnell wrote him a letter with reference to that crime, the contents of which had obviously been written under great mental distress, and gave strong evidence that the letter recently published by the London *Times* as Mr. Parnell's was a base and malicious forgery. Mr. Parnell offered to place himself without reserve in Mr. Gladstone's hands; he regarded the murders with the utmost abhorrence, and offered to resign the leadership of the Irish party and retire altogether from political life if Mr. Gladstone considered such a step advisable in the interests of Ireland. Mr. Gladstone said that many years ago, when he was Commissioner to the Ionian Islands, the *Times* bitterly attacked him, accusing him of treason. On returning to England he consulted a famous lawyer, Mr. Freshfield, with the view of bringing an action, but was dissuaded because, even if he proved his case, no jury, in the state of the public mind at that time, would be likely to convict the *Times*.

In the House of Commons on April 28, a Liberal motion that the House decline to proceed with any measure directed against tenants' combinations for relief until a full measure for their relief from excessive rents is presented in Parliament, was rejected by a vote of 341 to 240; and a motion that the House go into committee on the Crimes Bill was then adopted. In the debate beforehand Mr. Morley said that the effect of the bill would be, not to prevent the withdrawal of capital from Ireland, but to drive out the labor that supported capital. The Government had its own weak case to thank for the prolonging of the discussion.

In the House of Commons on May 2 the debate on the Crimes Bill turned on the question to what parts of Ireland the bill would be applicable. Mr. Labouchere said that its aim was to crush out the Nationalists, leaving the Orangemen to do anything they liked. The administration of the law was so bound up with the Orange faction that it could not be impartial. During the debate Mr. Gladstone, replying to a statement that he was responsible for the equally strong system of five years ago, said that an essential difference was overlooked, namely, that his bill had been directed against crime, while the one under discussion was not. At least, he added, the present bill was directed against acts that had not hitherto been considered crimes. By the application of the closure rule the debate on this phase of the bill was shut off.

The London *Times* on May 2 said: "Our articles on Parnellism and Crime and the Parnell letter have sunk deep into the public mind, and have produced a conviction that nothing will shake, save evidence of a kind that Mr. Parnell cannot produce." The *Times* published on the same day a long article of the style of the articles on Parnellism and Crime, purporting to show that Mr. John Dillon, in his defence of the Parnellite party, either offered to Parliament a tissue of fictions or reached a still lower depth of dishonesty.

Charles Edward Lewis (Conservative), on May 3, in the House of Commons, called the House's attention to the breach of privilege committed by the *Times* in making this charge against Mr. John Dillon, and moved that the House take notice of them. Mr. Dillon declared that when the publisher of the *Times* stood at the bar he would prove him as base and cowardly a liar as ever existed. Mr. Sexton said it was for an assembly of English gentlemen to say whether for the future its Irish members should be exposed to the attack of every ruffian calling himself the editor of a newspaper. The House should let the assailed members have an inquiry by committee. "Then," said Mr. Sexton, "let the *Times* bring forward its battalions of forgers and liars. The Irish members will prove that they have been subjected to a system of moral assassination." After debate the House adjourned without taking action on the motion.

In the trial of the suit of St. John Brenon against William Ridgway, a publisher in London, for libel in accusing the plaintiff of being a Fenian and a former ally of the Invincibles, the jury returned a verdict for the plaintiff, awarding him £500 damages.

Mr. Parnell has selected Mr. William O'Brien, editor of *United Ireland*, as the Home-Rule candidate for northeast Cork to fill the vacancy in the House of Commons caused by the resignation of Mr. Edmund Leamy, Home-Ruler. Mr. O'Brien and Mr. Kilbride, one of the tenants evicted from the Lansdowne estates, sailed from Queenstown for New York May 1, on their way to Canada, where they hope to arouse popular indignation against Lord Lansdowne. The Mayor and the Municipal Council of Queenstown and various other bodies presented Mr. O'Brien with addresses, and a crowd cheered him.

During the week ended April 30 2,618 emigrants left Queenstown for America. The total number who sailed from that port for April was 11,854, against 6,656 for April last year.

Westminster Abbey has been vacated by the clergy and given over to artists and architects for decoration for the jubilee visit of the Queen on June 21. The Privy Council has directed the Archbishop of Canterbury to prepare a prayer and thanksgiving for the occasion, which is to be ordered to be used in England, Wales, and the town of Berwick-on-Tweed. Manchester's jubilee exhibition rivals in interest and value the international exhibitions of the past. The collection of modern English paintings, which is insured at a value of $10,000,000, is said to be the finest ever made.

The Cambridge (England) University Boat Club has appointed a committee to make arrangements with the Harvard University Boat Club for a race between the Cambridge and Harvard crews, to take place in America in September. Seventy yachts have been entered for the British jubilee race, and it is probable that more will be added to the list of competitors before the entries close on June 7.

The Oxford University Dramatic Society will this year play the "Alcestis" of Euripides in the original Greek. The first performance will take place on May 18.

Cardinal Manning has published a letter wherein he says that towards the end of the last century the doctrines of political economy, under the plea of free contract, broke up the old relations between the employer and the employed, and the conflict between capital and labor then became perpetual; that the Knights of Labor and the British trades unions represent the rights of labor and the rights of association for its defence, and that the freedom of contract on which political economy glorifies itself hardly exists. Although the Clerical newspapers at Paris are silent on the Papal decision on the labor question, the Royalist journals express displeasure. The *Temps* says it does not wonder that the Pope is trying to gain such a powerful machine for his side as the Knights of Labor, but wonders what is to become of the old prejudices that so long dominated Rome. The Holy Office consecrates democracy as the legitimate heir of the régimes which preceded it.

As published in Vienna, the conditions for a reconciliation of the Vatican with the Quirinal are these: (1) The Pope will advise the royal, archducal, and ducal families of Naples, Tuscany, and Modena to renounce all claims to sovereignty in favor of the Holy See; (2) and he will crown Humbert King, granting him and his Catholic descendants territory in Italy in fief. (3) The King will govern the whole kingdom, with full temporal rights, but will acknowledge the Pope as suzerain, and pledge himself to rule according to the dictates of the Church; (4) and he will reside in Rome. (5) Territory, including the Leonine City and part of the Tiber shore, will be allotted permanently to the Pope, with absolute ruling and proprietary rights. (6) A special convention will be concluded, fixing the amount Italy shall pay to maintain the Papal household.

The lower house of the Prussian Diet ordered the new Ecclesiastical Bill to its third reading on April 27 by a vote of 243 to 100. Twenty-six Free Conservatives, eight Conservatives, and eight National Liberals abstained from voting.

The troops of the Amir of Afghanistan have been routed in two recent engagements with the forces of the rebels against his rule, and Candahar is threatened. The Governor of Herat has sent another demand to the Amir for reinforcements. He states that the Russians are advancing their posts and exciting the Afghans. Traders arriving at Herat report that the Russians have removed the pillars erected by the Boundary Commission.

It is reported from London that three Russian steamers are continuously engaged in transporting troops destined for Tcharjui, in Turkestan.

It is reported that Russia has proposed to remit the Turkish war indemnity in return for a cession of territory in Asia Minor.

The Swiss State Council has ratified a Literary Copyright Convention with the United States.

The details of a new postal treaty between the United States and Mexico have been made known at the Mexican capital. It provides that the single-rate letter postage between the two countries shall be reduced from five to two cents. Before it can go into effect it must receive the approval of the Congress and President of Mexico, and of the President of the United States.

It is reported that two of the seven lost Mexican bonanza mines have been rediscovered by an American party of prospectors. The tradition is that they were worked up to the middle of the last century. A surveying party found in an old chapel maps and other data which gave them a clue.

Advices from Lima under date of April 1 are that the number of deaths from cholera at Santiago and Valparaiso were decreasing. Free communication between the capital and the port has been restored. Up to that date 2,873 persons had fallen victims to the epidemic in Santiago alone. The poverty was alarming, owing to the few opportunities for work, and suicides were reported to be of frequent occurrence.

The first straight party division in the new Canadian House of Commons was made on April 29, the Government majority being 32.

A hurricane swept the northeast coast of Australia on the 22d inst. A pearl-fishing fleet, numbering forty boats, was destroyed, and 550 persons perished. The steamer *Benton* of Singapore was recently sunk in a collision with a bark off the island of Formosa, and 150 persons, among whom was no European, were drowned.

A VERY IMPORTANT ANNOUNCEMENT.

THE first meeting of the most ambitious society the world has ever seen, was held on Sunday night in Chickering Hall—we mean the "Anti-Poverty Society." The object of this society is not to diminish poverty, or to console those who suffer from it with the promise of better things in a future life, but, to use the words of Dr. McGlynn, who was the principal speaker, "to pluck out the very heart of the hated thing—not to coddle it by plaster or poultice, but to reach to the basis which is the perennial and fruitful parent of that horrid poverty resulting from the injustice of man in violating the laws of God."

The metaphors here are a little mixed, but there is no rhetorical fault which may not be pardoned to a man who is announcing such a change in the near future as the disappearance of poverty. This would really be the most tremendous change seen since the appearance of the human race on this globe, for during the whole of that period, as at this moment, the great mass of mankind has lived and died in poverty—that is, has been able by hard labor to extract little more than a bare living from the soil. This is true of all countries and all ages, under all systems of land tenure and all systems of government. There are countries, and there have been ages, in which men were less poor and more contented than in others, but in all countries and all ages most men are more or less poor and more or less discontented. This is true of the people of Europe, of Asia, Africa and America. In all of them poverty has probably the same cause, whether it be, as we think, the niggardliness of nature, or, as Dr. McGlynn thinks, the injustice of man. In other words, whatever may be the cause of poverty, it is something tremendous in its power, and extent, and duration. The Society, therefore, which undertakes the speedy squelching or removing of this cause is a glorious society. If it succeeds without deceiving anybody, or obtaining money or goods from anybody on false pretences, its founders will take the place in human memory and imagination now occupied by all the prophets, apostles, saints, and sages of every age and clime. To say they will become famous would be ridiculous. Their position towards the human race will more nearly resemble that once occupied by the Greek and Roman divinities than that which the modern world has been in the habit of assigning to mortals, however illustrious. McGlynn and George will, in other words, if the Society succeeds, most certainly be worshipped as deities. Nothing the Positivists or Agnostics can say will prevent it. Halls dedicated to them and in which they will receive divine honors will spring up all over the country, and Chickering Hall will be put under glass and kept for pilgrims from all parts of the globe as the sacred spot from which the decree went forth which put an end to the greatest and most constant of human ills.

We are not ourselves, however, very sanguine about the matter, because Dr. McGlynn already seems to us to profess to know a great deal more of the intentions of the Almighty than the facts quite warrant. He said, for instance, apparently from his own knowledge, that "God cannot have sent the great mass of His children into this world to be cursed for ever with misery and poverty." Now, we do not ourselves know what the future of the race is to be. We trust it will be far happier than the past has been; but we are sure there is something wrong about Dr. McGlynn's deductions from the fatherhood of God. His argument is, that as God is our father, he cannot have intended any of us to be poor and miserable. But the fact is that the great bulk of us have been poor, miserable, and ignorant for countless ages, and are so still. Why this should be, we no more know than why man was sent on this planet at all. But Dr. McGlynn knows no more about it than we do. If his argument be good for anything with regard to the future, it ought to be good with regard to the past. But with regard to the past we know it to be as vain and empty as the ring of a brass farthing. God, in other words, has not governed the world on the McGlynn plan, and there is no reason to suppose that He will govern it hereafter on any plan recommended by McGlynn. He takes no account of resolutions passed in halls or even of popular majorities. In India, within our own time, where the land is all held on the George plan—that is, owned by the State and rented to the cultivators—hundreds of thousands of men, women, and children have perished miserably of famine, not through the injustice of men, but through drought. How is this to be explained on the McGlynn theory? Why did the earth not bring forth her fruits for these innocent peasants, and prevent the awful misery of a great famine? Why did earthquakes and volcanoes lay waste thousands of square miles in the Spice Islands a few years ago, and the overflow of the lower Ganges drown tens of thousands? We do not know, and the man who says *he* knows, and tries to get simple people to *act* on his information in the management of their lives, is undoubtedly either a deluded person or a charlatan.

What is most melancholy, however, about such oratory as Dr. McGlynn's and Henry George's is, not simply that they are trying to persuade ignorant people that their land scheme is divine in its origin, and would banish poverty, but that it can be successfully carried into execution by human agency; or, in other words, that we have the talent and capacity at command for the management of the whole continent as Government property, with such justice, honesty, intelligence, and foresight that no man shall be poor or unhappy. They do this, too, in full view of the result of poor Powderly's much less ambitious attempt to regulate the affairs of a few hundred thousand wage-earners, in different parts of the country. Powderly is really a man of very moderate abilities, little education, and apparently a poor physique; but he nevertheless undertook to create an organization which should solve the "labor problem" on this continent, and which he was to direct for the ridiculously low salary of $5,000 a year. He has only been two or three years in full work in his new post; and although he has never come anywhere near success, he is already crying out to his followers to have mercy on him. His wail, printed in the morning papers, is, when one considers what the man undertook, as ludicrous as anything in comic literature. He complains of the number of letters he receives, and implores people not to write to him or send him invitations to lecture. His strength, he says, will not stand the strain, and he "must have relief from unnecessary labor." But he has no right to ask for relief. Anybody who undertakes to tell all the trades in the United States how to manage their business, and all capitalists how to spend their money, is not entitled to relaxation.

TRUSTS AND CONFIDENCES.

THE public are hardly aware of the magnitude of the power growing up among them under the name of "Trusts." We are all familiar with corporations. We know where to find them. We know what their powers are. We can call them to account. The shareholders can inspect their books and in some cases understand them. They are the creatures of law and are subject to its limitations. These have been defined by judicial decisions extending over hundreds of years, so that anybody who takes the trouble can learn to a nicety what any corporation can do, and what it cannot. Nearly all corporations, for instance, have a limited capital and a limited debt, neither of which can be exceeded without express public authority. So, also, they are limited as to the nature of their undertakings. A railroad company cannot engage in manufacturing or general trading without express authority. A manufacturing company cannot engage in navigation, or banking, or publishing newspapers, or supplying gas to cities, or speculating in land or in stocks, or in any trade not specified in its charter. These limitations are in the interest of the shareholders as well as of the public. They are grounded in reason, and they form the substratum of corporate existence everywhere.

The "trust" is the sphinx of corporations, except that it is not a corporation at all. It may own and control many corporations, but it is bound by no law. There are no limitations upon it, not even those of time and space. Neither the public nor the shareholders can call it to account. It has no fixed abode, no place of meeting, no books of account that anybody can demand access to. It may engage in any kind of business or in many different kinds at once. It is irresponsible to the last degree. It may dissipate the capital confided to it without danger to anybody except the confiding investors. It may oppress the public without fear of the State because there is nothing for the State to lay hold of. Although it calls itself a trust, it is as far as possible from being such. There is a body of law applicable to trusts, but there is no law applicable to "the trust." It should be called a Confidence, since it has no similitude to anything known to the law as a trust.

What is meant by a trust in the present acceptation of the term, as, Standard Oil Trust, Cotton Oil Trust, Gas Trust, etc., is this: Certain persons conceive the idea of buying up all the machinery and tools in the country ap-

plied to the production of some staple article. They call themselves a trust, and invite the public to subscribe money to carry the plan into effect. They also invite the producers of the article to put their establishments into the trust, representing that thus competition can be controlled. They have no act of incorporation. They could not get one if they wanted it, and they do not want it. They get a certain number of producers with their plant into the trust and a certain amount of money into the treasury. Then they begin to force the other producers to come in by employing their heavy capital to crush them if they do not. The Standard Oil Trust had, as is well known, the coöperation of the railroads to help them to crush out rival refiners and dealers; but such assistance cannot be reckoned on hereafter if the Commerce Act remains in force.

It is a matter for surprise that the public are willing to put their money and property thus into the hands of irresponsible persons beyond the safeguards of law. That they will do so is shown clearly enough by the rapid growth of the Cotton Oil Trust. The Standard Oil Trust is a slower growth, but a much more formidable one. It has "blazed the way" for all the others, and has excited the investing public with a vision of equally large profits to be derived from the magical name of trusts. It has kindled a new form of madness in the speculating public, such as the South Sea Company bred after its kind in London a century and a half ago. There is nothing in the history of the "bubble companies" more absurd than the present eagerness of the public to put their money in places where they can never control it again, or learn anything about it more than the "trust" chooses to tell them. Most of those who throw their money into these confidences will lose it. They certainly ought to. They will lose it not because the managers are dishonest—so far as we know anything about them, they are not—but because they are striving after the unattainable. They are striving to circumvent the law of competition over the whole of a vast continent.

The Standard Oil Trust has accomplished this end for the time being, but the Standard Oil Trust will be put to death somehow and some time, most probably by its own vaulting ambition. Having secured its oil monopoly, it is now reaching out in many different directions after other things—railroads in Virginia, steam-heating works in New York, gas wells in Pennsylvania and Ohio, etc. It may have cattle ranches in Montana, and cotton presses in Texas, and salmon canneries in Oregon for aught that anybody knows. But whether it comes to an end one way or another, it is certain that the American people will not allow themselves to be bound and strangled, like a blind Samson or an aged Laocoön, by a lot of new-fangled monopolies calling themselves trusts. A way will be found to get rid of them, and it will be a lawful way. Meanwhile we counsel the investing public to give them a wide berth.

"THE MUGWUMP IDEA."

THE Nashville (Tenn.) *American*, a Democratic journal of ability and force, is impatient at our recent suggestion that the Administration cannot afford, at this stage in its history, to permit the use of the offices merely as patronage, and our criticism of dismissals of Republicans for purely political reasons. The *American* makes a serious blunder, however, in stating the ground of this criticism. "The Mugwump idea of civil-service reform," it says, "is to keep all Republicans in office and fill all the vacancies with Republicans."

The misconception of the Mugwump position here shown is so radical that it seems worth while to restate it correctly. To do so requires the change of only a very few words in the *American's* definition, which should read thus: The Mugwump idea of civil-service reform is to keep all faithful and competent incumbents in subordinate offices, and to fill all the vacancies with the best men who can be secured. It is understood, of course, that the small number of high offices whose incumbents necessarily have to do with the formulation or execution of a party policy are not here taken into account, since nobody disputes that a President should make changes in such offices.

It is always much easier to elucidate a principle by a few illustrations than by abstract reasoning, and we think we can make our meaning plain by referring to three or four concrete cases. Soon after Mr. Cleveland became President, the term of Mr. Henry G. Pearson as Postmaster of New York expired, and the question arose as to who should fill the office for the ensuing four years. The spoilsmen in the President's party urged that, as there was a Democratic President at Washington, there should be a Democratic Postmaster in New York, and that the President's duty was to order a competitive examination, open only to "party workers," and give the place to the applicant who could establish the strongest "claims." The Mugwump idea was that the incumbent, who had scrupulously kept out of politics and had made his office the model post office in the country, ought to be reappointed, on the simple ground that he could render the public better service than anybody else, and that the fact that he was personally a Republican in party predilections had nothing to do with the matter.

About a year later the term of the Brooklyn Postmaster expired. He had been an incompetent official, who had been given the place largely on sentimental grounds, because he had been a brave soldier and his wounds pleaded that he should be "taken care of" at the public expense. The Mugwump idea in this case was (it being assumed that the vacancy must be filled by a Democrat) that the Democrat should be selected, not who could present the strongest evidence that he deserved public reward for partisan service, or who could make out the strongest case that he needed the office because he could not earn a living in any other way, but who should appear most likely to give the Brooklyn public a businesslike administration of the office.

Since Mr. Cleveland was inaugurated, several notable cases have happened in Massachusetts where the terms of postmasters expired who had been Republicans, but not offensive partisans, and who had conducted their offices upon business principles. The Mugwump idea in all such cases was that, these offices being purely institutions for conducting a branch of the public business, men who had proved their competency and had not been politically objectionable should be retained in charge. A case now pending in Roxbury, a suburban district of Boston, perfectly illustrates the Mugwump idea. The Post-office in Roxbury is a branch of the Boston office, and its superintendent is an old Union soldier, who began his postal service in the main office, and was promoted ten years ago to the charge of the Roxbury branch, where he has been for ten years. As an official, by universal consent, he has been quiet, gentlemanly, accommodating, and efficient in the highest degree. No complaint of failure in duty has ever been lodged against him; on the contrary, patrons of the office are enthusiastic in his praise. A Republican in party faith, he has scrupulously kept the office out of politics, and no Democrat ever found cause of grievance against him for any display of partisanship. The Mugwump idea is that such a man should be retained as head of the Roxbury office just as long as he can be had. The spoilsman's idea, on the other hand, is that he should forfeit his place to some Democrat, because he is a Republican in party faith, while there is a Democratic Administration at Washington, and a movement is now under way to secure his removal solely and avowedly upon this ground.

A case which has just come to the surface in Illinois still more pointedly illustrates the Mugwump idea by presenting the perfect flower of the opposite theory. The Post-office at Rochelle fell vacant, and it was filled in accordance with the spoils principle. The boss of the Democratic organization in that region is one McNamara, and, by virtue of that fact, McNamara was held to be the man who should dictate the choice of Postmaster at Rochelle. He recommended and thus secured the nomination of a man named Gardner, as his first choice. But Gardner turned out to be the proprietor of gin-mills in three or four places, and to have been indicted for violating the liquor law, while a fresh indictment for the same offence was found when his name was before the Senate, and it had to be withdrawn. Although thus deprived of the salary himself, Gardner resolved to make something out of the office, and he offered to get the place for one Taylor, demanding $600. Taylor was willing only to pay $300, and a contract was drawn up on that basis, a facsimile of which has been published and is not questioned. But there was a quarrel, the negotiations finally fell through, and Taylor forwarded his papers without McNamara's endorsement. The next development was the announcement that one Furlong, a clerk in a clothing-store, with no qualifications for the office, had been appointed, and, of course, everybody believes that he got the place because he would pay what McNamara demanded.

These illustrations are enough to show what the Mugwump idea about appointments really is, in contradistinction to the spoilsman's idea. But there is one other phase of the matter to which we call the especial attention of

the *American*. It is also the Mugwump idea that, purely from the standpoint of party advantage, the system of filling offices upon business principles pays better than the contrary policy; and here, too, we appeal to facts, rather than indulge in theory. There is not in New York a candid person who will not admit that Mr. Cleveland's Administration is far stronger to-day with the voters of this city because he retained an efficient Republican as Postmaster than it would have been if he had appointed any Democrat. Nobody can be found in Brooklyn who will deny that the Democratic party stands better with the people of that city because Mr. Cleveland appointed as Postmaster a Democrat who runs the Post-office as a business institution than it would have been if he had picked out the shrewdest wirepuller in the party and allowed him to run it as part of the Democratic Machine. In the Roxbury case Democrats of the highest standing can be summoned as witnesses to prove that the Mugwump idea of retaining faithful postmasters is the best idea for the Democratic party. Mayor O'Brien of Boston, who is a resident of the Roxbury district, refused to sign the petition for the removal of the incumbent, being firmly convinced that he ought to be retained despite his Republicanism. Ex-Mayor Palmer is outspoken on the same side, and he says that conversation with a number of leading Democrats shows that they agree with him. These Democrats see that nothing worse could happen to their party than for it to gain a post-office at the expense of proving its disregard for the public interests. If they need any evidence to sustain this belief, they need only point any Bourbon member of their party to Rochelle, Ill., where the popular disgust with the proceedings of the spoilsmen has distinctly weakened the Democratic party. And if Rochelle is not enough, they can point the still unconvinced Bourbon to Haverhill, Ohio, where a Democratic postmaster, appointed with a flagrant disregard of Mugwump principles, the other day shot a public-spirited citizen who was trying to restrict the liquor traffic, and thus did his best as an official representative of the party to justify the "Rum" branch of the famous alliteration.

In short, and to sum up the whole matter, the Mugwump idea is that honesty is the best policy, in politics as well as in everything else.

THE KENTUCKY RESOLUTIONS IN A NEW LIGHT.

EUTAW PLACE, BALTIMORE, April 22.

AMID the revived interest in the Kentucky Resolutions, caused by the publications in the *Southern Bivouac* last spring, I was asked if there were any letters or papers in the archives of my family bearing on this subject. The search made in response to this appeal was disappointing. One letter, however, was found from Mr. Jefferson to Mr. Wilson Cary Nicholas of Virginia, dated August 26, 1799, which was thought at the time not to be in print. In this error I continued until a week ago, when it was found—inaccurately given—in the Congressional edition of Mr. Jefferson's works. This letter, as is seen below, plans a meeting at Monticello for the discussion between Mr. W. C. Nicholas, Mr. Madison, Mr. Monroe, and Mr. Jefferson himself of the Kentucky Resolutions. A second letter from Mr. Jefferson to Mr. Nicholas, written September 5, 1799, which is also given below, shows that this meeting did not take place.

Reflection on the contents of the first letter, taken in connection with those of the second, excited in me the suspicion that, when writing the Breckinridge letter twenty-three years later, his "waning memory" had played Mr. Jefferson false, and that a strange blending in his thoughts and recollections of plans with incidental occurrences had resulted in leaving us, in this letter of 1821, what may be called an epistolary composite photograph. In other words, the two letters of August 26 and September 5, 1799, taken in connection with the "great lapse of time" alluded to in the letter of 1821, suggested to me the idea that the meeting described in this last, as taking place at Monticello, had never in fact occurred. That Mr. Jefferson, under existing circumstances, should have labored under the delusion that it did take place, did not seem to me inexplicable or very strange, though, should it be proved that he had done so, it would unquestionably be both a striking and an interesting instance of misremembrance.

With my imagination captivated by this view of the subject, I determined to sift the matter to the bottom, particularly as by so doing I should but be fulfilling a promise made to a descendant of George Nicholas, to whom the lithographed copy of the Breckinridge letter in the *Southern Bivouac* did not seem conclusive proof that the original had not been written to Nelson Nicholas, son of George, the supposed recipient. Knowing that no satisfactory investigation of the subject could be made without examining the Jefferson manuscripts in Washington, I determined to do this. Access to these papers being kindly granted me, early in the summer my task began, and to make known through your columns the important discovery resulting therefrom is the object of this communication. For the personal details unavoidably thrusting themselves into it, let me at once apologize to yourself and to your readers, as well as crave your indulgence for their persistent recurrence.

With Mr. Jefferson's manuscripts before me, it was the work of but a few minutes to find his letter-book, turn to the year 1821, and find the following entries under the respective heads of received and answered:

Dec. 9, J. Cabell Breckinridge, Frankfort.

Dec. 11, J. Cabell Breckinridge.

There could be, of course, no appeal from the decision of this arbiter as to the address of the letter of December 11, 1821.

Turning to the letters themselves, I found Mr. Breckinridge's original letter which called forth Mr. Jefferson's much-discussed response. The date of Mr. Breckinridge's letter being November 19, explains how Mr. Jefferson's pen slid into the mistake of writing "your letter of Dec. 19," when he had just dated his own letter Dec. 11. Mr. Breckinridge's handsome letter is given below, and Mr. Jefferson's answer to it.

FRANKFORT, November 19, 1821.

DEAR SIR: If I had not experienced the effects of your candour and obliging indulgence on a former occasion and on a subject connected with the memory of my father, I should feel an insuperable reluctance to trouble you with this letter. A very brief narrative will explain its object.

In the Richmond *Enquirer* of September 4, in an editorial stricture on certain articles that had appeared in the *National Intelligencer*, the writer, in support of his principles, refers to the authority of your name and opinions, and expresses himself in the following words: "We protested against putting Mr. J. forth as chief of a *new party*, and that the doctrine we held on the great question of supremacy in cases of collision between the two governments was the doctrine of the old Republican party of Mr. Madison's report of '98, and of the Kentucky Resolutions penned by Mr. J. himself."

Well knowing that the resolutions here alluded to were introduced into the Legislature of Kentucky by my father as his own production, I was greatly astonished by the assertion of the editor. Convinced, as I am, that the mover of the resolutions would not have consented thus to appropriate the labors even of his illustrious friend, I did believe the assertion to be untrue.

To a man the measure of whose fame and usefulness is full, an occurrence like the present may be regarded with indifference. But when you remember that the providence of God arrested at an early period the auspicious career of him whose loss we have cause so deeply to deplore, you will excuse, nay approve, the sensibility which I feel on every subject connected with his just renown. If I am not deceived in the temper of the times, the day is at hand when the struggle of '98 is to be renewed with decisive characteristics of consolidating intent, and these States are to maintain a second contest for the purity and extent of their ancient rights. At such a crisis, involving the safety and perpetuity of some of the most sacred principles of American freedom, the recollection of similar events, the corresponding sentiments and acts of departed patriots, will be revived with peculiar interest and powerful effect, and I can distinctly perceive the value of your written declarations to ensure justice to the memory of one whom, living, you largely contributed to exalt. Believing that I cannot give a better evidence of the sincerity and respect of the present application than by omitting all formal and affected apologies for having made it, I hasten to assure you of my high consideration, and to offer you my sincerest wishes for your continued health and happiness.

J. CABELL BRECKINRIDGE.

Th. Jefferson to J. Cabell Breckinridge.

MONTICELLO, December 11, 1821.

DEAR SIR: Your letter of December the 19th places me under a dilemma which I cannot solve but by an exposition of the naked truth. I would have wished this rather to have remained as hitherto, without inquiry; but your inquiries have a right to be answered. I will do it as exactly as the great lapse of time and a waning memory will enable me. I may misremember indifferent circumstances, but can be right in substance.

At the time when the Republicans of our country were so much alarmed at the proceedings of the Federal ascendency in Congress, in the Executive and Judiciary Departments, it became a matter of serious consideration how head could be made against their enterprises on the Constitution. The leading Republicans in Congress found themselves of no use there, browbeaten as they were by a bold and overwhelming majority. They concluded to retire from that field, take a stand in the State Legislatures, and endeavor there to arrest their progress. The alien and sedition laws furnished the particular occasion. The sympathy between Virginia and Kentucky was more cordial, and more intimately confidential, than between any other two States of Republican policy. Mr. Madison came into the Virginia Legislature. I was then in the Vice-Presidency and could not leave my station; but your father, Col. W. C. Nicholas, and myself happening to be together, the engaging the coöperation of Kentucky in an energetic protestation against the constitutionality of those laws became a subject of consultation. Those gentlemen pressed me strongly to sketch resolutions for that purpose, your father undertaking to introduce them to that Legislature, with a solemn assurance, which I strictly required, that it should not be known from what quarter they came. I drew and delivered them to him, and in keeping their origin secret he fulfilled his pledge of honor. Some years after this, Colonel Nicholas asked me if I would have any objection to its being known that I had drawn them. I pointedly enjoined that it should not. Whether he had unguardedly intimated it before to any one I know not, but I afterwards observed in the papers repeated imputations of them to me; on which, as has been my practice on all occasions of imputation I have observed entire silence. The question, indeed, has never before been put to me, nor should I answer it to any other than yourself; seeing no good end to be proposed by it, and the desire of tranquility inducing with me a wish to be withdrawn from public notice. Your father's zeal and talents were too well known to derive any additional distinction from the penning these resolutions. That circumstance, surely, was of far less merit than the proposing and carrying them through the Legislature of his State. The only fact in this

statement on which my memory is not distinct, is the time and occasion of the consultation with your father and Col. Nicholas. It took place here, I know; but whether any other person was present, or communicated with, is my doubt. I think Mr. Madison was either with us, or consulted, but my memory is uncertain as to minute details. . . . TH. JEFFERSON.

It will naturally be asked, If the above-described meeting never took place, how could Mr. Jefferson say, "Those gentlemen pressed me strongly to sketch resolutions for that purpose"? But this assertion is also easily attributable to a confused recollection of events. Mr. Madison and Mr. Nicholas must have held in fresh recollection his paper addressed, in the form of a petition from the inhabitants of certain counties in his own State, "To the Speaker and House of Delegates of the Commonwealth of Virginia, being a Protest against interference of Judiciary between Representative and Constituent," written the year before; and, alarmed and excited as the Republicans seem to have been at the passage of the Alien and Sedition Laws, it is more than probable that these gentlemen should, on some occasion, have urged Mr. Jefferson to prepare a similar paper—or one that could be used in a similar way—on the subject of these laws.

In 1815 young Breckinridge wrote to Mr. Jefferson, asking him for material for a biographical notice of his father, which some one in Kentucky wished to write. Mr. Jefferson's letter in reply will not be found out of place here, explaining, as it does, Mr. Breckinridge's allusion to "a former occasion" in his letter of 1821. This letter is also important as indicating the only occasion on which the elder Breckinridge was ever at Monticello:

Thomas Jefferson to Joseph Cabell Breckinridge, Esq.:

MONTICELLO, June 12, '15.

SIR: Your favour of May 14 has been duly received, and I should willingly contribute to the biography of your estimable father whatever my short acquaintance with him and still shorter memory would enable me to do. But of historical fact this would be little; and of testimony to his merit, only what is known to all who knew him. Our acquaintance first arose soon after my return from Europe. He was so kind as to favour me with a visit, and during its short continuance I had opportunity sufficient to discern the large scope of his mind, the stores of information laid up in it, and the moral direction given to both. His subsequent appointment to Congress renewed my opportunities of estimating his character. He became one of our most valuable bulwarks in stemming the tide which then set so strongly against the Republican principles of our Government, and labored in it with the zeal and abilities for which he was distinguished. The sense I entertained of his high qualifications and merit was sufficiently proved afterwards by my calling him to our aid in the Cabinet of the Government and confiding to him the important office of Attorney-General of the United States; and his death left a chasm in our councils which we sensibly felt and sincerely lamented. In saying this I say no more than was generally known to all, and if my testimony, added to theirs, can strengthen in any degree the establishment of a character which deserved so well of his country, I give it with pleasure and in the spirit of the sincere affection I bore him. Be so good as, with it, to accept the assurance of my high regard and consideration for his family and for yourself.

The two following letters now come under consideration. Both are addressed to W. C. Nicholas:

MONTICELLO, August 26, 1799.

DEAR SIR: I am deeply impressed with the importance of Virginia and Kentucky pursuing the same track at the ensuing sessions of their Legislatures. Your going thither furnishes a valuable opportunity of effecting it, and as Mr. Madison will be at our assembly as well as yourself, I thought it important to procure a meeting between you. I therefore wrote to propose to him to ride to this place on Saturday or Sunday next, supposing that both he and yourself might perhaps have some matter of business at our court, which might render it less inconvenient for you to be here on Sunday. I took it for granted that you would not set off for Kentucky pointedly at the time you proposed, and hope and strongly urge your favouring us with a visit at the time proposed. Mrs. Madison, who was the bearer of my letter, assured me I might count on Mr. M.'s being here. Not that I mentioned to her the object of my request, or that I should propose the same to you; because I presume the less said of such a meeting the better. I shall take care that Monroe shall dine with us. In hopes of seeing you, I bid you affectionately adieu. TH: JEFFERSON.

MONTICELLO, September 5, 1799.

DEAR SIR: Yours of August 30 came duly to hand. It was with great regret we gave up the hope of seeing you here, but could not but consider the obstacle as legitimate. I had written to Mr. Madison, as I had before informed you, and had stated to him some general ideas for consideration and consultation when we should meet. I thought something essentially necessary to be said, in order to avoid the inference of acquiescence; that a declaration or resolution should be passed. . . . As to the preparing anything, I must decline it, to avoid suspicions (which were pretty strong in some quarters on the late occasion), and because there remains still (after their late loss) a mass of talents in Kentucky sufficient for every purpose. The only object of the present communication is to procure a concert in the general plan of action, as it is extremely desirable that Virginia and Kentucky should pursue the same track on this occasion. Besides, how could you better while away the road from hence to Kentucky, than in meditating this very subject, and preparing something yourself, than whom nobody will do it better? The loss of your brother and the visit of the apostle Marshall to Kentucky excite anxiety. However, we doubt not that his poisons will be effectually counterworked. Wishing you a pleasant journey and happy return, I am with great and sincere esteem, dear sir, you affectionate friend and servant, TH: JEFFERSON.

The mistake in the published copy of the first of these two letters, alluded to above, is the slight but obviously misleading one of putting "Mrs. Monroe," instead of simply "Monroe," as in the original.

In the letter of August, 1799, we have a meeting planned which the September letter of that year proves did not take place. In the letter of 1821 we have a description, written twenty-three years after its alleged occurrence, of a not dissimilar meeting. In the September letter (in a passage omitted in the foregoing excerpt) Mr. Jefferson speaks of "Mr. M., who came," and in the letter of 1821 he thinks "Mr. Madison was with us or consulted." In the "great lapse of time," had not what he had planned in writing been all unconsciously transformed in his thoughts and recollections into an actual occurrence? Did not the octogenarian build better than he knew when he alluded to that "great lapse of time" and to "a waning memory"? Might not he, in looking back through the long vista of years—for him so crowded with events and scenes of excitement—have not only misremembered "indifferent circumstances," but have been also somewhat wrong "in substance"?

With this view of the subject more and more strongly possessing my mind, those who know what it is to face a reluctant past, with the determination to wring from it, if possible, a long-kept secret, can appreciate the feelings with which I sat down before the bound volume of Mr. Jefferson's letters covering the years 1798–1799. The search for anything bearing on the subject in hand seemed a hopeless task as I turned over page after page of letter-press copies on almost all of whose time-stained sheets the writing had faded away into illegibility. The intense satisfaction which I felt is not, therefore, to be described when suddenly the monotony of the dingy-hued letter-press copies was broken by the appearance in their midst of a white sheet of letter-paper, covered with Mr. Jefferson's autographic writing; the letters and words being so clear and distinct that a single glance caught names which instantly attracted attention. As it tells its own story, let this messenger of the past speak for itself:

Copy of a letter to Wilson C. Nicholas. Time not permitting a press copy, this was immediately written from recollection and is nearly verbatim.

MONTICELLO, October 5, '98.

DR. SIR: I entirely approve of the confidence you have reposed in Mr. Breckinridge, as he possesses mine entirely. I had imagined it better these resolutions should have originated with N. Carolina, but perhaps the late changes in their representation may indicate some doubt whether they would have passed. In that case it is better they should come from Kentucky. I understand you intend soon to go as far as Mr. Madison's. You know I have no secrets for him. I wish him, therefore, to be consulted as to these resolutions. The post-boy waiting at the door obliges me to finish here with the assurance of the high esteem of Dr. Sir,

Your friend and servant,
TH: JEFFERSON.

WILSON CARY NICHOLAS.

See his letter of October 4, '98, to which this is an answer.

So, then, the author of these famous resolutions had forgotten, when he sat down to write their history twenty-three years later, that they were originally intended for North Carolina, and it does seem impossible to believe, with the above letter before us, that their composition by him could have resulted from any such conference as the one described in his letter of 1821. The choice of North Carolina as the State in which the resolutions should originate was probably made because of a suggestion in regard to that State and Virginia which had been made by John Taylor of Caroline, to which Mr. Jefferson refers in a letter to him of June 1, 1798.

The recovery of the very important letter of October 4, 1798, from Mr. Nicholas to Mr. Jefferson, has so far baffled all efforts in the search which is being made for it. Until it is found, the story of the resolutions must remain incomplete, and in its absence it may seem bold to hazard a conjecture concerning an historical question whose investigation has been but a succession of surprises. If one might be ventured, however, it would be that Mr. Jefferson intrusted the resolutions to his most intimate friend, Mr. W. C. Nicholas; that the latter decided to have them introduced into the Kentucky Legislature by Mr. Breckinridge, and, having an opportunity of sending them to Kentucky, sent a post boy to Monticello, some twenty miles away from his own home, to get Mr. Jefferson's final approval of his course. Whether George Nicholas was called on to take any prominent part in this matter remains an open question, for Mr. Jefferson's allusions to him in his letter of September 5, 1799, would seem to imply that he had been, as the expression in that letter "their loss" refers to his death, on which greater stress still is laid at the close of that letter. And here it is proper for me to say that when my father edited his grandfather's correspondence, and boldly placed at the head of the letter of December 11, 1821, the address To ——— Nicholas, he did so under the impression that the Kentucky Resolutions of '98 had been intrusted to George Nicholas. That this was his impression tended naturally to strengthen the probability that such was the case, for he could have received such an impression only from his grandfather, Mr. Jefferson, and from his father-in-law, Mr. W. C. Nicholas, with both of whom he was, in their declining years, in constant and intimate intercourse. It is easy to see how my father may have been misled by hearing through them of the great talents of George Nicholas, of his boundless influence in Kentucky, and of the zealous and effective warfare which he waged against the Alien and Sedition Laws. His attacks on these were embodied in a vigorously writ-

ten pamphlet, which Mr. Jefferson considered a strong weapon of attack, for we find him writing about it in February, 1799, and sending it by the dozen to his lieutenants, to be given "to the most influential characters among our countrymen, who are only misled, who are candid enough to be open to conviction, and who may have most effect on their neighbors. It would be useless to give them to persons already sound. Do not let my name be connected with the business." (Jefferson to Monroe.)

John Taylor of Caroline must have been sounded by Mr. W. C. Nicholas as regards the resolutions for the Virginia Legislature, for in a most interesting letter from him to Mr. Nicholas lying before me, dated October 27, 1798, he says: "It is out of my power to meet you at the parsonage. . . . But if you have any scheme of efficacy in hand you will find me apt. But observe I abhor all 'resolutions' and addresses." I find still more interesting words from him—words which explain Mr. Jefferson's allusions, in a letter already quoted, to suspicions "which were pretty strong in some quarters on the late occasion." In an undated letter headed: "J. Taylor to the Vice-President," he says: "Some resolutions have appeared here from Kentucky, not passed but on the eve of passing that Legislature. As soon as they appear authenticated, the great effort will be directed to their approbation in the words of a response. I would not wish my inclinations gratified by the slightest risque on your part—it is obvious that the common cause would thence also be exposed to injury—but whatever can be safely said will be highly gratifying.—Health and happiness."

Curiously illustrating how the years '98 and '99 were confounded by him whenever they came up in connection with the Kentucky Resolutions, Mr. Jefferson has written on the back of this undated letter: "Probably '99, rec'd Dec. 11," when it is quite impossible for it to be any year but 1798.

The last communication from Mr. Jefferson to Mr. Nicholas in connection with this subject during 1798 comes in the following:

Th. J. to Col. W. C. Nicholas.

The more I have reflected on the phrase in the paper you showed me, the more strongly I think it should be altered. Suppose you were, instead of the invitation to coöperate in the annulment of the acts, to make it an invitation to concur with this commonwealth in declaring, as it does hereby declare, that the said acts are, and were *ab initio*, null and of no force or effect.—Health, happiness and adieu.—November 29, '98.

A perusal of the full text of Mr. Jefferson's letter of September 5, 1799, to Mr. Nicholas shows that this letter was the basis of the Kentucky Resolutions of 1799.

It is a long cry from 1805 to 1887, and yet a letter I have found from Mr. Jefferson to Mr. Nicholas, written March, 1805, shows his situation, between "conflicting" friends, to be so similar to that of his worthy successor, the present chief magistrate of the nation, that the coincidence of this letter coming to light just at this time is too striking for the following quotation from it not to be published:

"I did believe my station in March, 1801, as painful as could be undertaken, having to meet in front all the terrible passions of Federalism in the first moments of its defeat and mortification, and to grapple with it until completely subdued; but I consider that as less painful than to be placed between conflicting friends. There my way was clear and my mind made up. I never for a moment had to balance between two opinions. In the new divisions which are to arise, the case will be very different. Even those who seem to coalesce will be like the image of clay and brass. However, under difficulties of this kind I have ever found one, and one only, rule, *to do what is right*, and generally we shall disentangle ourselves without almost perceiving how it happens."

Happy the people whose ruler follows this simple rule for "disentangling" himself from the difficulties of his situation; and congratulating ourselves that so it is with us of to-day, I close with an apology for the length of this letter, which an awkward pen could not abridge.

SARAH NICHOLAS RANDOLPH.

P. S.—My letter was written and signed when, on reading it to a friend, it was found that he had, among letters sent him by a member of the Breckinridge family, one from Mr. Nicholas which makes up for the loss of his of October 4, 1798, to Mr. Jefferson. Strangely coming forward at the eleventh hour, as it were, it is the finishing proof of the non-occurrence of the meeting at Monticello, and thus confirms the theory to that effect put forward in the opening of this communication to the *Nation*, from which the letter itself cannot be omitted.

To John Breckinridge.

WARREN, October 10, 1798.

DEAR SIR: I have been very sick since you left me. . . . I have had a letter from our friend. He approves what I have done. He says you possess his confidence entirely—that he thinks the business had better commence in your State. He regrets that he missed the visit that you and your brother intended him, though he is sensible of the delicacy and motives of the omission. He suggests nothing further upon the subject; indeed, I think that everything is said that can be in the paper that you have. I shall be impatient to hear from you. God bless you and yours. Believe me to be your real friend,

WILSON C. NICHOLAS.

And now that the only missing link in the chain of facts connected with the origin of the Kentucky Resolutions is found and their history made complete by its recovery, I may be pardoned for expressing my gratification that it has fallen to the lot of a descendant reverently to lift the veil which, in obscuring the venerable statesman's memory, has so long concealed from posterity the truth.

S. N. R.

AN EXHIBITION OF PHOTOGRAPHS AT LIVERPOOL.

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE,
LIVERPOOL, April 18, 1887.

DURING the past twelve months it has been my agreeable duty to select and gather together a series of reproductions, as complete as possible, of the frescoes, easel-pictures, and drawings by Raphael. A somewhat similar collection in the Windsor Library was formed by the late Prince Consort, but photography was in its infancy in his days, and engravings form the chief part of that collection. My work was of novel character, and a description of it may not be without interest, for reasons which will hereafter appear.

Possessed of a preliminary acquaintance with the usual Raphael literature, I went to Berlin, where, in the Print Room of the Museum (and there only in the world, so far as I know), there is a large collection of photographs arranged not, in the first instance, according to galleries, but under the names of the artists whose works they reproduce. If you inquire for photographs of Raphael's works, you are shown a large press containing some score of portfolios, each holding 100 or less mounted photographs. These photographs are grouped under the galleries and private collections in which the originals occur, and include all works ascribed, rightly or wrongly, to the artist. The first thing was to go systematically through these, or rather through the various works on Raphael, one by one, referring to the photograph of every work mentioned and verifying statements made about it. By this means was formed an approximately correct list of all the genuine works by Raphael which have been photographed, and the list was drawn up in chronological order. This part of the work took about six weeks. The one to two thousand photographs purchasable of works *ascribed* to Raphael reduced themselves to about 500 photographs of genuine works.

The next thing was to go through all procurable photographers' catalogues (those, for example, of Braun, the Berlin Photographic Co., Hänfstängl, Brogi, Alinari, Naya, Perini), in order to see whether genuine works other than those to be found in the Berlin collection were not photographed. A considerable number were thus added.* Correspondence with directors of galleries and owners of works by Raphael enabled me to supply a few omissions.

When the complete list was formed, the photographs were ordered *en masse*, unmounted. They were mounted at home on uniform cards, and the few that were too big for the normal card, all of them frescoes, were frankly cut in half and mounted on two cards hinged together, the line of severance being almost imperceptible. Seven boxes were made, numbered, and lettered on the back, and the photographs were arranged in these boxes in chronological order, so that all the studies, designs, and cartoons for any picture, however scattered in various collections they might be, were grouped immediately before the picture itself. The entire series was then numbered, spaces being left for works known to exist but not yet photographed. Upon each card the subject of the work was written, and if the photograph represented a study for a picture, that also was stated. The date, if known, was added, and (most important of all) references to pages in the principal lives of the artist, or to special articles in magazines of high scientific standing dealing with the particular work. A cabinet to hold the boxes was all that was needed to make the collection complete. All the cards (except those hinged) being the same size, it was easy to have a number of frames made with movable backs fastened in by bars. The collection, thus framed and chronologically arranged, now hangs for public exhibition on the walls of two of the largest rooms in the Walker Art Gallery at Liverpool, where any of your readers who may chance to pass through the town during the next couple of months will be able to see it for themselves. A catalogue has been printed by the Museum Committee, in which I have endeavored to mention *all* known works of whatever kind by Raphael, adding the name of the photographer and the number of the photograph to each. Any one who likes to duplicate the collection can do so, for about £150, by help of this catalogue (sold by the Museum), not counting any duties there may be payable on this kind of intellectual luxury.

What has thus been done for Raphael might be done less completely, but fairly satisfactorily, for his chief contemporaries, predecessors, and successors north and south of the Alps. Heliogravure has been and is being employed to reproduce the works of the early engravers. The block-books, too, have been well reproduced. The Arundel Society's publications must not be forgotten. Mediæval miniatures have been photographed in considerable numbers. Early tapestries, such as the large collection at Madrid, have been published in photographic form. If we were to include photographs of ivory carvings, goldsmiths' work, medals, coins, wood carvings, details of sculpture, and architecture—still more, if we were to add casts of small objects

* The Oxford collection is very partially photographed, the Frankfort collection not at all. Braun is said to be about to put an end to this scandalous state of things. Pictures and drawings in private collections in England are, of course, never photographed, notwithstanding the unrivalled opportunities for doing so which the old masters' exhibitions have afforded. Private collections in France are a little better, but still badly recorded. It is a scandal to the National Gallery authorities that no proper photograph of the Ansidei Madonna has yet been published.

and electrotype reproductions—we should have the materials for the formation of a museum of extraordinary interest and no small dimensions. Confining ourselves, however, to the graphic arts, the materials existing in the form of reproductions of works which may be regarded as having attained classical rank, amply suffice for the formation of a collection the educational value of which it is impossible to overestimate. On a small scale such a collection might be formed by a private collector with immense advantage to himself. It would require absorbingly interesting study. Such, however, is the slowness of men to move into new grooves of activity that I have been assured by a photographer that it would not pay him to photograph for sale a pen-and-ink drawing which the day before had been sold for over £500 at Christie's. That is to say, people are so anxious to exclude others from the possession of a piece of paper which bears a unique drawing, that they will bid a purchaser up to £500 before giving way and letting him have it; and yet they care so little about the thing as a work of art that, though they might purchase for half a crown a perfect and permanent reproduction of it (to all intents as good as the original), not a dozen would buy it even at that small price. Vulgarity of heart could scarcely go deeper.

The difficulty in the way of the formation of such a collection as I have sketched lies, not in finding materials, but in selection and arrangement. If the collection is to be of any use, it must be formed by a scholar. To purchase all the photographs of works ascribed to this and the other master and to lump them together would be to purchase an expensive chaos. Only genuine or probably genuine works must be represented, and they must be arranged chronologically under the names of the artists by whom they were made. The artists should be grouped chronologically in schools, and a complete catalogue should be prepared. Such a catalogue, made and published for one collection by a competent scholar, might serve for any number of duplicate collections. It seems incredible that, with all the talk about art in the present day, all the interest professed in it, all the trouble and discomfort people go through with the avowed object of travelling hither and thither to see its masterpieces, there should yet be so little real desire for and delight in it that no town has yet attempted to form for itself such a rational collection as the one I have described. There is a photographic chaos here and there, but not one collection historically cosmic. If a single town of importance would lead the way, others would probably follow; and the large commercial and manufacturing towns of America and the north of England are certainly the very places where such collections should be formed.

The chief impediment now to the would-be collector is his natural disinclination to buy photographs which in a few years will have faded away. Evanescent silver-prints are published by photographers because the public likes their nasty color and unpleasant gloss. Braun's autotypes and the heliogravures of the Berlin Photographic Company are infinitely pleasanter to look at, and will last as long as the paper they are printed on. If collections of the kind I advocate were as common as public libraries are (and one such ought to form part of every public library and museum), the demand for permanent photographs would soon create the supply, and Alinari, Brogi, and the rest would find it to their interest to cater for a more educated and discerning public than the one they now supply.

W. M. Conway.

FLAUBERT'S CORRESPONDENCE.

Paris, April 22, 1887.

Gustave Flaubert acquired a great reputation by his novel 'Madame Bovary.' This reputation was not increased by his later works. 'Madame Bovary' remains the type of the modern realistic novel; it has exercised a real influence on our literature. Flaubert may be considered as the father of our naturalists, impressionists, and so forth. His correspondence with Mme. Sand was published a few years ago, and was read with much interest. We have now before us the first volume of a new series, which will embrace his whole correspondence. It extends from 1830 to 1850, and is preceded by a preface of the editor, who is Flaubert's own niece, Mme. Caroline Comainville. Gustave Flaubert was educated with his sister Caroline, who was the mother of this lady. She tells us that he was not a brilliant scholar, and that his college years were miserable; he could never yield to the military discipline which is still kept up in the French lyceums. He composed tragedies from his earliest years, and played them with his sister and his friends.

Flaubert has given a sketch of his own father in 'Madame Bovary,' under the name of Dr. Larivière, who is called in consultation before the dying Emma. He was the son of a veterinary surgeon of Nogent-sur-Seine, and had become a doctor in an hospital in Rouen. He married a Mlle. Fleuriot, who was allied to some of the oldest families of Normandy, but without any fortune, except a little farm which yielded 4,000 francs a year. He became the surgeon-in-chief of the Hôtel-Dieu in Rouen, and Gustave Flaubert was born in this immense edifice. It is probable that he inherited from his father the tendency to experimentation, to the minute observation of the smallest and apparently most indifferent details, which is the characteristic of his literary school. As a child, he could look from his window on the gardens of the hospital, and see, under the trees, the sick walking or sitting on the stone benches, the sisters of charity in their black and white dresses—a melancholy and severe spectacle, which developed in him the sentiment of compassion for human suffering.

Flaubert, who always detested the "bourgeois," was very bourgeois in his habits:

"This man," says his niece, "so concerned for beauty of style, cared very little about the beauty of his surroundings: he used objects and furniture which were heavy and ungraceful; he had not in the least the passion for the *bibelot*, which is so developed in our time. He loved order passionately, and carried it to mania; he would not work unless his books were arranged in a certain fashion. He kept carefully all the letters which were addressed to him. I have found great boxes full of them. He always had the greatest regularity in his daily work; he put himself to it as an ox is put to the plough, without waiting for the inspiration."

Flaubert's father, having attained a high medical situation, was able to buy a country house at Croisset, on the Seine, where Flaubert spent nearly all his life. When he left the college, his father wished him to adopt a profession; he came to Paris and studied law. He took a little apartment in the Latin Quarter, but the student's life did not suit him. He felt a decided literary calling. He disliked Paris, and, as his health began to suffer, he returned to Rouen. His sister was married; his father died, and he soon remained alone with his mother. He had made in Paris the acquaintance of Maxime Du Camp, who had a more adventurous spirit, and who induced him to make a journey with him into Brittany, and, in 1849, a more important voyage in the East. The personal reminiscences of his niece begin at the time of his return; she was a child, and her uncle undertook to provide for her education. She describes very vividly the life which they led at the country house in Croisset, the habits of her uncle. She called him "mon vieux," and he called her "mon caro." He was a sort of giant, full of kindness, of affection, and he continued to give his niece lessons in history and geography till she was married. He lived for months at Croisset without seeing anybody outside of his family but his intimate friend, Louis Bouilhet. Three or four times a year he left for Paris, and stayed there, a few days only, in the Hôtel du Helder.

In 1856, however, when he decided to publish 'Madame Bovary,' he took rooms on the Boulevard du Temple, and his sister joined him. He sometimes gave little dinners for Sainte Beuve, Sandeau, Mme. Cornu (who was the so intimate friend of Napoleon III.), Théophile Gautier, and a few others. He was a constant guest of the Princess Mathilde Bonaparte, who received artists and writers, and who still has her salon. He was admitted to the famous dinners of Magny, which were composed only of himself, of Sainte-Beuve, Gautier, the two Goncourts, Gavarni, Renan, Taine, the Marquis de Chennevières, and Bouilhet.

In 1860 he began 'Salammbô,' and thought it necessary to make a journey to Tunis, and to see the site of Carthage. His niece was married in 1864, and he found himself more solitary. Mme. Comainville only made two visits a year to Croisset—one in the spring, one in the autumn. He never liked to leave his own house for any length of time. We had always been ignorant of the secret of this extraordinary fondness for solitude, but it has recently been revealed by Maxime Du Camp. With every appearance of health and strength, Flaubert had in him the germ of a frightful disease: he was subject to fits of epilepsy. He was half a doctor; he knew the symptoms of his malady, and when he felt that a crisis was coming, he rushed to Croisset, where he felt less in danger. It seems hard to live with such a sword of Damocles over your head. This perpetual fear, the nervous state which it created and which caused the malady, explain much in Flaubert that otherwise could not be well understood. It explains the great attachment which he felt for his family, and which his family felt for him. They treated him always as a sick man, as a spoiled child; they never crossed him in anything. They admired him and his works, as if their admiration, mixed with pity and tenderness, might work a cure. The family affections which filled the life of Flaubert had one disadvantage—they developed his self-love and his vanity to an almost alarming extent; they isolated him too much from his contemporaries. Flaubert grew up, as it were, in a hothouse. He pretended to be a naturalist, a realist; but, in fact, he saw very little of life. The best pages of 'Madame Bovary' are the descriptions of Normandy, of Rouen, of the Seine, of the pictures which he saw from morning to night. Paris was to him almost a *terra incognita*. His circle was small; he was morbid, afraid of making new acquaintances, intolerant, narrow-minded. His family overrated him, and he overrated himself—not from any feeling of foolish pride, but from a sort of inability to understand what was outside of his provincial horizon. One thing must be admired in him—he was sincere, he really believed in himself. He also had a warm heart, and his own mental and physical sufferings had developed in him a power of affection, of sympathy, of compassion, which is shown even better in his correspondence than in his novels.

His niece tells us more discreetly than Maxime Du Camp that he was highly nervous: "This love of tranquillity, which he exaggerated afterwards, began already to exercise a sort of tyranny over his smallest actions. After a few days [she is

speaking of his visits to her after her marriage] I saw that he became nervous, and I felt that he wished to return to his beloved work. For ten years our lives became in consequence less mingled, except in the month of April, 1871." This year 1871 was the year of the war. Mme. Comainville had taken refuge in England, and when she came back she found Flaubert very much altered. He had abandoned Croisset during the hostilities, for fear of coming in contact in his own house with the invaders, and had taken lodgings in Rouen, on one of the quays. His house at Croisset had been occupied by soldiers; to his great surprise, when he returned to it he found everything as he left it—nothing had disappeared except a few knives, paper-cutters, maps.

In 1875 the husband of Mme. Comainville lost all his fortune in some commercial speculations. Mme. Comainville was married under the *régime dotal*, common in Normandy, and could only dispose of a part of her fortune to help her husband. Flaubert made up the rest, and, with extreme generosity, gave all that he possessed in order to save the credit of his niece's husband. He kept nothing except a rent which his niece engaged to pay him during his lifetime, and the product of his writings. These writings had never brought him much money; he liked to tell that Michel Lévy had paid him only 500 francs for the right to publish 'Madame Bovary' for ten years. It is true that a few years afterwards he had given him 10,000 francs for 'Salammbô.' Every sacrifice was made in order that Croisset should not be sold. Flaubert could not well have lived anywhere else, and it was decided that he should remain there, and that in Paris he should have rooms in the house where the Comainvilles lived. The intimacy became as great, as complete as ever, and Flaubert spent nearly all his time with his niece. She tells how he discussed with her the most abstruse subjects. He had become very much preoccupied with religious speculations; he felt an extraordinary attraction for conventual life; he admired the hermits—was he not himself a hermit? He longed to know the Buddhists. He often read the Bible, and went into ecstasies over verses of Isaiah, of David. "Reflect," he used to say to his niece, "reflect on this—*creuse-moi ça.*"

Flaubert lost his friends one after another. His relations with Maxime Du Camp had become more and more infrequent, for reasons unknown to us. Mme. Comainville tells us in a note that she had asked Maxime Du Camp to give her the letters of Flaubert which he had in his possession, and that she met with a refusal. She accuses him, on the other hand, of having in his own memoirs published a letter of Flaubert's without the authorization of Flaubert's family. It is easy to judge that the Comainvilles counted for something in the coldness of the two men who had so long been intimate, and who had travelled together in their youth all over the East.

The friendship of Mme. Sand was one of the consolations of Flaubert in the latter part of his life, a friendship which their correspondence shows to have been warm and disinterested in the extreme. He also found much enjoyment in the conversation of Edmond de Goncourt and of Ivan Turgeneff, but he lived more and more solitary in his own family circle. We owe to this love of solitude not only his works, but the long correspondence which he has left; he spent himself, not in conversations, but in letters.

The first part of the correspondence now published shows us a young Flaubert, full of enthusiasm, of plans, of system. He is in the full bloom of youth. His love letters to Mme. X. were hardly worth publishing. We much prefer the letters in which he gives an account of his journeys. They are very graphic, very true—he gives his impressions with an absolute sincerity. They are familiar, also, but at times, especially during his Eastern tour, he becomes unconsciously a great writer. Take this phrase, for instance, lost among many others in a letter writen from Damascus, September 4, 1850: "At midday, at the hottest hour, when light falls perpendicularly, when we go on without speaking on our thin and wiry horses, and when the tired mules stretch towards the wind their gums, whitened by thirst, then is the time when the lizards come out of the hollow trunk of the olive trees, and when on nopal hedges comes forward, with lifted paws, the prudent chameleon, rolling its round eyes."

The journey in the East, which fills half this first volume, is readable; it has great freshness and color, and we can understand, in reading it, what we never did before, why Flaubert was tempted to write 'Salammbô.'

Correspondence.

THE EXCAVATIONS AT CROTONA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The exploration made in Magna Græcia during the past winter, by Messrs. Clarke and Emerson, under the auspices of the Archæological Institute of America, has been somewhat prematurely brought to public attention in a letter from these gentlemen published in the *Nation* of April 21, and in a letter from Professor Lanciani in the following number.

A brief account of the excavations on the site of the temple of Hera Lakinia at Crotona, which is soon to appear in the Eighth Annual Report of the Archæological Institute, will show that the work here was attended with discoveries of great interest, and with promise of results of still higher importance, until it was brought to an end by the interference of the Italian authorities, and the reinterment, under their direction, of the objects thus far discovered.

The motive for this action on the part of the Italian Government is stated to have been the failure by the explorers to obtain from the central authorities the requisite permission to conduct the work. It is much to be regretted that there should have been any error or misunderstanding in this respect. Permission to undertake the work was obtained from the local authorities, which it was believed was sufficient (under the general regulations concerning explorations directed to the scientific investigation of a special monument of antiquity, and not to the obtaining of antique remains for the purpose of removing them from the site) to justify the explorers in their entering upon the work without a special permit from the authorities at Rome. The ground on which the remains of the famous temple are found is private property, and the owner, who is also the Mayor of Cotrone, was unwilling that any permit but that of the local authorities should be applied for. The reason of his objection lay in the fact that, some four years since, the Government had desired to expropriate against his will that part of his estate on which the temple stood, and he had successfully maintained his rights in the courts of law. Under these circumstances the course adopted by Mr. Clarke seems to have been neither unreasonable nor unjustifiable. On receiving the first warning, work was at once stopped, and a few days afterwards Mr. Clarke and Mr. Emerson left the site, a party of soldiers of the coast guard having meanwhile seized the antiquities discovered, and thrown them back into the open trenches. The owner of the site has now brought suit against the Government for this action on the part of its officials, and until the suit is decided work cannot be resumed.

It will be matter of deep regret to all students of Greek antiquity in Italy if the investigations happily begun, by competent archæologists, of the most interesting temple in Magna Græcia, should be permanently interrupted by this action of the Italian Government. It would seem that whatever error of procedure on the part of the explorers had been committed, it might have been better corrected than by the summary closing of the work.

I desire to express the grateful acknowledgments of the Archæological Institute to Professor Lanciani for the excellent advice he gave at the outset in respect to the project of investigations in Magna Græcia, and for his cordial furtherance of the design in every mode within his power.—Your obedient servant,

Charles Eliot Norton,
President of the Archæological Institute of America.

Cambridge, May 2, 1887.

WESTERN MORTGAGES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you not say a word of warning against the very large investments now being made in these securities? Sooner or later trouble must come. This influx of money among the mortgagors is producing widespread speculation; then will come money troubles in those regions, frantic efforts on the part of Eastern investors to get back their principal, which, under such circumstances, the borrowers cannot pay without ruin; then *sci. fa.'s*, stay laws, etc., and much suffering on both sides. A little common sense should check all this in time. L.

Notes.

We are glad to learn that by a year from this time we may look for the fourth volume of Schouler's 'History of the United States,' which will bring the narrative down to the close of the Mexican War. This work is one of the most important fruits of that return to historic studies which the rooting out of slavery permitted to the generation that survived the war.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. publish this week 'Connecticut,' by Prof. Alexander Johnston, in the American Commonwealths Series.

'Final Memorials of Henry Wadsworth Longfellow,' by Samuel Longfellow, illustrated, and containing the journals and letters of the last twelve years of the poet's life; and two novels, 'The Devil's Hat,' by Melville Phillips, and 'Lights and Shadows of a Life,' by Madeleine Vinton Dahlgren, are to be published directly by Ticknor & Co.

Cassell & Co. announce 'The Yoke of Thorah,' by Sydney Luska, and 'Pen Portraits of Literary Women,' by Miss Helen Gray Cone and Miss Jeannette L. Gilder, who deal with English women only, George Sand and Mrs. Stowe excepted.

The *édition de luxe* of George Eliot's works undertaken by Estes & Lauriat will shortly be begun with 'Daniel Deronda,' for which Frederic Dielman has made a drawing of Gwendolin.

A. C. McClurg & Co. will be the American publishers of the new edition of Wharton and Symonds's 'Sappho,' which will be enlarged, and illustrated with a facsimile of a newly discovered fragment of the works of the poetess from the Egyptian Museum in Berlin.

The poet Cowley is one of the most inaccessible of English classics to the taste of our century, but for mere style and not infrequently for hard-packed sense he is worth some attention; while as an illustration of the vices incident to literary

culture he is a most effective example. He is now renovated for a while by being included in the Cambridge Press Classics, by Rev. J. Rawson Lumby, D.D., who edits his Prose Works (New York: Macmillan), with a biographical sketch, notes, etc. The scientific curiosity he evinces and his argument for agricultural schools are noticeable marks of Cowley's mind; but his boast that he had endeavored to plant poetry "almost wholly with divinity" (*i. e.*, of the Church, not the Muses) is a more tell-tale characteristic. For a student of style and a lover of Latinity, this volume holds excellent matter, not excluding the verses, and the editorial work is very copiously and faithfully done.

The elegant Book-Lover's Library, of which we have noticed several volumes, is increased by Henry B. Wheatley's 'Dedication of Books to Patron and Friend' (A. C. Armstrong & Son). It is called in a sub-title "a chapter of literary history," but it consists almost wholly of selections from authors' dedications from the first down to Vernon Lee. There is more elegance than humor and more lying than truth in them, as was to be expected; the author as a generic being would appear more respectable if this whole chapter could be wiped out. Dedications at once genuine and noble are few. Mr. Wheatley, it should be said, makes ample acknowledgment of the existence of Mr. Huth's similar work.

That indefatigable and eminently useful English scholar, Prof. Henry Morley, has begun a *magnum opus* under the title 'English Writers: an Attempt toward a History of English Literature' (Cassell & Co.). The work is to be completed in twenty volumes, published half-yearly. The first volume is a substantial small octavo of 350 pages, and contains a general introduction, setting forth succinctly the periods of English literature with reference to foreign influences in the main, down to Wordsworth and his group. The remainder of the volume describes, with much detail, the origins of the earliest English as a matter of history simply, and afterwards deals with the literary relics of these people, the old Celtic literature, 'Beowulf,' and other Anglo-Saxon pieces, with considerable thoroughness. Prof. Morley's method of treatment and his very strong moral prepossession are well known, and in this first volume there is nothing that calls for extended comment. It is to be hoped that nothing will occur to interrupt this long task which Prof. Morley has set for himself; his studies have made him ripe for a most valuable labor in a field of which the vast extent and innumerable relations are little realized except by the expert.

It is easy to see how Mr. A. E. Costello might have reduced the bulk of his great volume, 'Our Firemen: A History of the New York Fire Departments, Volunteer and Paid' (New York: Published by the Author). This is his own analysis of chapter xxii., which is entitled "The City's Unprecedented Progress": "Markets and their Ancient Mode of Doing Business.—New York takes Rank as the Third City in Christendom, and Exceeds in Expenditure any other Municipality in the World.—Its Growth and Prosperity Unparalleled.—Ancient Nomenclature of Streets.—Reduction in the Rate of Taxation.—Sales of Real Estate.—Public Works and Construction of Drives and Parks.—*The Croton and the Aqueduct.*" Here is surely an intolerable deal of sack for the one-half-pennyworth of bread tossed at the end to the patient reader. But if we cannot praise the composition of this book, or dwell upon it as literature, we may commend it for a large amount of information, much of it readable, concerning one of the best institutions produced in our municipal development. It is copiously illustrated, and contains a large number of portraits with accompanying biographical sketches.

A volume has been made of the 'History of the Soldiers' Monument in Waterbury, Conn.,' which is told by the Rev. Joseph Anderson, one of the chief promoters of the enterprise. The cost of the shaft and symbolic statuary was defrayed chiefly by popular subscription, the town taxing itself only for the foundation. Dr. Anderson thinks this instance unique in the annals of soldiers' monuments. The unusual success of the design (if one may judge from the photographs) is probably not to be ascribed to the mode of raising the money, but to fortuitous circumstances. We make this remark because the author hopes his 'History' will promote imitation of the Waterbury plan.

The report of the State Geologist of New Jersey for the past year contains a supplementary table of geographical positions, in which we notice some that are adjacent to the State, as, the New York pier of the Brooklyn bridge (lat. 40° 42′ 23.57″; long. 73° 59′ 35.51″); a report on the Archæan rocks, by Dr. N. L. Britton, and on the Palæozoic rocks (Green Pond Mts., etc.), by Mr. F. J. H. Merrill, who also discusses in an interesting manner the yellow-gravel deposit of the southern part of New Jersey. There is the usual survey of the mining progress of the twelvemonth, and a report on the greensand marls is reprinted from an earlier document. The completion of the great Topographic Atlas is set down for next year. Sheets 6 and 7 will meantime undergo a revision, as they were originally partly compiled from local surveys.

The new Register of Cornell University is noteworthy for its definite programme of the School of Law which is to be opened on September 23, and for the announcement that the several branches of history, political economy, social science, and international law have been consolidated administratively, and are to be hereafter named "The President White School of History and Political Science"—a designation eminently proper as a grateful memorial, if a little long to be spoken trippingly.

Our readers cannot fail to be interested in the letter from Prof. Conway which we print on another page. The example which he recommends for imitation in this country opens up a new field for public spirit. In the case of Liverpool, the collection described, although the property of University College, will always be open for inspection to any person desirous of consulting it. A revised edition of the catalogue of the Raphael exhibition in the Walker Art Gallery will be issued in the course of another year.

In *Modern Language Notes* for May, Julius Goebel prints side by side Henry Carey's "Sally in Our Alley" and Goethe's "Der Goldschmiedgesell," arguing that the former poem suggested the latter, of which the metre is the same and the contents sufficiently similar. Edward Allen Fay, author of a 'Concordance of the Divina Commedia' shortly to appear, prints a list of words used only, so far as he knows, by Dante; and Thomas Davidson sets down some queer unrecorded (Aberdeenshire) Scotch words not found in Jamieson.

Gen. Sherman, by a title which will not be disputed, criticises, in the *North American Review* for May, Gen. Wolseley's eulogium of Gen. Lee, which has lately been the subject of controversy in these columns. No admirer of Lee can take exception to the spirit in which his character as a man and as a soldier is discussed. Gen. Sherman denies him emphatically a military preëminence over Grant, and very forcibly contrasts the burden laid upon the two in the closing years of the war, when Grant's command embraced the continental range of action. He goes further, and finds in Gen. Thomas, a fellow-Virginian, as good a soldier as Lee, if not a better, with the crowning quality, of course, in Northern eyes, of having resisted the allurements of "State rights," and remained true to his sworn duty to the whole country. And whereas Wolseley discerns a second Washington in Lee, Gen. Sherman recognizes him rather in Thomas, whose physical appearance and phlegmatic temper and simple patriotism earned him this comparison during his lifetime.

A colored portrait of Thomas Stevens, whose bicycle ride round the world is familiar to a large circle of readers, makes the frontispiece of *Outing* for May. The twentieth instalment of his journal narrates his journey through Persia. Mr. Stevens is, it appears from a biographical sketch, a native of England. He is now the cycling editor of *Outing*. Of this magazine, by the way, the ninth volume lies before us (Oct., 1886—Mar., 1887), and a bare glimpse of its departments reveals its scope. We find papers on amateur photography, archery, army life, ballooning, base-ball, canoeing, chess, cricket, croquet, fishing, foot-ball, rowing, sparring, the wheel, yachting, etc., etc. The professional tone is well kept under, and stories and verse help to lighten the miscellany.

In our recent mention of the April *Auk* we meant to have referred to some effective criticism of Mr. Ira Sayles's loose defence of the sense of smell in vultures, by Mr. Walter B. Barrows of the United States Department of Agriculture. Corroborative observations by Mr. Walter Hoxie of Frogmore, S. C., appear in the April number of the *Ornithologist and Oologist*.

We regret the cessation of the *Southern Bivouac* as an independent existence. It has been purchased by the Century Co., which thus acquires the right to use the *Bivouac's* notable war papers in its own forthcoming reprint from the *Century* ('Battles and Leaders of the Civil War').

The English journal *Brain* is to be hereafter the organ of the Neurological Society of London, Macmillan & Co. becoming the publishers.

The Mercantile Library Company of Philadelphia, in its April Bulletin, continues the useful classified list of historical novels begun in the January number, and promises further continuation. It is to be hoped that when the list is finished it will be printed separately in one pamphlet. To pick the list from the different parts of the Bulletin will be too inconvenient.

L'Art and its *Courrier* are now the entrenched camp of Wagnerism in France. M. Adolphe Jullien's 'Richard Wagner, sa vie et ses œuvres,' is assiduously kept before the public in the *Courrier*, which copies all the favorable notices of the press concerning that really excellent work. Now, in *L'Art* for April 1, M. Jullien takes the floor in person to tell of the performance of the "Valkyrie" at Brussels in March. His article, which is illustrated with portraits and amiable caricatures of the composer, and with scenes from the opera in question, appeared just on the eve of the intended performance of "Lohengrin" in Paris, upon which the Schnaebelé affair suddenly clapped a temporary extinguisher. A portrait of Gustave Guillaumet, who died on March 14 at the early age of forty-six, is given in this number of *L'Art*. Guillaumet was as happy with his pen as with his pencil.

We might almost say that according to French idiom "Alexandre Dumas intime" could have but one meaning. M. Glinel's paper thus entitled in *Le Livre* for April deals, as might be expected, with the dramatist's well-known weakness for the other sex. M. Glinel tells decently, with the aid of many original autograph pieces, the story of Dumas's relations with the actress Ida Ferrier, both before and after he married her. As she inspired him to create certain parts for her, and se-

cured the lasting esteem of Théophile Gautier and George Sand, she may well be thus commemorated. The historical paper on the great Leipzig publishers has many portrait illustrations, among which that of the founder Brockhaus is conspicuous as a type of German intellect and solidity.

Brockhaus, by the way, has issued a cheap edition of Schopenhauer's 'Welt als Wille und Vorstellung'—two volumes for $3. A few decades ago, when Hegel, Fichte, and Schelling were looked on as metaphysical deities, a man would have been sneered at for placing the great pessimist on a level with them. But to-day one of the leading German journals, the *Frankfurter Zeitung*, speaks of 'Die Welt als Wille, etc.,' as "the epoch-making work of the greatest of German philosophers after Kant."

Of the thirteenth edition of Brockhaus' 'Conversations-Lexikon' (New York: L. W. Schmidt) the last (16th) volume is just completed. It has comparatively few articles of especial interest, the most important being those on the United States, Hungary, Vienna, and Periodical Literature—this last being full of details gathered by careful research. The article on the United States is rather meagre and the maps disappointing. The names of places, in the Eastern States especially, appear to have been chosen simply with reference to the ease of displaying them, rather than to their size or importance. From the long list of collaborators the only resident of America appears to have been Prof. W. H. Rosenstengel of Madison, Wis. Simultaneously with the last number of this volume, the publishers have issued the first number of a supplemental volume, which, besides adding new information, is intended to correct all errors discovered in the previous volumes. The longest article is upon Africa, and contains a very full list of books and maps published within the last six years, as well as an account of the recent colonial acquisitions of the different European Powers. A number of towns in the United States which have grown into importance since the printing of the first volume began in 1881, have also been included. Very characteristically there is a plate descriptive of the new rifles introduced into the German and Austrian armies.

The *Illustrirte Zeitung* for April 16 has a very convenient plan of the German Reichstag, with the seats of the members not only designated by their names, but so colored as to show the party to which they belong. This enables one to see at a glance also the relative strength of the various parties.

Among the latest series of the great house of Firmin-Didot & Cie. is a 'Bibliothèque Instructive et Amusante'; and the title of what is apparently the first volume is amusing, if it is not instructive: 'Aventures Lointaines dans l'Amérique du Sud (Alaska).'

Under the rather misleading title of 'Souvenirs d'un Impresario, par Maurice Strakosch' has been published (Paris: Ollendorff; New York: F. W. Christern) a volume of very airy gossip, in reality not written by M. Strakosch himself, as the preface honestly avows, but taken down by another hand from his table talk, and arranged and set in order and dressed up and ironed out until all the color and savor have departed. As an impresario M. Maurice Strakosch has seen much, and he ought to have much to say; in this empty little book he has not said it. The management of Italian opera is not supposed to conduce to suavity of manner, but nothing can be imagined more mellifluous than the utterances of M. Strakosch as here reported; in speaking of his rivals, he distributes "taffy" with an impartial hand. In his eyes there are no bad singers or operas or managers or composers; all are great, grand, magnificent, and world-renowned. There are a few curious details of M. Strakosch's early life and professional adventures, and of the beginnings of Mme. Adelina Patti's extraordinary career; but most of the anecdotes are twice-told tales.

The Pitt Press Series, of which we have had occasion to speak before, has been enriched by two new French text-books. 'La Bataille de dames,' by Scribe and Legouvé, is an old favorite, and needs no recommendation. 'La Canne de jonc,' by Alfred de Vigny, although written in 1835, is almost new as a school-book. It is one of the short stories in the volume published nine years after the great success of 'Cinq-Mars,' entitled 'Servitude et Grandeur Militaires.' The notes by the Rev. Herbert Bull are very judicious and clear, giving all the information necessary for the pupil to understand the numerous historical allusions, and not neglecting the grammatical difficulties. These two pretty volumes are in every way worthy of the Cambridge (England) University Press, which prints all the publications in the Pitt Press Series, for which Macmillan & Co., New York, are the American agents.

—Commander F. E. Chadwick of the United States Navy contributes an admirable résumé of the history of the steamboat to the May *Scribner's*. The paper is not so technical as recent naval articles have been, and affords an instructive view of one of the most interesting topics in what one may call the mechanical history of civilization, while at the same time it is studded with practical remarks bearing on current questions. Notwithstanding the great advance and profoundly modifying changes in the construction and operation of steamships within the last score of years, this writer does not think that even a temporary goal has been reached; the introduction of twin-screws he regards as a matter of the near future, and gives as the most powerful motive for this innovation the fact that the great gain in safety would be so strong an element in competition that the whole fleet would be obliged to adopt the new plan as soon as one of the great companies does so. He points out the great destruction of steam-tonnage: Great Britain, in 1885, lost by wreck alone over 3 per cent., which was much below the usual average; in the period 1875-1883, 947 British steamers were totally destroyed by wreck. In fact, the average life of a ship is less than that of a man. Commander Chadwick protests against our own navigation laws, but at the same time ascribes our failure in steamboat construction partly to the conservatism which made us slow to exchange wood for iron as a material, and the paddle for the screw as a propeller, and also in part to the check put on water traffic by our rapidly developed railroads. Another useful article dealing with our material interests is on the perennial subject of our forests, by Prof. Shaler. He touches on nearly all aspects of the place trees have held in the life of man, from the days when they were "the cradle" of our "arboreal ancestor" down to the present, when they are the enemies of tillage. We have suffered less from deforesting because of the humid climate in the East, and the Appalachian woodlands, he thinks, will not be a tempting soil for the farmer; in the West, there is more ground for caution, but in New England, according to his observation, more land is returning to a wild state than being reclaimed. The woodcuts illustrating this article show some noble trees.

—It is seldom that one meets so excellent an illustration of the kinship among the arts as is to be found in M. Coquelin's remarks on "Acting and Actors" in *Harper's*. He says incidentally that Corot knew no French poetry except "Polyeucte," and he had never read all of that; but this did not prevent him from being "a poet down to the tip of his brush." So with M. Coquelin's criticisms; though he was probably little thinking of it, he is a critic of art and literature as much as of acting in every sentence. Let us take an example. He is writing of the relative importance of the exterior and of the spirit, to the effect that "character is the starting-point for everything," and he goes on: "If you have assimilated the essence of your personage, his exterior will follow quite naturally, and if there is any picturesqueness it will come of itself. It is the mind that constructs the body. If Mephistopheles is ugly it is because his soul is hideous." This is the formula of all artistic creation. Again: "The public tires of nothing so quickly as mere picturesqueness of effect. Your entrance once over, they pay no further heed to you; you have missed fire if you have not style, delivery, and the development of the character to fall back on." Many a novelist is doomed to say amen to that. With respect to the *jeunes premières*, he says: "Beauty is not essential, but charm is"; it is a maxim. "The part of us which *sees* should rule as absolutely as possible the part of us which *executes*," is written for every school of expression among intellectual races; it is the moral law of art. Once more: "Naturalism on the stage is a mistake. In the first place, the public won't have it. It always resents the exhibition of revolting hideousness, of pitiless and naked realities. . . . Just as I would not allow any departure from truth on the plea of picturesque effect, so I would not permit a representation of commonplace or horrible things on the pretext of reality." But in the whole article there is food for reflection to provide the intellects of the realists as long as they choose to ruminate it. A sharp and most significant stroke is made when, apropos of Irving, it is remarked that whereas Garrick found the French unnatural, now the tables are turned. The illustrations are spirited and of the highest excellence; but the text altogether is superb intellectual criticism. In the remainder of the number there are a sketch of the Southern group of writers, with portraits, and a well-illustrated paper on mastiffs.

—The May *Century* opens with an account of that lucky find of Egyptian research, the mummy chamber of the Ramesside line, of which all the world has heard; and this is continued by a full and exhaustive paper on Rameses II. and his daughter and wife Nefer-ari. The positions and speculations of the writer, with regard to both the Egyptian and Biblical history involved, are most interesting, but less so than the mere series of portraits of Rameses and his relatives, which bring Egypt near to us in a way not less impressive than wonderful. The individuality of the great king is distinctly made out, as is also the family resemblance common to the royal group of which he is the chief figure. It is a physiognomy foreign to Egypt, as has been often observed, and belongs to the higher race-type of a conquering caste. The different lines of blood which met to produce it in the face of Rameses are acutely distinguished, and the whole theory of his descent is ingeniously supported; but the portraits are independent of archæology, and as one goes through the series, from the first representation of the boy-prince of the court, over three thousand years ago, to the last one, made when the undestroyed face of his body in old age was exposed to our camera yesterday, it is impossible not to be amazed at such a survival and identification of the actual features of a man of whom for centuries all knowledge was practically dead. One is curiously reminded of the portraits of Cæsar which were lately gathered by Mr. Ropes; there is the same progress from youth to age, though the features are of course

less expressive, at least to our eyes. The most remarkable trait is the union of energy of character with placidity of spirit. The head is one of great distinction in its type, and, could we have chosen, we could have had no better memorial of one of the greatest reigns in the annals of man. The remainder of the number has considerable variety of matter, Prof. Atwater's paper on Food being of most importance. In this instalment he is dangerously technical for the common reader.

—The April number of *Les Lettres et les Arts* (Paris: Boussod, Valadon et Cie.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons) contains an article by M. Léopold Lacour, "Pierre Loti," accompanied by three sketches by Loti himself—two of scenes in Senegal, and one a group of a dozen heads of his sailors of the *Triomphante*, dated "Mers de Chine, Novembre, 1885." The article is not exhaustive, and contains nothing positively new, but it is very readable and is full of interesting things. At the beginning is a small reproduction of the often mentioned photograph of Loti in a clown's costume, as he appeared *incognito*, one night some years ago, in the ring of the circus of Toulon, and there won what he is said to consider one of the greatest successes of his life by the gymnastic feats for which he is famous. The number also contains the second and concluding part of "Mademoiselle de Bardelys," by M. Paul Perret. Unlike most stories, this one is more delightful at the end than in the beginning. It has the charm of entire unlikeness to any of the fashions of the day in manner and in conception, while not reproducing what has preceded it in either, being as far from the historical novel of Dumas or of Victor Hugo as it is from the minute analysis and deliberate dissection of Bourget or the romantic and lyrical realism of Zola. The enjoyment of the reader is heightened by the aquarelles of Marchetti, which illustrate the story in the very mood and manner of the story itself. Very different from this is "Mariages manqués," by a much more famous writer, M. François Coppée, poet and Academician. It is not in verse, but it is as mildly melancholy and sentimental as M. Coppée's stories in verse are apt to be, and yet the beauty of its direct and simple style alone makes it a pleasure to read it. "Portraits de femmes" is very ingeniously managed to introduce as illustrations some of the pictures of the coming Salon. It is a series of visits to the studios of the artists who will exhibit such portraits this year, in search of that of a certain Countess Zappi, of whom the writer (it is in the form of a letter) thinks herself justified in being jealous. At the beginning is a very attractive corner of what seems to be the studio of Carolus Duran, whose portrait of his young daughter is the most interesting of the illustrations.

—Our accomplished correspondent, Miss Randolph, as a great-granddaughter of Mr. Jefferson and also a lineal descendant of Wilson Cary Nicholas, has every right to speak by authority on the topics to which she brings new light from original and hitherto unpublished documents. The "new light" thrown on the "Resolutions of '98" relates mainly to the genesis of the Kentucky series of that year. An erroneous address —"To —— Nicholas"—prefixed to the letter of Mr. Jefferson under date of December 11, 1821, as published in the Congressional edition of Jefferson's writings, has been the source of a chronic mystification. If the letter was addressed to Nelson Nicholas, as was averred by a tradition in the family of George Nicholas, then it followed, from the purport of Mr. Jefferson's statement, that George Nicholas participated with his brother, Wilson Cary Nicholas, in the alleged conference at Monticello. The fact that George Nicholas was not a member of the Kentucky Legislature of 1798, and therefore could not have "carried them [the Resolutions] through the Legislature of his State," was explained by a supplementary tradition that he received them from Mr. Jefferson and handed them to John Breckinridge, who was a leading member of that year's Legislature. As it is now certain that the letter of December 11, 1821, was addressed to J. Cabell Breckinridge, it follows that, according to Mr. Jefferson's recollections at that date, the persons participating in the alleged conference were John Breckinridge, W. C. Nicholas, and perhaps Mr. Madison. It is in this state of the amended record that Miss Randolph comes with the surprising discovery that the whole story of the "conference" is a myth which had unconsciously formed itself in Mr. Jefferson's memory from a confused blending of *proposed* deliberations in 1799 with *supposed* deliberations in 1798. The original documents with which she supports this theory would seem to make it conclusive, in the absence of proof to the contrary. Perhaps the archives of the Breckinridge family may shed some additional light on the question.

—We take leave to subjoin that the letter of Mr. Jefferson to W. C. Nicholas, under date of November 29, 1798, as cited above by Miss Randolph, must relate exclusively to the Virginia Resolutions of 1798. In the light of this letter it is now revealed for the first time that the Virginia declaration, in the shape under which it was submitted to Mr. Jefferson for his criticism, contained a clause inviting the States to "coöperate in the *annulment*" of the Alien and Sedition Laws. This would have been an invitation which looked to executory proceedings of some kind; and it was, we now learn, at Mr. Jefferson's suggestion that the Virginia Resolutions of '98 were pitched at a lower key so as to make them legislative declarations of opinion, in which the coöperation of the other States was invited. Certain it is that the Virginia series, as actually submitted to the Legislature in December, 1798, three weeks after the date of Mr. Jefferson's note to W. C. Nicholas, was couched, under this head, in the following terms: "The General Assembly doth solemnly appeal to the like dispositions of the other States, in confidence that they will concur with this commonwealth in declaring, as it does hereby declare, that the acts aforesaid [the Alien and Sedition Laws] are unconstitutional, *and not law, but utterly null, void, and of no force or effect.*" These are almost the *ipsissima verba* suggested by Mr. Jefferson in the letter to W. C. Nicholas. It is known that the words which we have italicised were expunged from the Virginia series before its passage, because of their too menacing tone. It will thus be seen that in shedding new light on the origin of the Kentucky series, Miss Randolph has also thrown a cross light on the digest of the Virginia series; and for both of these elucidations the students of history will confess their obligations.

RECENT WORKS ON BRAZIL.

Three Thousand Miles through Brazil. By J. W. Wells. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1886.

Brazil: its Condition and Prospects. By C. C. Andrews, ex-Consul-General to Brazil. D. Appleton & Co. 1887.

ABOUT fourteen years ago the Brazilian Government contracted with an English company for certain surveys for the final extension of the Dom Pedro II. Railroad, which belongs to the State. The exploring party was divided into two sections, to the second of which the survey of the vast area between the São Francisco and the Tocantins Rivers was intrusted. Mr. Wells, still a very young man, was attached to a subdivision of the second section. From the mouth of the Rio Grande, a tributary of the São Francisco, his party ascended that river to the valley of the Somno, in the Province of Goyaz, which they then followed down to its outlet in the Tocantins. The author's work lasted about thirty months, and covered a length of 3,000 miles in the interior of Brazil, through the Provinces of Rio de Janeiro, Minas Geraes, Goyaz, and Maranhão. His work is an "expanded" diary of that exploration, made, we repeat, fourteen years ago, with a preliminary chapter on Rio de Janeiro, and an appendix containing some statistical information on railways, sugar factories, etc. It is no exaggeration to say that the work would have been much more acceptable had it been compressed into one volume. The scenery described by Mr. Wells is really wonderful, but as one gets tired of the superabundant luxuriance of the tropics, so the reader of his book becomes wearied of so many sunrises, sunsets, and moonlight nights, and of so many villages, all of which are so monotonously alike. That Mr. Wells, however, has given us a very clever book there is no doubt. He cannot claim in any degree the scientific merit of some of his late predecessors, as Agassiz, C. F. Hartt, or even Bigg-Wither or Sir Richard F. Burton; but his work is more picturesque and entertaining than theirs. Indeed, it would have been better if the author, who was young and inexperienced, as he himself says, had abstained from claiming to have discovered important facts in the physical geography of the country, or from blaming the Brazilian Government for having refused to accept one of his plans for the carrying of coffee through the city of Rio de Janeiro. As to his so-called discoveries, he evidently never heard of the work of some of the Brazilian writers and explorers, like Gen. Couto de Magalhães or Sr. Severiano da Fonseca, whose 'Viagem ao redor do Brazil' forms the basis of an interesting article by Dr. H. von Ihring in a recent number of the *Deutsche Geographische Blätter* of Bremen.

The Brazilian table-lands, Mr. Wells tells us, have a "wonderfully pure, healthy atmosphere," with a bright open country and prevailing fresh breezes. Even the swamps are not all unhealthy, like those of the Upper São Francisco, as they are often formed by running springs of water. In the table-lands of Ceará and Piauhy the atmosphere is so dry that meat can be preserved by simply drying it in the sun without any salt. "And yet," continues the author, "if this is said not to be a country for a white man, then the white man had better die at once, for there exists no finer climate. One can swing an axe or a billhook all day long, and go to work indoors all the evening till late at night, and rise early in the morning fresh for another day: can a man do more, be he black or white?" Such is his opinion of the healthfulness of the table-lands. In the low lands, wherever malaria prevails, the foreign traveller can easily avoid it with a few well-known preventive measures, such as exclusion of night air as much as possible; not leaving home in the morning without taking coffee; not drinking doubtful water, etc. Even the health of Rio de Janeiro is not so bad as is generally believed. Mr. Wells presents statistics showing that in 1885, in a population of 450,000 inhabitants, there were 10,182 deaths, of which 374 were from yellow fever, while consumption took the lead with 1,754 fatal cases. The average proportion of deaths from yellow fever is about 5 per cent. of the total number of deaths. The victims are chiefly foreign young men, recently arrived, who are often careless in their habits.

The author's experience as to the indolence of the natives is not different from that of all other travellers in Brazil. Only absolute want compels

the *matuto* to do any work, which is stopped as soon as a little dried beef, *farinha* or manioc-flour, rum, and perhaps a new piece of cotton for his wife and daughters, are acquired. Those "primaries" of life once obtained, nothing will induce him to give up his hammock, his sleep, his *cachaça* or rum, his guitar and dance at night. No wonder, then, that agriculture is very rude. Everything grows luxuriantly and almost spontaneously; coffee and other products are simply planted, not cultivated. There are no rents, no taxes, no wages to pay. When there is any surplus, it is invested in a piece of calico, in a few iron kitchen utensils, or in the family chariot—the bullock-cart. In the villages, life is awfully monotonous: the houses are untidy, the church is a barn-like adobe building, and articles of home production are very cheap (a dozen eggs for two cents, a fat fowl for sixteen cents, and so on), while some "luxuries" are excessively dear. On the lower São Francisco even beans cost about two dollars per bushel, and dried beef seven and a half cents per pound. The people are kind, obliging, and patient under difficulties. There are no highway robbers in Brazil. The *tropeiros* and the *camaradas* or guides are good, merry people. As to the blacks, Mr. Wells says that "in spite of all that has been said of the indolence of the negro, I find that in the interior of Brazil the free black is *the* workingman," the pure negroes being by far the most intelligent and industrious of the inhabitants.

Brazilian fauna and flora have been so often described that one cannot attempt, in a short space, to accompany our author in his appreciative remarks on the wonderful things of that country. The best game birds of Brazil are the jacús, mutuns, wild pigeons, and caiçára, to which the jacotinga might be added. "Snakes are not by any means so abundant in Brazil as it is usually credited with." Every two or three days the traveller meets with some large harmless one, occasionally with a rattlesnake or a jararáca. The most exciting adventure of Mr. Wells was a battle with peccaries at night (ii, 137 *et seq.*). Indeed, the reader acquainted with the interior of Brazil can afford to smile at the terrors of the battle, ascribing them to the artistic imagination of the author, who has written on them a most interesting chapter. The peccary of Brazil is the *Dicotyles labiatus*.

The appendix contains many errors which we regret to find in a work by an engineer. We do not know where Mr. Wells found, for instance, that the Cantagallo Railway is earning five per cent. on its capital, for in the year referred to by him it only earned $296,109, or less than three per cent. Then, again, in the case of the Leopoldina Railway, he states that its share capital is $30,969,000 and that the company pays seven per cent., which are two gross blunders. The statistics of the receipts and expenses of the Brazilian railways (ii, p. 343) would be more valuable if he had summarized the partial results, which would show that the Anglo-Brazilian railways, in spite of double administration, spend but fifty-seven and a half per cent. of their gross receipts.

But the greatest curiosity in Mr. Wells's work is that he seldom spells properly a Portuguese word. In his 800 pages there are perhaps 1,600 Portuguese words or sentences, and it is no exaggeration to say that scarcely 1,500 are correctly given. It seems incredible that the author has really spent fifteen years in Brazil, or that he is, as he asserts, "intimately acquainted with its people." He makes the singular agree with the plural, the masculine with the feminine; he takes away accents from where they should be and adds them where they are not wanted, and for one who is acquainted with the Portuguese his book will for ever be memorable as a guide to "Portuguese as She is Spelt." The common *feijões*, the main food of the natives, becomes *feijãos*. "Good morning" is *bão dias* (two errors). The word *burro* is spelled throughout as *buro*, and Mr. Wells forms sentences such as *buros bem manso* (two errors). Ants is *formigos*. Even poor English beer is christened *cerveja inglez*. Instead of *Sirvam-se, senhores*, he says *Servem, senhores*. Names of such places as Paraopeba, which is the title of one of his chapters, are wrongly written "Parãopeba." The word Ipiabanha, which has no accent, is treated to the luxury of three, thus, "Ipiâbánha," which renders it wholly absurd. The drink of the native Brazilian, the sugar-cane rum, becomes sadly adulterated in the author's hand; it is now *aguadente* without the *r*, then it is *caçacha*, then again *cachaca;* but, what is worse, he says that this word is pronounced kar-shar-sar! That little insect *carrapato*, about which he tells us such amusing stories, is spelled *carraptão, carapatos*, and *carapatds*. *Atôa* becomes *atoá;* fish is *peixo; pinguella* is *pengella;* the billhook is *falcão* (falcon) instead of *facão*. *Boa viagem* (*bon voyage*) becomes *bom viagem*, and the very word man is written *homen*, and countryman is spelled throughout the two volumes as *matutor* instead of *matuto*. The above are only a few of the far too many mistakes of Mr. Wells's book: it is shameful that two such bulky volumes should be allowed to appear with so great a number.

Mr. C. C. Andrews's work is totally different from that of Mr. Wells. It is not amusing, nor interesting, nor original; but the author has managed to compress into its 350 pages much useful information about Brazil. Indeed, it looks very much like the blending of a very full consular report with a substantial, but gossipy, letter about the general resources, condition, manners, etc., of the empire. To any one intending to visit the sea-coast of that country, Mr. Andrews's work will prove most serviceable, though it contains several errors. He has interesting information about the Presbyterian mission in São Paulo. His remarks about a reciprocity treaty between the United States and Brazil (p. 121) do not represent the true bearings of the difficulty. It is wrong to state that the free admission of coffee into the United States "is substantially a donation" to the Brazilian treasury; for the fact is, the export duty in Brazil is now the same that has been in force for many years when we charged a duty of two or three cents per pound. Then, again, Mr. Andrews is entirely mistaken in supposing that Brazil would negotiate a treaty with us were it not for the straitened condition of her treasury; the fact being that such treaties cannot be negotiated at all on account of the "most favored nation" clause in the treaties of Brazil with most of the European countries. Brazil does not impose an export duty on coffee and sugar with any idea of treating us badly. The empire has no land taxes, and has hardly any of our internal-revenue taxes; the export duty, rightly or wrongly (and we think wrongly), is found there to be the best substitute for those taxes. Another curious mistake of Mr. Andrews is to describe Innocencio da Silva as a Brazilian historian, he being neither, but a Portuguese bibliographer of great merit. In fact, his appreciation of Brazilian literature is very defective.

CRAZY HERALDRY.

America Heraldica. A Compilation of Coats-of-Arms, Crests, and Mottoes of prominent American Families, settled in this country before 1800. Edited by E. de V. Vermont. Illustrated by Henry Rykers. New York. Pp. 192. Quarto. 17 pages of illustrations.

When the early parts of this publication were issued, we felt bound to express our dissatisfaction with it. A careful examination of the completed work confirms and intensifies our condemnation of it. We fully believe that the author has had no unworthy object in view; we accept his statements that no coat-of-arms has been inserted from pecuniary inducements; we admire the zeal and labor shown in editing the work; and we cheerfully acknowledge that the typographical part is highly creditable. But here our praise must stop short, for a more deplorable waste of time and money in a literary enterprise can hardly be imagined. Had the book been privately issued, and circulated only among the editor's friends, it might have received the pitying silence accorded to many records of family pride and ignorance. But the enterprise is a public one; it has been largely advertised and probably widely circulated, and it will go abroad, to nations to whom heraldry has to-day a meaning and a value, as the sole exponent of American ideas on the subject.

In this country, where coats-of-arms are only antiquarian trifles, it is not of the slightest consequence whether our newly enriched citizens paint the wrong arms on their carriages or not. To genealogists, even, such devices have long been of value only so far as they aid in tracing out a pedigree. Whether the United States were settled by noble or ignoble immigrants is not a matter that disturbs the cabinets of Europe to-day, nor does a solution of the point affect our standing as a nation. But we expose ourselves to ridicule and contempt if we make claims without foundation either to superior manliness, intelligence, honesty, or even "blood." This, it seems to us, is the unfortunate position in which the zeal without knowledge of Mr. Vermont has placed us. The finer his book, the more certain it is to attract the attention of competent judges; and the more scornful and unreserved will be their censure. In anticipation, however, of a foreign verdict, we will endeavor to scrutinize the work carefully, and to plead guilty in advance to its faults.

As an authoritative presentation of coats-of-arms belonging to families settled in the United States, it is sadly lacking in completeness and in arrangement. Seventeen pages, each bearing sixteen colored shields, give us two hundred and seventy-two coats, to which are to be added descriptions of over one hundred more. The circular, indeed, names 420 families as embraced in the list; but, judging from the examples admitted within the sacred enclosure, the editor could easily have described eight hundred coats equally entitled to consideration. So, also, the plan of arrangement is very faulty. The coats are simply tumbled in together, without regard to authority, date, locality, or importance. The very smallest amount of judgment should have taught the editor to adopt some plan. He should have taken each of the original colonies by itself, and placed under that head the cases he could cite. He should have made a distinction between the families still represented and those which speedily expired. Above all, he should carefully have shown what families had a well-established foreign pedigree as well as those which had merely used coat-armor from the earliest dates here, and were therefore only presumptively entitled to it. We regret to add, that he should not have inserted a single coat-of-arms for which no respectable authority could be given.

On every one of these points the editor has sadly failed. By neglecting the localities, he has greatly increased the number of doubtful cases, because the alleged proofs are out of the reach of ordinary readers. By admitting a few examples of those officials who came here, but left no issue, he increases the number but diminishes the va-

lue of his collections. By putting an undue value on the early use of seals, etc., he does injustice to the few families with a pedigree. Above all, by putting into this pretentious volume a large number of coats utterly unfounded and incorrect, he destroys the value of the collection as an authority. We propose to go over the record and to justify our comments, especially as to unfounded coats here inserted.

On plate 1 the Franklin arms are given. There has been no authority ever given for them, and they were doubtless assumed by Benjamin. On plate 2 we find the Hutchinson arms, taken up unwarrantably by the Boston family, and never used by the obscure branch which was entitled to them. The Tyng arms have no authority. The Hancock arms were never heard of till John Hancock took them up. The Eliot arms were never used here, and it is utterly impossible to go further back than the father of the Rev. John Eliot. For the Hoar arms no authority is cited. The Emerson and the Lord arms rest on the authority of tombstones and seals. The Tyler arms were granted in 1774 to two brothers, and not to their numerous cousins.

On plate 3 the De Peyster coat lacks authority, as does the Beekman. The Clinton arms belong to only one of the three New York Governors who used them. For the Stuyvesant and Ludlow coats the authorities cited are vague. The Warren coat was a most unwarranted assumption made in Boston some thirty years ago, one of the regretted episodes of our genealogy. For the Bleeckers, Luquers, and Sinclairs a similar haziness of proof is to be noted. In regard especially to the New York families we desire ample evidences, because Continental heraldry is governed by rules very different from English laws.

On plate 4 the Arnold pedigree is very suspicious; the Coffin arms are a modern assumption without a shadow of right, the Brewster equally false, unfounded, and unused, the Drake arms a mere guess on the part of a local antiquary. For the Dodge arms Mr. Vermont adduces: "Several patents, granting arms or confirming preceding grants, are preserved in the family to this day." He quotes as authority the family meeting in 1879. No such statement occurs in that book, and the arms are entitled to no consideration. The Lawrence arms are another of the ridiculous myths of early genealogy here—often exposed, and now repeated by the careless editor. The Gilman arms are without foundation, and here is a serious misquotation from the 'American Genealogist,' 1875. Mr. Whitmore did *not* write as follows: "We find the American family [of Gilman] entitled to the arms they bear, as they have not been challenged by the English branch still existing." There is no good proof of the arms as yet.

On plate 5 the authority for the Anderson arms is simply that the engraver, an emigrant who died a few years since, used them. This is truly a typical American coat! The Bartow and the Brown (of Rye) arms lack support; for the Cuylers and Disbrows no pretence of authority is given, nor for the Munsells or Van Wycks. The Pierrepont claim stirred the country to irrepressible merriment a few years ago. Mr. Vermont again misquotes the 'American Genealogist,' 1875, but cannot show the slightest authority for the coat. No proof is given of the Hay claim.

On plate 6 the Andrews, Bell, Chaloner, and Townsend coats are given. In none of these cases is there any evidence or even probability that these arms were claimed by any American family.

On plate 7 the Delano arms, "brought over by the emigrant," will be interesting when found. The Sands and Throops are supposed to bear the arms of Sandys and Scrope—two improbable fictions utterly unsuited to a standard work like this. The Whitney pedigree is magnificently printed, but the author was the victim of a contemptible fraud, and the coat-of-arms unfortunately went with the pedigree. The Read arms need verification, and the Nicoll arms are confessedly something else.

On plate 8 the Curtis arms are simply unknown, and are not even claimed by the authorities cited by Mr. Vermont. So, again, for the Deane arms no authority is given, and anything thinner than the Hayden assumption could not easily be imagined. The Giles arms are unfounded. As to the Loring arms, there is *no* tombstone in Boston with the coat. A woodcut was foisted into the text in Bridgman's 'Epitaphs,' being the whim or fancy of a local antiquary of the name. The claim is utterly unfounded. The Lyman pedigree has never been traced to any one bearing arms, nor an example of the use here given.

On plate 9, passing over some doubtful cases, we should query the Howard claim.

On plate 10 the Stetson, Fairweather, and Sumner coats have no foundation; the Storrs coat, according to Mr. Vermont, is not known to English heraldry; the Montague coat rests on a manuscript genealogy, which is of course beyond our vision.

On plate 11 the Cromwell coat is confessedly without any authority whatever, and the Fountains need to show their source. The Phelps arms are again confessedly weak, and no authority at all is given for the Van Sittarts. The Van Alst and Polhemus coats get very little explanation from our author, and the Woolseys can only say that they claim to be descended from a near relative of the Cardinal. If report be right, they might as well have claimed him.

On plate 12 the Wetmore arms are a myth, probably assumed by the Rev. James Wetmore when he was in England, about 1725. The Hatch coat cannot be laid to any colonist, and the Roome coat gives ample space to the imagination. For any use of the Goodsell arms we await testimony, and we place the Penningtons and Butlers in the same category.

From page 90 onwards we find the author inserts in the text various coats engraved but not shown on the colored plates, Nos. 13–17. We will follow the text as it stands. The Dickinson coat has no authority; the Linzees may be Lindsays; the Bradfords are in doubt, the Millers at best traditional; and the Sears coat is another unfortunate blunder. The Sewall arms probably were assumed here a century ago, and cannot be substantiated. The Cranston pedigree, cited from the *Heraldic Journal*, must be wrong somewhere. The Burnham coat is without basis, never used here, and not even claimed. The Herricks are in the same case. Gov. Endicott did not use arms, and nothing is known of his ancestry. The use of any Prescott arms is yet to be found, and the Rogers pedigree even at the present date is not carried to an *armiger*. Why the Darling coat should be allowed is a mystery, and the Baldwins certainly never claimed arms. The Bartlett genealogy is entirely fragmentary and unreliable, and the arms are a very recent assumption. As to the Lisles, their connection with New England is simply through the Ushers, and their coat is not American in any way. The McVicars, Rasay, Hicks, Betts, Geer, Chandler, French, Jouet, Howland, Cleveland, Holcomb, Rawle, Tuckerman, Seabury, Seymour, and Otis coats are thrust into the collection without even a pretence of authority.

Now we submit that this is a pretty bad showing for a book that is to be the representative of American scholars. We have merely picked out the utterly worthless and absurd cases, leaving still a large number as to which the evidences are not easily accessible, and which therefore must depend upon the opinion we may have of Mr. Vermont's judgment. From the above cited cases, we are constrained to value his opinion very lightly. It is inconceivable that an editor who accepts such examples can properly estimate the weight of evidence. One of his standard authorities is Mrs. Lamb's 'History of New York.' Great as are the merits of that work, very few of her examples of coats-of-arms are fortified by proofs.

We had intended to print Mr. Vermont's whole list of families entitled to arms, and to point out those beyond dispute. But, when we came to sift the evidence, we found so many doubtful cases that it seemed unfair to name the very few we could approve. As we have already intimated, a book like this is an unmitigated nuisance. In a number of cases, especially at the date when genealogy began to be studied here, the compilers of family history exercised little discretion in attempting to prove their English ancestry. They had recourse only to the Peerages, Burke's 'Landed Gentry,' or to county histories; and a similarity of names was held to be proof of identity. They were utterly ignorant of the fact that every one of those names was duplicated infinitely by Englishmen of ignoble birth. Hence a plentiful crop of errors now mentioned with regret, and carefully ignored by the wiser generation of authors. But Mr. Vermont has pushed these errors into the light again, and it is an unpleasant, though necessary, task to put a peremptory denial upon them. Hence the critic is disposed to see no value or use whatever in the enterprise, especially as the editor has not apparently contributed a single item to our stock of knowledge. He has simply chopped up various books, picked up facts and errors, and placed the result before the public in a manner provocative of examination and censure. He has not merely put our few diamonds in a rich setting, but he has exhibited scores of paste jewels in expensive frames; and we shall be told that our collection is very tawdry and senseless.

It is to be hoped that the ridicule which awaits this venture will prompt some one to do the task rightly. We hope some one will epitomize the knowledge accessible, will bring together the true pedigrees, the authentic cases of use of arms, and will make a careful search for the unpublished instances to be found in our early wills, deeds, and archives. Then, indeed, we shall have an 'America Heraldica' which may be scanty, but will be cited with respect both here and abroad. It is undoubtedly true that in every colony there were resident gentry, but even in England it was always found necessary to hold official visitations, and we must imitate that example. For New England a fair beginning has been made, but the archives of other portions of the country have been sadly neglected. If Mr. Vermont would establish a claim to our respect we advise him to take his artist to the State-houses and county court-houses of New York, New Jersey, and the Southern seaboard States. Let him copy the armorial seals he finds, giving the dates and contents of the documents. Then let him search the older graveyards for armorial inscriptions. After that, he may copy such manuscript pedigrees as will bear examination, and he will produce a volume for which our praise will doubtless be as unstinted as our present condemnation.

CARLYLE'S INDEBTEDNESS TO GOETHE.

Correspondence between Goethe and Carlyle. Edited by Charles Eliot Norton. Macmillan & Co. 1887.

THE feeling that comes over one most often and

most forcibly, in reading these letters, is one of surprise that Carlyle should have been in his early manhood so powerfully attracted by Goethe, and should then have taken up into his own being, to all appearance, so little of the characteristic Goethean temper. But this brings us at once to one of the most puzzling facts in the life of Carlyle, puzzling at least for all those of his readers who are conscious, as he was, of a great intellectual debt to Goethe. How is it that Carlyle, having drawn from the life and writings of Goethe so much which he himself felt and proclaimed to be infinitely valuable, should have failed to get the remainder, which might have prevented him from drifting, throughout the rest of his life, further and further from Goethe's ways of thinking? This is a question we have often pondered, and in so doing we have many times wished for more definite knowledge concerning the precise nature of Carlyle's intellectual relations to Goethe. The allusions to this subject in Carlyle's published works are, to be sure, numerous, but they are vague and general. They are in the *Sartor* tone, and the *Sartor* tone, whatever may be its value for other purposes, is rather disappointing to one who is athirst for precise information. What Mr. Froude offers on this subject does not satisfy, and satisfies the less since confidence in him as a biographer of Carlyle has been so seriously shaken. When, therefore, it was rumored some months ago that Mr. Norton would edit the correspondence of Goethe and Carlyle, we at once began indulging in the hope that the letters would tell us what we wished to know. This hope has not been altogether disappointed, although not perfectly satisfied, by the volume before us.

The correspondence opens with a letter of Carlyle, written June 24, 1824, and closes with one of Goethe, dated August 19, 1831. The collection contains in all seventeen letters from Goethe to Carlyle, and sixteen from Carlyle to Goethe; besides these there are included in the volume three letters from Eckermann to Carlyle, one from Carlyle to Eckermann, one from Hitzig to Carlyle, one from Mrs. Carlyle to Goethe, and, finally, a curious testmonial written by Goethe at the request of Carlyle, who was just then an aspirant for the chair of moral philosophy at St. Andrews. The letters of Goethe were naturally counted by Carlyle among his *pretiosa;* in 1834 he tied them up in a package, placed them in a box with papers relating to Cromwell, and afterwards forgot where they were. After his death they were recovered and placed by Mrs. Alexander Carlyle in the hands of Mr. Norton. The letters of Carlyle, save the last one he wrote, which has not yet come to light, have lain since 1832 in the Goethe Archives at Weimar. They were kindly placed at the disposal of Mr. Norton by H. R. H. the Grand Duchess of Saxe-Weimar. The German letters are given first in the original, then in translation, and the entire collection is edited and printed, it hardly need be said, in admirable taste. An excellent Introduction by the editor, occasional notes, and two appendices, furnish all the help needed to make the correspondence everywhere intelligible.

Carlyle's first letter accompanied his translation of 'Wilhelm Meister.' It returns thanks for the profit which the translator, "in common with many millions, had derived from the Original"; then, dropping all formality of style, it continues:

"Four years ago, when I read your 'Faust' among the mountains of my native Scotland, I could not but fancy I might one day see you, and pour out before you, as before a Father, the woes and wanderings of a heart whose mysteries you seemed so thoroughly to comprehend, and could so beautifully represent. The hope of seeing you is still among my dreams."

Such language as this could not be otherwise than welcome to Goethe. The homage of young men was especially grateful to him in his old age, and here was a conquest in a new and unknown quarter. Besides this, his mind was just then filled with the idea of a world-literature which was to draw the nations together in closer intellectual sympathy. In Carlyle he discerned an able co-worker for this project. He replied courteously to the letter, enclosing some recent poems and expressing a wish to hear more of his correspondent. And thus was begun a correspondence which, as Carlyle himself said some forty years afterwards, "was not in itself momentous at all, but to us then an ætherial and quasi-celestial thing." Nearly three years passed before any further letters were interchanged; from the spring of 1827 they become frequent. Goethe sends not only letters, but also packages with presents of various kinds, "for the valued marriage-pair Carlyle," as the recipient gleefully translated Goethe's phraseology. The arrival of a letter or a packet from Weimar makes from time to time a day of jubilee in the lone house at Craigenputtock. Presently the little drawing-room has become "full" of Goethe. Mrs. Carlyle shares the infection. She receives a necklace from the poet, and makes a Scotch bonnet for Ottilie von Goethe. In her devotion, she sends a lock of her hair to the octogenarian at Weimar, and commits the cruel *faux pas* of asking for one of his in return. The staple of the correspondence is, however, naturally enough, literature. Goethe sends books which will be "helpful," and makes observations upon them. Carlyle keeps his friend informed of the progress of German literature in England; of the English versions of Goethe's works, their merits and their reception; of the authorship of magazine articles on German subjects.

The letters are certainly interesting and valuable, although they hardly deserve the name of *good* letters. Goethe had long since passed the period of his best letter-writing, and the letters of the younger man lack the *verve* of those which he wrote to men whom he felt to be his equals—Emerson, for example. It is doubtless due in part to Carlyle's constant attitude of all but idolatrous veneration that the correspondence really throws but little light on the query suggested at the beginning of our review. It may, however, be worth while to bring together a few of the more striking passages in which Carlyle tries to characterize the nature of his own indebtedness to Goethe. In a letter of April 15, 1827, he writes:

"If I have been delivered from darkness into any measure of light, if I know aught of myself and my duties and destination, it is to the study of your writings more than to any other circumstance that I owe this; it is you more than any other man that I should always thank and reverence with the feeling of a Disciple to his Master—nay, of a Son to his spiritual Father."

Again, August 20, of the same year:

"As it is, your Works have been a mirror to me; unasked and unhoped for, your wisdom has counselled me, and so peace and health of Soul have visited me from afar. For I was once an Unbeliever, not in Religion only, but in all the Mercy and Beauty of which it is the Symbol; storm-tossed in my own imaginations; a man divided from men; exasperated, wretched, driven almost to depair—so that Faust's *curse* seemed the only fit greeting for human life, and his passionate *Fluch vor allen der Geduld!* was spoken from my very inmost heart. But now, thank Heaven, all this is altered: without change of external circumstances, solely by the new light which rose upon me, I attained to new thoughts and a composure which I should once have considered as impossible."

Alluding to some expressions of Goethe concerning the approaching end of his own life, Carlyle writes, October 23, 1830:

"Neither in any case do we sorrow as those that have no Hope. He who has seen into the high meaning of ENTSAGEN cherishes even here a still Faith in quite another Future than the vulgar devotee believes or the vulgar sceptic denies. 'God is great,' say the Orientals; to which we add only, 'God is good,' as the beginning and end of all our Philosophy."

Again, in a letter of June 10, 1831:

"For it can never be forgotten that to you [him] I owe the all-precious knowledge that Reverence is still possible—nay, Reverence for our fellow-man as a true emblem of the Highest—even in these perturbed, chaotic times. That you have carried and yet will carry such life-giving Light into many a soul wandering bewildered in the eclipse of Doubt; till at length whole generations have cause to bless you, that instead of Conjecturing and Denying they can again Believe and Know: herein truly is a Sovereignty of quite indisputable Legitimacy, and which it is our only Freedom to obey."

To these quotations may be added one from the 'Reminiscences,' vol. i, p. 179:

"This year (1826) I found that I had conquered all my scepticisms, agonizing doubtings, fearful wrestlings with the foul and vile and soul-murdering Mud-gods of my Epoch; had escaped as from a worse than Tartarus, with all its Phlegethons and Stygian quagmires; and was emerging free in spirit into the eternal blue of ether—where, blessed be Heaven, I have, for the spiritual part, ever since lived. . . . I then felt and still feel endlessly indebted to Goethe in the business; he, in his fashion, I perceived, had travelled the steep, rocky road before me—the first of the moderns."

Such are the descriptions with which we are obliged to content ourselves. Goethe took hold of Carlyle only from his ethical side. He did for the young Scotchman what the Jew Spinoza had done for himself, namely, calmed and clarified his mind at a time when he had utterly lost faith in the value of life; taught him that the sun does not fall from the sky when mortals put away the creed of their fathers, and that a man of honest purpose and wide outlook may ground himself on rational foundations of his own; taught him also to "renounce"—that is, not to make excessive demands upon life in the expectation of happiness; and taught him, finally, that work is one of the best of tonics against the depressing influences of over-solicitude with regard to the world in general. All this was indubitably Goethe, but it was not the whole of Goethe. There remained Art and Science; but for these, with all that they signified to his illustrious friend, Carlyle cared but little. And so, with all his genius, we miss in him several essential traits of that superb portrait which Goethe has drawn in the famous lines:

> "Welte Welt und breites Leben,
> Langer Jahre redlich Streben,
> Stets geforscht und stets gegründet,
> Nie geschlossen, oft gerändet,
> Aeltestes bewahrt mit Treue,
> Freundlich aufgefasstes Neue,
> Heitern Sinn und reine Zwecke:
> Nun—man kommt wol eine Strecke,"

NON-ENGLISH SETTLEMENTS IN NORTH AMERICA.

French Explorations and Settlements in North America, and those of the Portuguese, Dutch, and Swedes, 1500-1700. [Narrative and Critical History of America. Edited by Justin Winsor. Vol IV.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. [1886.]

A MOST notable paper in the new volume of the 'Narrative and Critical History of America' is the opening article, by Prof. Shaler, on the physiography of North America. There are many who will wish that work like this had come to their knowledge in the formative period of life, and will count him fortunate among historical students who shall take his bias from this chapter. It deserves to be printed in the forefront of all histories of the United States which shall be written for a generation. A condensed, clear, and suggestive description of the physical features of the continent prefaces a careful summary of the influence which those features have

exerted upon men of European origin and on the course of colonization. As regards the direct comparison of Americans of to-day with their European contemporaries, Prof. Shaler holds that "the American people are no smaller in size than are the peoples of Europe from which they are derived; they are at least as long-lived; their capacity to withstand fatigue, wounds, etc., is at least as great as that of any European people; the average of physical beauty is probably quite as good as it is among an equal population in the Old World; the fecundity of the people is not diminished." Contrasting the success of the English colonies with the failure of the French, despite the statesmanlike comprehension of the possibilities of the country shown by the latter, it is pointed out that the French were heavily handicapped by the physical and climatic conditions of their possessions, which denied them the aid of maize, and that this disadvantage was increased by a restrictive system of land tenure, and by a habit of regarding the colonies as trading posts, while the English looked upon their settlements as permanent homes.

The history of the earliest French explorations of the Canadian coast was written by the late George Dexter, and it should count for much that this painstaking and fair-minded scholar has restored the voyage of Verrazano to the place from which the casuistical objections of Mr. Murphy should never have driven it. The voyages of the unfortunate Cortereals are included in this chapter. The explorations of Cartier, and the abortive settlement of Roberval are described by Dr. De Costa, who takes occasion to dissipate the impression that Canada was neglected by the French between 1547 and the close of the century; it is true that no attempt at colonization was made, but private trading voyages were frequent.

The ever-interesting exploits of Champlain are retold by the Rev. Edmund Slafter, to whom we owe the best account of the life of this remarkable man. Mr. Slafter's theory, that Champlain, in taking the warpath with the Huron against the Iroquois, was actuated by a broad national policy, sacrifices the explorer's judgment to his prudence. The early and disheartening attempts to establish trading posts in Nova Scotia made by De Monts, Pontrincourt, and their successors down to the fruitless seizure of the country by Phips in 1670, are described by Mr. C. C. Smith, of the Massachusetts Historical Society, in a chapter entitled "Acadia," which, of course, does not cover the events most widely associated with that name.

The Rev. E. D. Neill, who owns a divided allegiance to Maryland and Minnesota, has related the history of Quebec from its capture by "Kyrcke," a form of the name not instantly suggesting "Kirk," to the time of Frontenac, and depicted with careful detail the course of exploration about the great lakes until 1689, when the French took formal possession of that region. Mr. Neill is of a sympathetic turn, and the hardships of the explorers are realistically represented in his style. A more uncomfortable piece of narrative, or one more suggestive of trackless forests and rugged portages, we have not lately met. As a severe exercise of mind and muscle, we can heartily recommend the perusal of this chapter, with the aid of its necessary concomitant, a big atlas.

The account of the exploration of the lakes is supplemented by a chapter from the editor upon the further work of Joliet, Marquette, and La Salle, with a sketch of the occupation of Louisiana, and reproductions of many of the manuscript maps which bear the names of the explorers. In spite of the labors of M. Margry, the soundness of Joliet's claim to the discovery of the upper Mississippi is assumed both by Mr. Neill and by Mr. Winsor, the latter giving a long note to Hennepin and his works. The internal history of Quebec and Canada at this epoch of westward exploration is related by Mr. George Stewart, jr., in his chapter upon Count Frontenac, that worthy successor of Champlain, who shares with Roger Williams and with Sir William Johnson the credit of being one of the few men of alien race who have understood how to deal with the Indian. The stern character of the northern aborigines and the numerical weakness of the colonies forbade a repetition in the north of the unspeakable iniquities against which Las Casas labored in vain in the south; but, apart from this, there is a difference in the treatment accorded the natives by the Spaniards and the French which it were unjust to ascribe solely to the lapse of time. It is perhaps not saying overmuch, but it must in fairness be said, that the French were preëminent among the peoples who helped themselves to lands in America for the inherent good-nature and the Christian spirit which marked their dealings with the tribes they came to dwell among, regarding them apparently neither as beasts of burden nor as agents of the devil in his war against God's people, but as weaker brethren. The labors of Eliot and his associates in Massachusetts, though worthy of more attention than was yielded them in the preceding volume of this History, were but small in extent and in effect compared with the efforts of the Roman Church in the French possessions. Jesuits, Sulpitians, and Recollects toiled and suffered for the conversion and education of the red men over a territory that stretched from Nova Scotia to Lake Superior, and from the Mohawk well nigh to Hudson's Bay. The story of their achievements and their failures is clearly sketched by Dr. J. G. Shea, whose work on the subject has been an authority for thirty years, and it is full of interest and food for thought. A bibliography of the Jesuit Relations from which most of the facts of the history are drawn, forms an appendage to this chapter.

It is characteristic of the Dutch that, having taken no part in the exploration or settlement of the New World for a century and a quarter after the discovery, they finally entered the game by appropriating the finest commercial and agricultural site along the entire coast, having in 1626 bought the whole of Manhattan Island for the eminently reasonable sum of twenty-four dollars. The history of this settlement and its weal and woe until it was handed over to England in 1674 is told by Berthold Fernow, keeper of the Records of New York, with disappointing brevity. The future importance of the place and the inherent interest of the story demanded fuller treatment, and to give it but a third of the space devoted to New Sweden seems a curious error.

Writing in 1643, the President of the Royal Council of Sweden expressed the hope that the whole Continent of America might in time become subject to the Crown of Sweden. The colony of New Sweden, the inspiration of this pious wish, was founded through Dutch effort and by Dutch settlers in 1638, and extinguished, when it had begun to attract Swedes, in 1655, also by Dutch effort. Down to 1654, when it received an influx of 350 persons, it seems never to have numbered above 200 inhabitants all told. That its historian, Prof. Keen, has succeeded in interesting us through forty-four pages, is a tribute no less to his skill than to the copiousness of the sources.

Mr. Winsor's cartographical contributions to the present volume, which, of course, comprise most of the new matter that it offers, are as follows: Maps of the eastern coast of North America, 1500-1535; Cartography of the northeast coast of North America, 1535-1600; Maps illustrating the exploration of the Great Lakes and the Mississippi Valley; General atlases and charts of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries (Mercator, Hondius, Blaeu, etc.); Maps of the seventeenth century showing Canada. The maps bearing upon the Dutch occupancy of New York are described in the critical essay of Mr. Fernow. The book contains two modern maps, and about one hundred and forty reproductions of old maps.

We presume Mr. Winsor could give a reason for not putting the date of publication of these volumes upon the title-page, but we cannot but look upon the omission as unfortunate. The volume before us was copyrighted in 1884, and a part of it certainly was written in or before 1882; we believe we are right in stating that it was published in 1886.

Celebrities of the Century: Being a Dictionary of Men and Women of the 19th Century. Edited by Lloyd C. Sanders. Cassell & Co. 1887.

THE calendar division between our own century and its immediate predecessor has determined admissions to this work, except in the case of lives which barely overlapped the boundary, and whose effectiveness belonged to the earlier period. The living as well as the dead are included. In fulness it falls below the handiest standard of comparison, Thomas's 'Biographical Dictionary,' as it does below 'Men of the Time,' in its line, yet supplements both, whether by new names or by proportion of treatment. The spirit in which it has been composed and edited is liberal, with rare exhibition of insularity or of factiousness, while its tone toward this country is absolutely friendly and very fair, as one may see by reading the Federal and Confederate military biographies. Under Gladstone it is remembered that having at an inopportune moment said that Jefferson Davis had created a nation, he thereby gave pain to many of his followers, though he afterwards apologized for his error. Under Lee the conclusion is ventured, "That his cause was not ultimately successful was simply because, in the nature of the case, the means at his command were inadequate"—which will cause no heart-burnings. Some other readings in American history are more questionable, *e. g.*, under Clay: "His last session in the Senate (1848 to 1851) was almost entirely devoted to the abolition of slavery"; under Theodore Parker: "From 1856 to 1859, as an intimate friend of Garrison and John Brown, he did all that was possible by preaching and the supply of arms to assist the Abolitionist cause during the Kansas War and the raid on Harper's Ferry"; under Wendell Phillips, that, after assuming the presidency of the American Anti-Slavery Society, he "succeeded in winning for the negro full citizenship."

The accuracy of this Dictionary is to be praised, so far as we have tested it; such slips as giving a final *e* to Mr. Howells's middle name, or making President Cleveland a native of New York, being too trivial to censure. The list of sources at the end of each article is usually fresh and discriminating, but Davis's 'Rise and Fall of the Confederacy' is overlooked, as is John Quincy Adams's Diary; and, as is evident from the notices of Cooper and Calhoun, the American Statesmen and American Men of Letters series were unknown to the editor and his corps. Some omissions strike one, as, Lyman Beecher, Benton, Frémont; Von Holst; Leconte de Lisle, etc. There has been a displacement in arranging the Lawrences, Sir John coming before Sir Henry. On the whole, we have every reason to welcome so convenient a reference-book as this. No one can turn its pages and observe the splendid names which it celebrates without being impressed with the exalted rank of the present century in any comparison with those that have gone before—material, moral, intellectual. Music, poetry, philanthropy, statesmanship, the art of war, the

triumphs of man over nature, the progress of discovery and invention, have all been illustrated by names "on Fame's eternal bead-roll worthy to be filed."

Rambles in Old Boston, New England. By the Rev. Edward G. Porter. Illustrated by George R. Tolman. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co. 1887. 4to, pp. 439.

ALL Bostonians are aware of the fact that Old Boston lies at the North End. At the first settlement of the town, the line of occupation was from the water-front up State Street, northerly along Court Street, under the shadow of Beacon Hill, and then easterly across a creek to that Copp's Hill which terminated the peninsula. A century later, Washington Street was extended southerly, but Boylston Street was decidedly South End. Castle Street, or the present line of the Boston and Albany Railroad, was the absolute terminus of the town. But the most interesting local associations hang around the old town. There dwelt all the colonial Governors and also all their chief opponents. Here lived the rulers of the town meetings and the originators of the town caucuses. Here the spirit of independence was kept alive from the time of Andros to that of Hutchinson; and here the desire for freedom of personal action was artfully and speedily developed into armed resistance to the mother country.

All good Bostonians knew these facts in our grandfathers' days, because they lived on these sites. But in our fathers' time the Mill-pond was filled in, then the South Cove disappeared, and a notable emigration took the old settlers to more southerly localities. The great Irish influx filled up these streets, abandoned by the native-born, and so conveniently situated to house the laborers employed on the adjacent wharves. The stately houses of colonial times became accustomed to Celtic accents, and the Puritan churches allowed themselves to show the golden cross.

Another turn of the wheel, and the Irish colonist, or rather his progeny, born, educated, and developed, has already commenced a new exodus, which finds an ending in the fields of Roxbury and Dorchester. To the first strangers has succeeded a horde of new-comers from southern Europe. Italians and Portuguese have driven out the Irish, underbidding them for work, and crowding them out by mere strength of numbers and clannish feeling. A young man, born here of Irish parents, recently remarked that as a boy he was the only Irish scholar in his school; and to-day, at the age of thirty, he is the only Irish resident on the street, having continued, accidentally, to reside in the house where he was born.

These two tidal waves having swept over the territory, it is not strange that Mr. Porter's book is a necessity and a revelation. It is a necessity, for Yankees really required a guide-book to the place. It is a revelation, for it shows how much of Old Boston has survived, disfigured and dismantled, but still discernible and instructive. His care and patience have been well seconded by the pencil of his artist. We can now at our leisure realize the appearance of colonial Boston, and, if we please, can still visit and examine the glories of the past.

It would be useless to try to enumerate the interesting topics discussed in this volume. The author pursues no set plan of peregrination, but strays here and there, noting every picturesque dwelling and setting down the names of departed worthies. From Sir William Phips to Henry Ward Beecher, from Cotton Mather to Josiah Quincy, from the earliest generation to the present time, something is everywhere gleaned to illustrate his subject. It is a genuine result of enthusiasm tempered by discretion; and while it will amuse every reader for an hour, it also preserves matters rapidly falling into oblivion, and merits a place among the works of our standard historians.

The Pharaohs of the Bondage and the Exodus. By Rev. Charles S. Robinson, D.D. The Century Co. 1887.

THESE lectures, delivered in the Madison Avenue Church, New York, contain a number of interesting details in connection with the recent Egyptian discoveries of Maspero, Brugsch, Naville, Mr. Flinders Petrie, and others, and are so far useful. It is to be regretted that the author has not treated the material in a larger way. His whole interest is theological, and his theology is sectarian. He has no feeling for the grand civilization of old Egypt, and no conception of its higher religious and ethical ideas. He looks on the monuments merely as material for illustrating what he thinks to be the ancient history of the Israelites, which he supposes to be given in the Pentateuch without admixture of legend. His judgment of Egyptian personages is wholly determined by their fancied relation to the Jews. The legendary daughter of Pharaoh, who is said to have adopted Moses as her son, excites his warmest interest, while for Seti I. he can find no adjectives harsh enough to characterize his career; and it evidently has never occurred to him that those same adjectives are virtually applied to King David in the Old Testament narrative. In the same spirit he quotes those Old Testament prophecies against Egypt which he thinks have been fulfilled, and says nothing of those, such as Isaiah xix, 25, which have obviously never been fulfilled. It is a pity that this little volume, so admirably printed and designed for popular reading, should thus ignore the principles of historical criticism. The author, in fact, regards the modern Biblical criticism as an attack on the Christian religion (page 38), which is both a misrepresentation of criticism and treason against Christianity.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott—Halliday. Henry Ward Beecher: A Sketch of his Career, with Incidents and Reminiscences of his Life. New ed. Hartford: American Publishing Co.
As Common Mortals: A Novel. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Beckett, C. H. Who is John Norman? Cassell & Co. $1.
Benham, Rev. W. The Dictionary of Religion: An Encyclopædia of Christian and Other Religious Doctrines, Denominations, Sects, etc. Cassell & Co. $5.
Bolmer, Rev. W. B. The Church and the Faith. A Philosophical History of the Catholic Church. E. & J. B. Young & Co. $5.
Butler, H. E. Solar Biology: A Scientific Method of Delineating Character, &c. Illustrated. Boston: Esoteric Publishing Co.
Cooper, Susan Fenimore. Rural Hours. New ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Dawson, G. F. Life and Services of Gen. John A. Logan, as Soldier and Statesman. Belford, Clarke & Co. $3.
Énault, L. Le Chien du Capitaine. W. R. Jenkins. 25 cents.
Haggard, H. R. Dawn. Harper & Brothers.
Haggard, H. R. She: A History of Adventure. Harper & Brothers.
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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 395

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS 398

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:
The Pacific Coast and the Commerce Act 400
The Composition of the Trades Unions 400
"The Rule of Honor" 401

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:
Questions for the Jubilee 401

CORRESPONDENCE:
The Louisiana Lottery 402
The Color Line in Mississippi 403
The Kentucky State Convention and the President. 403
Wolseley and Lee 403
Coeducation.—A Straw 404
Transformation of Surnames.—Finally 404

NOTES 404

REVIEWS:
Loftie's London 407
Bishop Hannington 408
Recent Mathematical Works 409
A Look Round Literature 411
Principles of Art 411
Baltimore and the Nineteenth of April, 1861 412
The Genealogical Dictionary of Rhode Island 413
Years of Experience 413
Studies in Musical History 414
Les Solutions Démocratiques de la Question des Impots 414
The Aztecs 415

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 415

FINE ARTS:
The Society of American Artists.—I 415

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 12, 1887.

The Week.

THE approval by the President of rules extending the competitive principle to cover promotion in the civil service, as well as the entrance upon it, is the longest step forward which the reform has taken since the passage of the law of 1883. The spoilsmen of the Democratic party have complained because Mr. Cleveland lived up to the original law, and have only been willing to excuse his course as a disagreeable necessity. His response is a voluntary extension of the system, under the discretion which the law—so fortunately, as it proves—left the President. It was a happy coincidence that Mr. Cleveland should have taken this important step on the day that the Kentucky Democratic Convention's slur upon the reform was published.

With the exception of Tennessee and North Carolina, Kentucky is the most ignorant State in the Union, according to the fairest test attainable, which is the proportion of her white population above the age of twenty-one who are unable to write their names. While in Nebraska and Kansas there are only thirty and thirty-one such men out of every thousand, and in New York and Massachusetts but fifty-five and sixty-two—nearly all of whom prove to be foreigners who came to this country without learning their letters and too old to attend school—in Kentucky 173 men out of every thousand have to make their mark when they sign a document. A correspondent of the Louisville *Commercial* recently quoted Gen. Fayette Hewitt, the Auditor of the State, as saying of the men who are elected to the Legislature, that "numbers of them can neither read nor write, and not only that, but they pride themselves on the fact, and never fail to let the body know that the people elected them to this honored position, notwithstanding their ignorance." Many of these have been so ignorant that they could not write their names to their vouchers on drawing their pay.

The resolution of the Kentucky Democratic Convention regarding civil-service reform is precisely what one should have looked for from such a body in such a State. We quote it in full, because it is well to put on record what even in Kentucky before many years will be regarded as a political curiosity.

"We favor honest civil-service reform, by which we mean the enforcement of the faithful performance by persons appointed to office of all public duties intrusted to them; and to this end, as well as to the maintenance of the spirit of our representative form of government, we demand the strictest measure of personal and party responsibility, and are opposed to the substitution in room of this of life tenure, a civil pension list, and all other appendages of a bureaucratic system foreign to the genius of our institutions and people."

This resolution, as we have said, is what was to have been expected, and signifies nothing. But there was one feature of the Convention which was not thus to have been counted upon, and which is in the highest degree significant. Congressman Taulbee, who represents the mountain district in Eastern Kentucky, consisting of twenty of the most backward and ignorant counties, and who naturally is a bitter enemy of civil-service reform, went to the Convention resolved to defeat any movement looking towards the endorsement of the reforming President, and he made a speech against any deliverance of that sort. But the Convention adopted a resolution quite as strong as that which Mr. Taulbee had opposed, its language being as follows: "We declare our confidence in the integrity and conscientious devotion to duty of President Grover Cleveland, and congratulate the country and the party upon the accession of a Democratic Administration, national, economic, and clean; and we particularly applaud the President for the fidelity and courage with which he has protected the Treasury from pillage by his exercise of the veto power." Moreover, the leaders of the party—such men as Senator Beck, Speaker Carlisle, and Representative Breckinridge—made speeches which mean much more than any mere resolution could do. While yielding so far to the ignorance and prejudice in the party as to concede that "the Administration has not satisfied us all," they bestowed warm praise upon it as a whole, and declared that the President must be heartily sustained by the Democratic party.

The question, what shall be done with the surplus in the national treasury, is becoming a burning one, there being only $18,000,000 of 3 per cent. bonds subject to call. Congress had this subject before it all of the last session, but did nothing either to reduce taxation or to dispose of the expected accumulations of money. Two methods of emptying the Treasury are open to the Executive in the absence of new legislation, viz., to buy bonds in the open market, or to pay interest on bonds in advance of its maturity, at such rate of discount as the recipients may agree to. The latter method has been resorted to occasionally by many successive secretaries, without any discount, but only at short periods (two or three months) before the interest became due. Now the question may arise whether it is best to pay interest in advance for longer periods, or to buy bonds in the open market at a high and advancing premium. We think that business men will agree that the former method of getting rid of the surplus is the better of the two. There is no limit to the premium that will be asked for bonds if the Government becomes a forced purchaser. In fact, speculation in the 4 per cents has already taken a fresh start on the hypothesis that the Government would soon become a buyer. Whenever the Secretary comes into the market for this purpose he will find it "cornered" against him. The public would be very much dissatisfied if they should see the Treasury made the victim of speculators, and especially bondholding speculators.

The alternative, as we have said, is to pay interest in advance until such time as Congress shall take steps to dispose of the surplus, making such discount for the advance as the bondholders may agree to. Suppose that the Secretary, having the means in hand to pay the interest in advance for six months, say $24,000,000, and a rapidly accumulating reserve, advertises that he will pay the money to all bondholders who will accept it at a discount of 2 per cent. per annum. Nearly everybody can use money at a better rate than 2 per cent. But the Government cannot use a surplus at all except to pay its debts. It has no other possible investment. To hoard money in ever-increasing amounts is to bring on a commercial crisis. Anything is better than that. Logically it would be better to pay the interest in advance without discount than to lock up the circulating medium of the country. But the probability is that the holders of bonds would generally accept the interest in advance at a discount of 2 per cent. Is there any objection legal or moral to such a proceeding? As regards its legality, it may be urged that there is plenty of precedent for it. Although the interest on the public debt has never been paid more than two or three months in advance, the principle is the same as though it were three years. The reason in both cases would be the same, *i. e.*, to avoid the locking up of money, the cramping of business, the crippling of industry. If it be said that Congress when next convened may desire to make other disposition of the money, the answer is that, having got its liabilities for interest out of the way, it can use its current receipts for the desired purpose. The net assets of the Treasury are not impaired.

A law was enacted at the last session of Congress conferring a very peculiar jurisdiction upon the Court of Claims, which throws a significant side light upon our accounting system. It provides that the Court shall, after due notice has been given to the head of the proper department and to the Attorney-General, proceed to hear the petitions of those Government officers, agents, and contractors who allege that they are indebted as such to the United States; that application has been made to the proper department of the Government for an adjustment, that three years have elapsed since the application, and that the account upon which the indebtedness arises remains unsettled. The petitions of guarantors, sureties or personal representatives of such parties are equally entitled under this law to a hearing. It then becomes the duty of the court "to ascertain the amount, if any, due the United States on said account," and the payment of this amount shall discharge such obligation. If not paid, it may be recovered by suit brought at any time within three years. After that time the claim and the original indebtedness shall be for ever barred. It seems at first blush very odd that a debtor should be allowed to bring a suit against his creditor, based upon the account from which the indebtedness springs, but a little reflection enables us to comprehend the mischief of the

old system which this law attempts to suppress. In the first place, many agents of the Government are, as the accounting officers will be the first to admit, only nominal or apparent debtors. That is, there are items yet to be credited which will balance their accounts, but a deficiency appropriation is needed in order to warrant their allowance; or vouchers of a certain kind are required to support charges made, which it is impossible to secure, on account of the death of the officer, or those from whom he made purchases; or the accounts have not been received at the Treasury, being in the pigeonholes of the department of which the officer was a subordinate, and through which his accounts were transmitted.

Perhaps the greatest evil designed to be corrected by this law is the indefinite liability of sureties and heirs of Government officers. Owing to the sense of security afforded by the existence of a bond, many instances of the grossest carelessness and tardiness now occur, both on the part of the officer in making his returns and the Treasury accountants in revising them and in pressing their settlement. After many years, suit is instituted against those who have even forgotten that they were sureties. In most of these cases the Government gains nothing, either because of the insolvency of the parties, or because of the adverse instructions of the Court. The English Government discovered long ago that it was wiser to dispense with bonds, and instead to rely upon speedy settlements with disbursing officers.

The campaign against Poverty goes on with vigor, Mr. George having dealt the enemy some heavy blows at the Academy of Music on Sunday evening, and Dr. McGlynn following up the attack at the Cooper Institute on Monday evening. The enemy showed signs of weakness at the Academy by contributing $500 to the attacking party. A portion of this was thrown on the stage from all parts of the house, very much as bouquets are thrown at popular singers. Now $500 is sufficient to start two or three families on the farms in the town of Ludlow, Vermont, that have been abandoned by their owners because they could not earn a living and pay the taxes on them. Since the campaign against Poverty has for its object the confiscation of land and the taxing of farms up to their full rental value, here is a good opportunity to show how the thing would work. Let the $500 be immediately applied to the seizure of these farms and to the purchase of ploughs, seeds, and domestic animals. If the Legislature of Vermont do not put the taxes on the land high enough to kill Poverty, Mr. George can go up there and deliver a lecture on the subject. This would be much more to the purpose than bragging how many votes he got for the office of Mayor last fall.

Another of the great "labor bills" has passed the New York Assembly. It makes ten hours a day's labor for the drivers of street cars. As the drivers are paid by the trip, and need not go on more trips than they choose, the object of the bill is simply to please Labor; but if Labor be pleased with it, Labor is sillier than its worst enemies suppose. If the friends of Labor in the Legislature could be induced to introduce, if not to pass, all possible labor bills at once, it would be a great saving of public time. Among those which have not as yet received attention would be one fixing the amount of money which each laborer should have in his pocket for incidental expenses. The most important of all is, however, the Labor Sleep Bill. The sleep of the laboring man has thus far been shamefully neglected by those who make our laws. Nobody in this State, not even the Labor Bureau, knows how much sleep Labor gets, or concerns himself in the least about it, although it is well settled that eight hours' sleep is each laborer's due. If he does not get it, it shows that there is something wrong in our Government. The Labor Sleep Bill will or ought to provide that each laborer shall have eight hours' sleep, either continuous or desultory, and shall stay in bed till he gets it, and that six Sleep Inspectors, with a salary of $5,000 each, shall be appointed to watch over the execution of the law, and provide for silence around the laborer's couch.

The letter written by the Rev. Dr. McGlynn to the *Times* denying the alleged interview in which he was represented as defining Archbishop Corrigan's politics in the last national election, contains two statements which possess considerable interest. One is that whereas he (Dr. McGlynn) was opposed to Mr. Blaine in the last election, he will be just as much opposed to him in the next one if he should be renominated. This declaration will sink very deep into the hearts of the Republican campaign managers in this State. The other pregnant sentence we quote in his own words:

"You ask, 'To whom did Dr. McGlynn allude when he spoke of the "precious gang" who were sending out "calumnies on this subject to clergymen all over the country?"' I meant by the 'precious gang' not any number of clergymen, whether bishops or priests, but a lot of political rascals who, as your quotation from my statement shows, had tried by unjustly exciting Catholic prejudice to defeat Gov. Robinson, and were repeating the same art to defeat Mr. Cleveland. A leader of this gang on both occasions, as I well knew, was Mr. Thomas F. Grady, who, I have reason to surmise, was the author of the circular against Mr. Cleveland sent to Catholic clergymen, for a clergyman had told me that Mr. Grady had shown him a copy of it in print that seemed to be a proof with Mr. Grady's manuscript corrections."

Mr. Grady was one of "the enemies he had made," whose hostility at the Chicago Convention contributed so much to Mr. Cleveland's nomination. It is well known that Grady's hostility followed Mr. Cleveland after his nomination with as great virulence as before. Inferences may be drawn from this respecting the late Mr. John Kelly, but it is perhaps best not to disturb his ashes.

The election of 1884 showed that Mugwumpism had gained at least a foothold in Wisconsin, Blaine's vote for President falling more than 2,000 short of Rusk's for Governor, and Cleveland's leading that of the Democratic candidate for Governor in the same proportion. Two years of a Democratic Administration have greatly strengthened the Independent feeling, and its importance is now fully recognized by the Republican managers. The Milwaukee *Sentinel*, the chief party organ, opposes the renomination of Blaine, and Senator Sawyer, the leading party manager, is out for Sherman as the candidate in 1888. The drift of sentiment is illustrated by the result of a canvass among thirty prominent Republicans of Oshkosh, which showed that Blaine was the first choice of only fourteen, and that a number of these doubt the advisability of nominating him for fear that he would be more badly beaten another time.

Some very interesting figures are published by the Providence *Journal* from advance sheets of the census of Rhode Island, which was taken in 1885 and is now in process of completion. These show that while there are nearly 86,000 men of voting age in the State, less than 46,000 are returned as qualified voters. This great discrepancy is not due, as might be supposed, solely to the discrimination which the State laws make against residents of foreign birth, for while about 54,000 of the 86,000 are native born, only about 41,000 of them are actual voters, the others, numbering over 12,000, having never taken the trouble to comply with the registration laws. The total number of foreign-born residents of voting age is nearly 32,000, and only about 5,000 of these are actual voters. Over 23,000 of them have never been naturalized, while over 3,400 who have been naturalized are not able to vote because not possessing the $134 worth of real estate required by law. If all the aliens were naturalized, and universal and unrestricted suffrage prevailed, the native-born voter would still outnumber the foreign-born by more than five to three.

The item of greatest interest in this showing is the presence in the State of over 12,000 native-born voters who have the right of suffrage, but who have not taken the trouble to exercise it. This is a much larger proportion—12,000 out of 46,000, more than one-fourth—than can be found in any other State. It is undoubtedly due to the long supremacy of the Republican party in the State, and to the registration laws which that party's managers concocted to enable them to continue in control. These laws require the payment of registration taxes a year or more in advance of election, with the express purpose of keeping the Democratic registration down. So long as there was no hope of success at the polls, the Democratic voters would not pay their own poll-taxes, and their managers would not go to the expense of paying them for them. Democratic success has changed this, and the next election is likely to show a great diminution in the number of stay-at-home voters, and a large increase in the Democratic total, for it is reasonable to suppose that nearly all the 12,000 absentees are Democrats. What is true of Rhode Island is true in a wider sense of the whole country. The Democratic party will enter the next Presidential election with the prestige of success to help and encourage its apathetic voters for the first time in a quarter of a century, and the increase in its vote from this source alone will be an element of no slight importance in deciding the result.

The last number of the New York *Lumber Trade Journal*—at the close of an article exhibiting some details of the business carried on by American capital in the manufacture and sale of Canadian forest products—asks whether we can afford to cut ourselves off from this source of supply in order that relatively unimportant fishing interests may be fostered? For the three years 1884-5-6, all but 2 per cent. of the total value of the exports from the Ottawa Consular District were forest products. Both in Quebec and Ontario, Americans have taken a leading part in developing this main resource of the country, and many of them have made large fortunes in the business. When it was believed that the Morrison Tariff Bill was likely to pass, much lumber was bought for shipment to the United States, one firm buying eighty million feet. Should non-intercourse be proclaimed, the American owners cannot get this property to market, and we shall not—in a season when all the signs indicate a short supply and high prices—enjoy the relief which this addition to our stock would give. The *Northwestern Lumberman* says that everything points to higher prices this season. At the Lumbermen's Convention, recently held at Minneapolis, the Secretary reported that there are a billion feet less of manufactured lumber in stock than a year ago, and that last winter's log crop is no larger than that of the winter of 1885–6. A correspondent of the same paper estimates that not less than 130,000,000 feet of timber will be required for culverts and bridges on new railroads built this season, and that an equal amount will be absorbed by the stations and villages along the lines. Nearly all the correspondents from prominent Eastern points say that the indications are that this season there will be more than the average amount of lumber absorbed in building. If under such circumstances we cut off all or the greater part of the material we might get from the Canadian forests, and have to show for it nothing but a higher price for all the fish we eat, it would seem a hard matter for the most inveterate protectionist to cipher out a profit.

Some time ago we published an outline of the Ohio Liquor-Tax Law, showing that the receipts from its successful working were paid into the county treasuries, and that each community was given the power to raise the tax to any limit it chose, or to prohibit liquor-selling altogether. We have now obtained, through the courtesy of its author, Mr. William W. Harper of Chicago, a copy of the Illinois law, in which the principle of each community receiving the full benefit of its own liquor tax is more specifically applied than it is in Ohio. The words of the law are that "it shall not be lawful for the corporated authorities of any city, town, or village in this State, to grant a license for the keeping of a dram-shop except upon the payment, in advance, into the treasury of the city, town, or village granting the license, such sum as may be determined by the respective authorities of such city, town, or village, not less than at the rate of $500 per annum." Each community is given the power to raise the tax to any limit it chooses, and so many communities have availed themselves of this to raise it to the prohibitory limit that, according to the Chicago *Tribune*, "prohibition has been so generally established by rural communities that it is now the rule over two-thirds of the soil of the State. In thirty or forty counties scarcely an open saloon exists."

The strict enforcement of the Sunday Liquor Law is an excellent thing as a lesson in politics both for the public and the police. It will do much to put a stop to what we may call bunkum legislation—that is, legislation intended to please good people and do bad people no harm, of which there is a great deal. Mayor Hewitt is proving beyond question that a really prohibitory Sunday law cannot be enforced—paradoxical as it sounds—by enforcing it. That is, by showing how much vigilance is needed to enforce it, and what violence rigid enforcement does to the habits of large bodies of decent men and women, he shows that permanent rigid enforcement is impossible. The police could not permanently supply the needed vigilance, and the people would not permanently furnish the amount of acquiescence and submission which is necessary to make even consummate vigilance effective. A few Sundays more of the same sort as the last will probably bring about a more practical state of mind about the liquor question in this city than we have had for many a day. The lesson of the experiment is that absolute legislation about liquor is out of the question—that is, legislation which treats all consumption of alcoholic drinks as a crime, either on one day or seven days of the week. In other words, we may and ought to regulate, but we cannot prohibit, and, therefore, ought not to try.

The new Governor of Washington Territory has had a chance to show what sort of man he is, and he stands the test well. A few days ago fresh trouble with the Chinese was threatened at Seattle, the worst elements of the white population having resolved to drive out the "barbarians." Governor Semple promptly telegraphed to the Commander of the Territorial Militia, ordering him to have his force in readiness to assist the authorities in maintaining the laws, and his manly stand at once restored order. The *Post-Intelligencer*, the leading newspaper of Seattle, "congratulates the Democratic party on producing a man of such metal, and the Territory upon the good fortune of having such a Governor to appeal to for direction when the honor of the Territory is imperilled." Such a tribute is the only commentary needed upon the recent diatribe against the President for his appointments in Washington Territory from Delegate Voorhees, a disappointed spoilsman.

The question whether the "fall in prices" that has been witnessed during the past fifteen or twenty years is due to a short supply of gold in the commercial world, or to improved means of production and transportation, has received a pretty thorough examination, in the *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, at the hands of Prof. J. Laurence Laughlin. With great volubility the bimetallists have advanced the idea of an insufficiency of gold to sustain prices, and have gained the adherence of some who are not bimetallists, notably Mr. Goschen, the present Chancellor of the Exchequer, and Mr. Giffen, the statistician of the British Board of Trade. The greatest service rendered by Prof. Laughlin in this discussion, as it seems to us, is to be found in the appendix to his article, in which he presents the various tables of prices that are relied upon by the bimetallists to establish their thesis that general prices have fallen. This is the foundation of their argument. If general prices have not fallen, the whole superstructure comes down. It is shown that there is a very wide disagreement both in the manner of constructing these tables and in the results reached by them. The differences are so glaring as to suggest the inquiry whether there is any such thing as "an average of general prices." Undoubtedly we may take a given number of articles, and find out whether a hundred dollars will buy more or less of a given number of pounds and yards of each of them than the same money would buy ten years ago. But if some articles have fallen and others have risen in price, this proves nothing. If, furthermore, the fall of some and the rise of others can be traced to causes other than the gold supply, then the labor spent in tabulating them has been wasted, for all purposes of argument upon the monetary question.

The tables oftenest quoted and most relied upon are those of the *Economist*, which have followed for a long series of years twenty-two articles, mostly raw materials, leaving out of view everything else that enters into human consumption and traffic. Three of these articles are cotton of different kinds. Of course two of them ought to be left out, and this correction would reduce the number of articles to twenty. Moreover, the *Economist* does not take into account the relative importance of articles, or the quantities that enter into ordinary consumption. Indigo, for instance, counts for as much as wheat in making up the average. Another authority in the manufacture of tabulated prices gives to wheat the power of 18 as against 1 for indigo, and the latter is much more philosophical in his treatment of the subject than the *Economist*. Again, the *Economist* deals only with British prices, leaving the rest of the world out of the reckoning. One of the tables given embraces a list of twenty-three articles of general consumption and traffic in the commercial world which have shown no tendency to fall in price. Among these are such staple commodities as beef, cheese, oats, brandy, and silk. As to those which have fallen, the greater part have been subjected to influences clearly definable, such as cheapened processes of manufacture and transportation, which account for their fall in price without the necessity of looking into the gold supply, or the book of fate, or a pack of cards to determine the causes of the phenomenon. These facts have been brought to the attention of Mr. Giffen and Mr. Goschen before, but they have observed a studied silence respecting them. Mr. Laughlin's presentation is rather more thorough than any former one, because he attacks the tables themselves and knocks their heads together most effectively.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, May 4, to TUESDAY, May 10, 1887, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE National Civil-Service Commissioners have submitted to the President amendments to the civil-service rules, and he has approved them. They are almost as important as the original rules. The principle of competitive examination will now be applied to promotions in the executive departments, and ultimately in the Government service generally. On May 5 the annual meeting of the New York Civil-Service Reform Association was held in this city, and Mr. George William Curtis was reëlected President. The report of the Executive Committee expresses regret "that Mr. Hans S. Beattie continues to occupy the position of Surveyor at this port. Extensive information, constantly reaching us, shows that the system of administration pursued by him is seriously to the detriment of the public service, and that no proper conduct of the office is to be anticipated as long as he remains its incumbent."

The Inter-State Commerce Commissioners, having finished hearing petitions and explanations in the Southern cities, on April 5 separated for a few days and each went to his home. Commissioner Schoonmaker, to remove popular misapprehensions about the law and the functions of the Commission, said at Pittsburgh on the 7th: "It should be remembered that the business of the country is no longer in the hands of the railroads. The business men should remember that the new law is in the nature of an emancipation to them. On the other hand, the law is not a dictation against the railroads, but against the abuses on them. . . . I do not think the new law is injurious to the interests of the Pacific Slope. The greatest clamor heard of comes from California. There is nothing in the law to prevent any one in the East from making rates to the Pacific Coast, or the reverse, provided they do not ship to intermediate points at higher rates. The law was passed so as to help business and do away with abuses. Now it seems that there is a disposition on the part of some of the people to try and make capital out of the law itself in their pressing demands for special provisions." It is reported that much transcontinental traffic is going by the Canadian Pacific Road. A bill has been introduced in the Canadian Parliament embodying some of the provisions of the United States law. The most important provision is that no railroad company shall charge for carrying freight a short distance a greater rate than for carrying the same class of freight a longer distance. Complaint has been made to the Commission on behalf of the Rev. William H. Council of Huntsville, Ala., a colored Methodist preacher, who paid first-class fare, but was ejected from a regular coach. The Commission is asked to decide whether a discrimination on account of color by an inter-State road falls within the prohibition of the law.

Secretary Whitney has decided to order the repair of the United States steamer *Hartford* now at Mare Island, Cal. A sentimental interest is felt in this ship because it was Farragut's flagship.

The Kentucky Democratic Convention, at Louisville, on May 5, nominated Gen. S. B. Buckner for Governor, James W. Bryan for Lieutenant-Governor, P. W. Hardin for Attorney-General, Gen. Lafayette Hewitt for Auditor, and Richard Tate for Treasurer. A resolution was adopted full of praise of Mr. Cleveland's Administration, but the platform contains a warped plank about civil service reform. Mr. Carlisle presided over the Convention.

Mr. Charles James Faulkner of Martinsburg was elected United States Senator from West Virginia on May 5, to succeed Mr. Camden. He is a son of the Charles James Faulkner who was appointed Minister to France by President Buchanan, and was arrested and imprisoned in 1861, charged with disloyalty to the Union.

The Connecticut House of Representatives passed a uniform high-license bill May 6, fixing the fees for a full license at $400 and the fee for beer license at $150.

The Committee of the New York Legislature which has been investigating the conduct of the officers of Brooklyn and Kings County has recommended in its majority report that a number of them be removed for corruption in office. The minority report declares that the charges are not proved by the evidence.

Gov. Hill of this State has approved the Saturday Half-Holiday Act, which will make Saturday afternoons, after May 20, legal holidays.

Gov. Hill has vetoed the bill passed by the New York Legislature providing for the election of members of a convention to change the State Constitution.

The Excise Law of New York, which prohibits even the serving of liquor by hotel proprietors to their guests on Sunday, had not been enforced in this city for a great many years, until last Sunday. It was the "dryest" day in New York that has come for a long time. Eighty-eight persons were arrested for selling liquor. It is the almost universal expectation that Mayor Hewitt's enforcement of this law will cause its modification, at least so as to make the serving of liquors at hotels lawful.

A call has been published for a State Convention of the United Labor Party in New York to nominate candidates for the next State election, and the Convention is to sit at Syracuse on August 17. One article of the creed which is printed with the call is, that taxes shall be levied only on land-values.

A party of about 100 Hungarian laborers have gone from the coke region near Connellsville, Pa., to Hungary to spend the five or six months during which they think their strike will last, because they can go and return and live cheaper during that time than by staying in Pennsylvania.

Paul Grottkau, the Anarchist, who made incendiary speeches in Milwaukee a year ago when there was a riot there, has been sentenced to one year at hard labor in the House of Correction.

At a meeting on May 5 of the Third Army Corps Union in this city, Gen. Sickles introduced a resolution, which was unanimously adopted, calling for a meeting of the officers and soldiers of the Army of the Potomac and of the Army of Northern Virginia (Confederate) on the battle-field at Gettysburg, on July 1, 2, and 3, 1888.

The grand jury at Haverhill, O., has found indictments for murder in the first degree against the four men named McCoy (one of them is a saloon-keeper), who killed Dr. Northrup because of his activity against liquor-selling. A murder for a similar cause is reported from Jackson, Miss. James S. Hamilton and three other men killed Roderick Gambrell, who was the editor of a temperance paper. The temperance people in Mississippi are greatly excited by the murder.

Two large manufacturers of barbed wire, Schnabel & Co. at Deering Station, and Sherman & Marsh, at Grand Crossing, Ill., have failed with liabilities amounting to $755,000. The Inter-State Commerce Act, which abolished rebates on heavy barbed wire shipments and enabled other firms shipping by water to sell cheaper, is given as the chief cause of these failures.

In central, northern, and northwestern Texas there was a heavy rainfall May 9 and 10. This is the second rain since May 1. The crop prospect is greatly improved. There will be a largely increased acreage for cotton and corn.

Earthquake shocks were felt on May 3 and the day following from Texas to California and in Mexico. At Sabinal, N. M., which is one of the old settlements in the Southwest, many ancient adobe buildings were shaken down. At the town of Bahispe, in Sonora, Mex., an unverified report is that 150 persons were killed. Recent records of earthquake shocks show a general disturbance from one end of Mexico to the other. A subsequent shock was reported in the San José Mountains, forty miles south of Fort Huachuca, in Sonora. The regions of the greatest disturbance, both in Arizona and in Mexico, are so far from telegraph stations that the topographical changes made by the shocks are not yet known. Unverified reports of volcanic action have come from settlements near all the mountain ranges within the disturbed area.

At the one hundred and nineteenth annual meeting of the Chamber of Commerce of the State of New York on May 5 a letter was read from M. Bartholdi, who, in the name of the French delegation which came here when the Statue of Liberty was set up, presented to the Chamber some Sèvres vases as an expression of thanks for the Chamber's hospitality.

The corporators of Clark University to be established at Worcester, Mass., met May 4 and elected the founder, Mr Jonas G. Clark, President, and ex-Attorney-General Charles Devens, Senator George F. Hoar, and ex-Congressman W. W. Rice Vice-Presidents. They will proceed at once to erect buildings so that the first class in the new university may be admitted on the first Monday in October, 1888. Mr. Clark announced his purpose to give another million dollars (he had already given $1,000,000), and expressed his wish that the institution be kept beyond the reach of partisan influence and sectarian bias, and that the courses of instruction should be made to embrace as wide a range as possible of theology, philosophy, science, literature, and art.

John Fitzgerald, President of the Irish National League of America, recently submitted the London *Times*'s facsimile of the alleged Parnell letter, together with documents in the handwriting of Richard Pigott, formerly proprietor of the Dublin *Irishman*, who some time ago tried to blackmail officers of the League, to a committee, consisting of the Governor, the State Treasurer, and the State Auditor of Nebraska, and the Mayor, the Postmaster, and the cashiers of the banks at Lincoln. This committee has expressed the opinion that the Parnell signature was written by the same hand that wrote the blackmailing letters.

William O'Brien, the editor of the *United Ireland*, arrived in New York May 10 on his way to Canada to make an agitation against Lord Lansdowne for his treatment of the tenants on his Irish estates. He was enthusiastically received here by his political friends. A deputation of citizens waited on Mayor Howland of Toronto, May 10, and presented a requisition for a public meeting to consider the advisability of prohibiting Mr. O'Brien from speaking in that city. The Montreal *Gazette* on May 10 warned him that if he insults the Governor-General he does it at his own risk. It says: "The Governor-General stands to us in the place of the Queen. We are bound in honor to protect him against such insult—bound by the strongest of reasons—self-respect and national pride. To insult him is to insult not only the Queen's representative, but Canada and the people of Canada, whose Viceroy he is. Mr. O'Brien is assuming a very serious responsibility. As a landlord we have nothing to do with Lord Lansdowne. The people of Canada are not all Irish, and they have rights that should be respected. We greatly fear that if Mr. O'Brien persists, he will provoke feelings of a totally different order from those which, in his rash design, he contemplated."

Queen Kapiolani of the Hawaiian Islands was entertained at dinner at Washington by the President, and has visited Boston, where she received attentions from the Mayor and many distinguished citizens.

Mr. W. C. Depauw, a plate-glass manufacturer of New Albany, Ind., and one of the richest men in the West, died at Indianapolis May 5, aged sixty-five. He had been generous to several educational institutions. Another man of means who used his riches generously to further educational work was Mr. Oliver Hoyt, who died from injuries got by a fall last week from his carriage. He did business in this city and lived at Stamford, Conn. Robert McKim, a rich banker and philanthropist of Madison, Ind., died May 9. He gave the money for the establishment of the McKim observatory of Depauw University.

Gen. Aaron Fletcher Stevens died at Nashua, N. H., May 10. He was a Brigadier-General of Volunteers in the Union Army.

FOREIGN

The House of Commons has occupied itself almost wholly for a week discussing the *Times*-Dillon incident. Mr. Gladstone's motion to appoint a committee to inquire into the *Times's* charges against Mr. Dillon was rejected by a vote of 317 to 233, and Sir Edward Clarke's motion that the House decline to treat the *Times's* publication as a breach of privilege was agreed to. Mr. W. H. Smith's proposition that the Attorney-General should prosecute the *Times* on behalf of Mr. Dillon has been hooted by the Liberal members. The ill-management of the Tories in this whole matter seems to have given the Parnellites the advantage, in spite of the denial of a committee of inquiry.

After the long delay caused by the discussion of the *Times*-Dillon incident, the House of Commons, May 9, again went into committee and took up the Irish Crimes Act. An amendment to the effect that magisterial inquiries into cases of alleged crime under the bill be conducted in public, was rejected by a vote of 188 to 131. Progress was made only by the application of the closure rule. A discredited report was published on May 10 that the Government will make an excuse to imprison all the Parnellite members, in order to hasten the progress of the Crimes Bill. On May 10 an amendment to the effect that a person committed for contempt of court be treated as a first-class misdemeanant was rejected, as well as another amendment to limit the penalty for contempt in the case of witnesses to seven days' imprisonment.

An informal meeting of the Cabinet was held on the same day to discuss plans for expediting the passage of the Coercion Bill. It was decided to abandon the attempt to effect a wholesale application of the closure rule at a fixed date. The Ministerialists think that the discussion on the Coercion Bill in committee will last three weeks longer.

Mr. Gladstone's having Mr. T. D. Sullivan, Lord Mayor of Dublin, Mr. Justin McCarthy, and other Irish politicians to dine with him May 7 is commented on as an evidence of the cementing influence on the Liberals and Parnellites of the *Times*-Dillon incident.

The Court of Queen's Bench at Dublin has decided that the arrest of Mr. Dillon by police inspectors for receiving money under the plan of campaign was lawful.

An application has been dismissed for the release of Father Keller, the priest of Youghal, who is imprisoned at Dublin for refusing to testify regarding his connection with the plan of campaign.

The coercionist cause has received a rebuff in Birmingham. In the newly elected Liberal Council a resolution was adopted condemning coercion, which was practically a vote of censure of Mr. Bright's conduct, who has unofficially expressed his willingness to resign.

It was first made known on May 6 that Sir Henry Holland, Secretary of State for the Colonies, announced in the Colonial Conference in London on April 27 that the Government hoped to arrange with France for a joint Naval Commission for the government of the New Hebrides. This statement amazed the members of the Conference, and all the Australians deprecated any policy which even seemed to recognize French pretensions in the New Hebrides. The Conference has approved the proposal to lay a cable between Vancouver and Australia, and expressed its favor of an extension of the Queen's present titles to "Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain, Ireland, and the Colonies and all Dependencies thereof, and Empress of India."

A congress of English-speaking Roman Catholics will meet in London shortly, chiefly to discuss questions growing out of the labor agitation. Cardinal Manning is the leading spirit in the movement.

The American Exhibition in London was formally opened May 9 with an attendance of about 7,000 persons. "Buffalo Bill's" Wild West show proved to be the most attractive feature to a great many visitors.

James Grant, the English novelist, died May 6. Sir William Young, ex-Chief Justice of Nova Scotia, died at Halifax, May 8. On May 9 Samuel Cousins, the famous English engraver, died, aged eighty-six.

The performance of Wagner's "Lohengrin," at the Eden Theatre in Paris, was made the occasion of anti-German demonstrations by a mob. A crowd assembled near the theatre while the performance was going on and shouted "Down with Wagner!" "On to Berlin!" and similar cries. A number of youths were arrested, and other performances of Wagner's productions were postponed. On May 4, the mob marched to the residence of President Grévy and cried out against Germany. These incidents have excited little comment at Berlin. It was reported on May 7 that three German spies had been arrested near Nancy, and that the German Government had strengthened its detective force to watch suspected Frenchmen.

A bill drawn by Gen. Boulanger to provide for a mobilization of the French Army in the fall has provoked serious comment at Berlin.

The Leipsic Supreme Court has prepared an indictment against the persons arrested for connection with the case in which the French Commissary Schnaebelé was implicated. The indictment covers all the evidence in detail collected during several months, and it is said to be as much against France as against the prisoners.

The United States Treasury Agent sent to Aix-la-Chapelle to inquire into the causes of undervaluations of exports has been put to great annoyance, most of the manufacturers refusing to answer his questions. European prices are of little value for use in America, because all European countries make cheaper prices for exports to America than for goods to be sold in Europe, and the Germans alone cannot change the system.

The duty on imported cattle has been increased by Belgium. Its effect will be to increase the duty on all fresh meat from fifty to sixty per cent.; and it is predicted that it will cause great popular discontent, and it may bring about the defeat of the present Government at next year's elections.

Boissières Frères, ship-owners of Havre, have opened a semi-monthly service between that port and Montreal. Six vessels of 4,000 tons will be run.

The steamship *La Champagne*, from Havre to New York, on May 8 near the French coast came into collision with another steamship. In the panic that followed, several Italian emigrants were drowned. The steamer was badly damaged and was beached.

The Russian duty on iron and steel and on articles manufactured therefrom has been increased.

The Russian Ambassador to Berlin has presented to the Emperor an autograph letter from the Czar assuring him of Russia's continued friendship.

The Russian Government has prohibited the sale of a drama by Count Tolstoi entitled "The Powers of Darkness," which was written for general circulation.

The Pope and the Czar are negotiating through a noble Lombard monk with a view to the reunion of the Greek and Latin Churches. As the Pope is willing to let the Greek Church retain its own manner of worship, it is expected that the negotiations will be successful.

Troops have been sent to take position along the line of railway to be travelled by the Czar when he visits the Don Cossack capital, so that the entire route will be guarded. He has invited the King of Denmark, the King and Queen of Greece, the Queen of Servia, the Prince and Princess of Montenegro, and the Duchess of Edinburgh to be his guests on the journey. The Czarina has given 100,000 rubles to Gen. Gresser, Prefect of St. Petersburg, in recognition of his services in frustrating the recent plot against the Czar's life, and the Czar has granted him a pension of 6,000 rubles as a reward for his services in arresting Nihilists.

Herr Nordenfeldt has made arrangements to sign a contract with the Hungarian Government for the establishment of a factory at Pesth for the manufacture of small arms, and to guarantee the delivery of 400,000 rifles in two years.

A hot sirocco blew all last week through Hungary, parching vegetation and rendering it inflammable. At Toroczko 300 houses, many houses at the village of Meregyo, and all the churches and public buildings at Eperies, were burned. A number of people perished, and the loss of property is reported to be not less than $2,500,000. Emperor Francis Joseph has sent $5,000 for the relief of the victims of the fires.

In the Spanish Congress the question of home rule for Cuba has been formulated and discussed. A threat was made by home-rule members on May 10 that they would cause an agitation for annexation to America if their demands were not granted. It is reported that the Carlists are aiding the Home-Rulers to organize an outbreak.

The Spanish Government has authorized the formation of a coaling station on the Red Sea, with the idea of founding a settlement. The attention of several of the Powers has been attracted by this announcement. The Italian Government has asked Spain for an explanation, and it is reported that the site of the station had already been claimed by Italy.

Mr. Henry M. Stanley, with his expedition for the relief of Emin Bey, arrived at Bauza Mundeka, Congo, March 29. He took a route by way of Stanley Falls for Emin's camp.

The mineral exhibition which was to have been opened at Lima October 1, 1887, has been postponed until July 29, 1888, by the Peruvian Government, because the preparations cannot be finished this year.

On May 2 an explosion in a shaft of a coal mine at Nanaimo, B. C., entombed and caused the death of more than 125 miners. A large proportion of the families in the town lost their bread-winners. There was hope of rescuing some of the imprisoned men for several days, and during that period business was suspended and nearly the whole population assembled near the pit. The Canadian Government will be asked by the members from British Columbia for a grant towards relieving the wives and families of the killed.

THE PACIFIC COAST AND THE COMMERCE ACT.

The Sacramento *Record-Union* finds the Inter-State Commerce Act not only a bad kind of protective tariff, but extremely bad politics, so far as the Pacific Coast is concerned. "Protection of A in America," it says, "in his industry, as against the products of the industry of B in a foreign land, is one thing, but the protection of A in Ohio at the expense of B in California, both being citizens of a common country, with the right to trade freely between the States, is a very different thing. It means divorcement of sympathy, commercial estrangement, and possible political dismemberment." Possible political dismemberment is a pretty hard word. It is probably meant to be no more than indicative of a necessary weakening of political ties when any section of the people think that their pecuniary interests have been unjustly sacrificed, or their rights wantonly trampled upon.

Looking at the state of things created on the Pacific Coast by the multiplication of transcontinental lines of railway, and the competition among them for through traffic, we do not see how the long-and-short-haul clause of the Commerce Act can possibly be maintained as to that coast. It must be remembered that we have to deal not with the California that the miners made, but with one that we have made; not with Pacific Coast industries as they existed prior to 1869, when commerce and production conformed to the ancient lines of traffic via Cape Horn and Panama, but with one altogether different. We have put a lot of forces in train which have transformed the face of the country and changed all the currents of life. We have induced, nay required, the people of the Pacific Coast to build the fabric of their industry over in order to fit it to speedy communication with the older parts of the country, and at very low cost. Now we enact a law to deprive them of the low rates of transportation which form an integral part of their business, and which they enjoy by virtue of natural causes, and without harm to anybody else. Can we wonder if intense dissatisfaction is the result?

Attention has been drawn to the absurdity of the long-and-short-haul clause of the Commerce Act by the new schedules of rates adopted by the Canadian Pacific Railway. These rates are fixed just low enough to take the business, but are in every case higher than the rates prevailing before the Commerce Act went into effect. It is true that the Commissioners have suspended the operation of the act temporarily, but the apprehension that it may come in force again has led to the making of time contracts, by virtue of which large shipments are now making over the Canadian road at equal rates with those offered by our own lines. But there are certain kinds of freight, as, for instance, fresh fruits, that cannot be carried so great a distance without spoiling. These require the most rapid means of transit, without which, indeed, the industry must come to an end. In California and Oregon this is a great branch of industry, and no other is growing more rapidly.

Now, the spectacle offered to the eye of the business man—and most Americans are men of business — of the traffic of the Pacific Coast going around through a foreign country in order to reach American markets, and paying at the same time higher rates of transportation than our own railroads would be glad to make, is too absurd to hold the stage very long. We might, through a stern sense of duty, like that of Abraham offering up his young son Isaac, sacrifice the California fruit trade outright, but to see our business carried off by the Canadians over a longer line than any of our own, and at greater cost, will move the national sense of humor to a degree. What has happened in this particular is exactly what ought to have been expected. The Canadian Pacific has one terminus on Puget Sound and another on Lake Superior. It stretches practically from all points on the Pacific to all points on the lakes. A little more coal is required to get the goods to and from its terminus than on our own lines, but on the other hand it costs a great deal to keep hands and machinery idle. The Canadian road can afford to burn a little more coal at the two ends of its route in order to keep itself fully employed along its whole course. It was just as certain that the Commerce Act would cause the result now witnessed, *i. e.*, the transfer of American traffic to the Canadian Pacific Railroad at higher rates than those heretofore prevailing, as that a stone thrown upward will come down. If Mr. Reagan or any other Congressman fancied that merchants would, on grounds of patriotism, pay two dollars for an article that could be had for one, he is probably now undeceived.

The Commerce Act allows the Commissioners to suspend the operation of the long-and-short-haul clause in any particular case. They have suspended it as to the transcontinental lines for a period of seventy-five days. They will have to suspend it again at the expiration of that time, and they might better suspend it altogether than do it piecemeal, since shippers will naturally prefer a route which they can depend upon, rather than one which may be closed to them at the end of a few weeks.

THE COMPOSITION OF THE TRADES-UNIONS.

We gave some account, a short time ago, of the diverting performances of the Illinois Bureau of "Labor Statistics," as set out in its Report for 1886. The volume is full of entertaining matter, though intended by its authors to produce nothing but serious reflection. The figures collected by Commissioners in the state of mind in which the report indicates these gentlemen to have been when preparing their work, are not likely to be very reliable; but on some points which they approach without any theory in their heads, they probably have come as near accuracy as anybody could. The result of their inquiries into the nationality of the members of the trades-unions, and into that of the Knights of Labor, is especially interesting, as throwing some light on a question which has both social and political importance, and which a great many people have been asking with some anxiety during the late labor troubles—namely, the extent to which native-born Americans are wrestling with the labor problem by means of strikes and boycotts.

According to the Report, there are in Illinois 54,247 members of trades-unions. Of these, 21 per cent. are Americans, 33 per cent. Germans, 19 per cent. Irish; English and Scotch together, 10 per cent.; Scandinavians, 12 per cent., and Poles, Bohemians, and Italians, about 5 per cent. The Americans are mostly found in the railroad service, in the cigar manufacture, in the iron-moulding and gas and steam-fitting trades. The Germans are mostly bakers, brewers, bricklayers, masons, carpenters, cabinet-makers, coopers, furriers, harness-makers, metal-workers, and wagon-makers. Curiously enough, however, hardly any of them are found among the sailors on the lakes. The Irish abound in the railroad service, especially the freight-handling, and among the bricklayers, stone-masons, plasterers, butchers, seamen, salt-workers, and printers, but make no great figure as hod-carriers; the Germans strange to say, having secured the lion's share of that calling. The Scandinavians, as might be expected, furnish most of the sailors on the lakes; "the hollow oak" is still their favorite abode.

The Report finds a very platitudinous but probably correct explanation of the paucity of the Americans in the trades in the disinclination of the American to settle down for life in any one calling, and in his strong desire to escape at the first moment from all manual labor properly so called, and engage in clerical work or "trading," in which, partly through education and partly through inherited quick-wittedness, he has a decided advantage over foreigners. He has, too, they might have added, a decided reluctance to engage in prolonged disputes, like strikes, over any business matter. His disposition is to drop quickly what does not seem likely to turn out profitable, and try something else—a trait which the directors of fraudulent banks and railroads find to their advantage, because it prevents the embittered legal pursuit to which they are sometimes exposed in England. The American stockholder, when he finds himself duped or betrayed, always prefers "selling out" to fighting. The American mechanic exhibits the same peculiarity. He does not care for an occupation in which he has to keep striking to get his due.

The fact which the Illinois Report brings out, however, that the Americans constitute 45 per cent. of the members of that more miscellaneous body, the Knights of Labor, of whom there are 33,544 in Illinois, is probably correctly explained by the Report in saying that, "though the order is really composed in the main of working people who have a common interest in maintaining wages, the more universal bond is doubtless the promotion of certain measures of public policy upon which men may readily unite who would have no status in a mere trades-union." The notion that wage-earners "have a common interest in maintaining wages," is of course as absurd as are a great many of the Commissioners' notions. It cannot be each man's interest that every other man should be highly paid. They might as well say that all consumers had a common interest in keeping up prices. But it is doubtless true that a large proportion of the Ameri-

can Knights look on the organization as something in the nature of a political party like the Grangers. We saw something of the same kind in this city last fall, when thousands undoubtedly voted for Henry George who had no sympathy with his land theories, for the simple purpose, as they thought, of protesting against "Machine rule" and breaking it up.

"THE RULE OF HONOR."

A LETTER from an "Anti-Gladstoneite" Englishman, in the *Evening Post* of Saturday, is interesting in many ways, but principally as an illustration of the queer twist, as we consider it, which the anti-Gladstoneite mind in England has undergone, through its excitement over the Irish question, and on which (as illustrated in the case of Lord Hartington) Mr. Gladstone, in his speech before the Eighty Club, commented with much severity Lord Hartington, who throughout this crisis has been posing, in the eyes both of friends and foes, as a model English gentleman, has accepted two current Tory assumptions. One is, that all charges printed in the *Times* have to be treated with respect, because of the generally high character of the paper and large amount of capital dependent on its maintaining this character. The other is, that an offer to prove it in a court of law, and a refusal to produce proof of it anywhere else, is all that can be asked of an honorable man who makes a charge against private character.

The demand made on behalf of the *Times* we shall not discuss. It will be received with a smile everywhere out of England, and everywhere in England outside anti-Gladstonean circles. The *Times* is a very respectable newspaper, but the reverence of Englishmen for it is one of the amusing local superstitions. It would be more amusing if it were not that it is part and parcel of the glamour which surrounds anonymous journalism in all countries where it exists. The truth is, and it is a truth which is very clear when stated, that the *Times* is just as honorable and as wise as the editor, a young gentleman named Buckle, until a year or two ago quite obscure, and as the chief proprietor, an elderly gentleman named Walter, neither of them in any way elevated above the rest of the community in character or talents. If the claims made for the *Times* on the trust and confidence of the community, when making passionate attacks on the private character of political opponents, were made in behalf of Messrs. Buckle and Walter, as they ought to be, they would convulse people with laughter.

But this opens a field of discussion on which we do not propose to enter now. What most interests us is the notion, that the offer of Messrs. Buckle and Walter to prove the authenticity of the Parnell letter in a court of law is the only offer they are bound to make, and justly leaves Parnell, pending its acceptance, under suspicion. This, we say, is a complete reversal of the rule of honor, in fact a complete novelty in the ethics of gentlemen, as Mr. Gladstone intimated in the speech to which we have already referred. It is a notion which probably has grown out of the importance attached in most disputes about property or crime to what is called "legal evidence," and which, in Anglo-Saxon countries, lawyers are apt to talk of, and laymen to accept, as if it were the only evidence with which the human mind is competent to deal. The truth is, that it is not evidence at all in the full logical sense; or rather it is evidence which in Anglo-Saxon countries is greatly restricted in order to adapt it to the capacity of jurors. The law of evidence is mainly a body of rules intended to prevent certain facts from getting before juries which they would not be competent to weigh, and the judge is charged with the enforcement of these rules. Hence great importance has come to be attached by lawyers, and people who live much with lawyers, to evidence being "legal" in order to give it value. Many of them have recently held that even a legislative inquiry, such as that which took place in the matter of the Aldermanic "boodle," should only have been pursued through "legal evidence," as if the affairs of life, either in politics or business, could possibly be carried on without constant disregard of the rules of legal evidence by everybody who attempts to make any plan for the future, or form a working judgment about either persons or things.

The respect for "legal evidence" leads naturally enough to the idea that a court of law is the only place in which a charge can be examined, and its truth or falsehood ascertained. The truth is, however, that a jury is really, as everybody knows, everywhere an indifferent tribunal for the investigation of any charge against character. But a trial at law gives both of the parties the power to compel the attendance of witnesses and the production of documents, and gives the proceeding the superintendence of a judge, which makes it, especially for all complicated transactions requiring a great deal of proof, in a large number of cases the best available method of investigation. There would, for instance, probably be no better way of examining the charges made by the *Times*, in the articles entitled "Parnellism and Crime," against the whole Irish party, than through the Select Committee of the House of Commons, which has been refused, although the charges have been steadily used by the majority in debate to discredit the Irish members.

But the Parnell letter is a different matter. Here the question is simply whether a signature of Parnell's is genuine or not. The body of the letter is not in his handwriting. In the intercourse of all honorable men in civilized countries, a man's repudiation of a signature imposes on the person who offers it as proof against him, the burden of at once giving his reasons for believing it to be genuine. If the accuser says he will not produce them now, but next spring, or next fall, and in the meantime continues to use the signature for the detriment of the alleged signer, he is among gentlemen all over the world, so far as we know, considered a scoundrel. This is, in fact, the reproach to which Messrs. Buckle and Walter lay themselves open. Their offer to produce their proofs in a court of law if Parnell will bring a suit, is an offer to produce them next autumn or next spring on the expenditure by Parnell of some thousands of pounds. No such suit as is proposed could be tried before next November at the earliest. It would probably not be tried before next February or March. In the meantime the imputation on Parnell's character as a man and a politician would have done its work. Suppose A were a candidate for a place of honor and profit, and the appointment was to be made in July, and B, a rival or enemy, were to produce a letter with a signature resembling his, revealing complicity in a disgraceful transaction, and the candidate repudiated it, what would be said in any company of gentlemen to the holder of the letter who answered, "How this letter came into my hands, to whom I suppose it to have been addressed, and what are my reasons for thinking A wrote it, or for disbelieving his denial, I decline to state. He can sue me if he pleases, and then I will tell all, some time next winter. In the meantime I will act and talk precisely as if he had acknowledged it to be his—that is, as if the very highest proof of its genuineness were in the possession of the public"?

We venture to say that few, if any, men living in decent social circles ever had an experience of this kind, except with a blackmailer or confidence man. Most men who had such an experience would, if in good health, at first blush be disposed to treat the case with a cudgel—all the sooner if B cried out that he knew the letter was genuine because the writer was such a bad man. The whole affair of the Parnell letter is, in fact, as disgraceful an incident as has ever occurred in English politics—as disgraceful to "journalism" as to society.

QUESTIONS FOR THE JUBILEE.

LONDON, April 21, 1887.

AT the centre of that curious fabric of laws, customs, and institutions which we call the English Constitution lies a mystery. The unknown element of political life in England is the Crown. Parliament, as Bagehot has pointed out, has inquired into many things, but no committee has ever sat, or, while the Constitution lasts, will sit, to inquire into the conduct of the Queen. To an English monarch is ascribed by law not only real irresponsibility, but fictitious sovereignty. One result of this has been little noted. As every act of state is done in the royal name, and as in many acts of state the Queen has no more personal concern than has, say, the Archbishop of Canterbury, no one really knows what, if any, are the matters really determined more or less in accordance with the royal will. Hence, no one, except a few statesmen who know the innermost life of the court or the best-kept secrets of the Cabinet, can with any certainty determine what have been the acts, the feelings, or the influence of the lady who has nominally ruled England for half a century. But if you do not know a person's actions or sentiments, you do not know his character. The veil which shrouds the official life of the Queen has also, in spite of the self-revelations afforded by her books, also concealed from public view much of her own personality.

At some future day Victoria will, no doubt, be as well known to historians as is George III. But, for the moment, she is less fully known to her subjects than any other person who has played a part on the stage of political life. Of her conduct and wishes there are and always have been rumors. Hints are dropped that she likes one Premier or dislikes another. It is whispered that her personal intervention facilitated the passage of the last Reform Act, and it is hinted that she

favored a policy which was near bringing England to a war with Russia. But to outsiders like myself—and almost every Englishman is an outsider as regards secrets of state—these reports remain rumors and nothing more. They may rest on the highest authority, but the "highest authority" is a personage on whose word no man of sense would risk a penny. The apparent publicity of political life in England makes us forget the reserve maintained by statesmen of all parties with regard to the mysteries of the Cabinet, and no Cabinet secret is so sacred as secrets affecting the Queen.

Hence, when England is just about to celebrate the fiftieth anniversary of Queen Victoria's accession, there are a host of questions about the Queen to which intelligent curiosity would desire an answer, but which hardly admit of a satisfactory or certain reply. Three of these inquiries occur to me as worth a few minutes' consideration. Is the Queen popular? What, to judge from history, has been her capacity as a ruler? What influence has her character had on the constitutional history of England?

The popularity of the Queen is, of course, in one sense past a doubt. To whatever part of Great Britain she goes, she is certain of a warm welcome from her subjects. Were she to visit the colonies she would be received with enthusiasm, and (though your readers are on this point far better judges than I) her appearance in the United States would, I conjecture, be welcomed with rapture by all classes of Americans except your Irish citizens. Nor is this personal popularity to be deemed a small thing. It is the result of a life which has, in the eyes of the English people on both sides the Atlantic, been felt to be entitled to respect. Since the death of Queen Anne no occupant of the English throne has commanded as widespread respect among the English people. William IV. was for a short time the "patriot King," but for that brief period he was the hero of a party, and when he ceased to be applauded as a reformer he did not gain any wide esteem with the nation. Of George IV. there is no need to say anything. His father, no doubt, commanded a kind of influence which has never fallen to Queen Victoria. The "good old King" was a real power, but by a large party he was at all times hated. His two predecessors were to the English people unattractive foreigners. Flattery itself would have hesitated to call them popular, lest servility should be mistaken for irony. But when one has allowed to the full for the importance and rarity of general esteem gained by the display of private virtues, the inquiry still remains, whether the Queen is popular in the sense in which a ruler is so called whose wishes have, because they are his wishes, weight with his people.

Would it, for instance, affect the public fortunes of a statesman that he was supposed to have spoken disrespectfully of the Queen? Would the public knowledge of the Queen's personally favoring or opposing the cause of home rule greatly strengthen the hands, as the case might be, of Mr. Gladstone or of Lord Salisbury? The more carefully a critic meditates upon the uncertainties of public opinion, the more doubtful will be his answer to these inquiries. In matters which touch the Queen personally, large classes would, it may be suspected, feel that her wishes ought to command deference. What might be her influence on the results of a doubtful political contest, no man would venture to predict. We here approach a subject to which the attention of your readers has more than once been called in your columns. If Englishmen are in the dark about the character of their nominal sovereign, they are equally in the dark about the character of their real sovereign, namely, the mass of the electors of Great Britain and Ireland. What do the artisans, what do the agricultural laborers, think about the Crown? Are they irritated by the expensiveness of a court, or do they, as Mr. Bagehot seems to have suspected, admire the showy parts of the Constitution? At the present moment, the question has a purely speculative interest. It may within half a century become of pressing importance. Government by Parliament does not fascinate popular imagination as much as it did when Parliamentary government (which is rather a different thing from government by Parliament) was longed for by all Continental Europe as an escape from all the evils of despotism. And it is at least conceivable that in England a king might at times represent the feeling of the electors better than a House of Commons distracted and weakened by the rivalry of parties which, like the groups in the French Chamber of Deputies, seem each to be just strong enough to prevent the creation of a permanent Government, with power to carry on the affairs of the nation with dignity and consistency. It is pretty clear that, during the reign of Queen Victoria, the problem as to the possible influence of the Crown will, happily for the nation, remain a purely academic inquiry. But whoever could fathom the true sentiment about the Queen now prevailing among the mass of the people, would possess a clue to guide him towards the path which English politics will pursue under her successors.

If any one ask of any ordinary Englishman what has been the Queen's capacity as a ruler, he would probably receive the reply that she has fully performed the duties of a constitutional sovereign. This answer is true enough in itself, but most of the persons who use the well-known formula that the Queen fulfils the duties of a constitutional monarch, hardly realize to themselves exactly what the formula means in the mouth of a modern Englishman. Its real significance is, that the Queen, in the opinion of the speaker, has conformed loyally to the advice of ministers, or, in other words, has shown herself at all times prepared, irrespective of her private feelings, to carry out the policy suggested by the men who had most influence in the House of Commons. How far this has really been the case no one, as I have already pointed out, can know for certain; but, assuming that the general estimate of the Queen's conduct is sound, it implies rather more than people generally realize as to her capacity. It shows that, unless she be endowed with a kind of self-control which is of itself a most rare quality, she must have been a person not very keenly interested in the great party questions of the day. It implies, also, a capacity for acquiescence almost inconsistent with moral or intellectual originality or resource. Englishmen have now made the discovery, when it is too late to be of much practical use, that, had the Queen resided half as much in Ireland as she has lived in Scotland, she might have conferred a great benefit on the nation. This idea, which has dawned on Englishmen with characteristic slowness, was grasped more than sixty years ago by that clever voluptuary George IV. It is difficult to suppose that Her Majesty resisted ministerial suggestions that she should visit Ireland; but it is not unfair to infer, from her own course of action, that she did not perceive the importance of making royalty at least popular with the Irish people. In other words, she has not shown in this matter either acuteness or the possession of what may be called individual initiative. But, though a capacity for acquiescence which must have greatly facilitated the performance of many constitutional duties, is almost inconsistent with high talent, the discharge for fifty years, amid general approval, of the functions allotted to a constitutional ruler proves the possession by the Queen of a great deal more of character and judgment than falls in general to the lot of hereditary monarchs. When matters go smoothly, everybody assumes that it is easy to preserve habitual smoothness. But the old saying that, though there is but one way of doing a thing rightly, the ways of doing a thing wrongly are infinite in number, has a very wide application. The Queen has avoided mistakes, and to have avoided mistakes—that is, to have done the right thing at the right moment—is itself a sign of a very special talent. In one matter, moreover, and in one only, Queen Victoria has displayed originality. She has come forward as the exponent of that sympathy with misery and pity for calamity which is the marked moral characteristic of the age. The letters in which the Queen has expressed her sympathy with persons whose calamities have attracted public notice, have probably done more to spread the legitimate popularity of the Crown than any other act for which she can be called personally responsible.

From no monarch who has sat on the English throne does the Queen differ more essentially than from each of the two women with whom her name is most naturally associated. Yet it is, I think, something more than a fancy that Queen Elizabeth, Queen Anne, and Queen Victoria will each be judged by historians to have rendered, in very different degrees and by very different methods, one and the same service to England. They each have facilitated the passage of the country through a difficult period of transition. The truth of this remark in the case of Elizabeth is certain. When she began her reign, the forces of Protestantism and Catholicism were nearly balanced; when she died, the contest between the two was ended. The singular compromise between the two contending powers embodied in Anglicanism was too firmly established to be in the long run overthrown either by the Papacy or by the Puritans. Queen Anne presided over the transition from a monarchical to a constitutional system of government. The presence of a Stuart on the throne suspended the activity of the Jacobites, and smoothed over the difficulties which might well have hindered the union with Scotland. Queen Victoria ascended the throne within a few years after the Reform Act had undermined the aristocratic system of government without establishing a democratic constitution. Each year which has since then elapsed has brought us nearer and nearer to a pure democracy. The transformation from aristocracy to democracy is now all but complete. That it has been accomplished peaceably, by degrees—almost, one may say, imperceptibly—is certainly due in a measure to the fact that the transition has taken place when, by the good fortune of England, we have had on the throne, not a king in whom acquiescence might have seemed wanting in dignity, but a Queen who could let the powers of the Crown be lessened or effaced without sacrificing any claim to respect. AN OBSERVER.

Correspondence.

THE LOUISIANA LOTTERY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your paper of the 28th of April, you indicted the whole people of Louisiana, and there are two counts in your indictment:

(1.) The large number of saloons alleged by the Prohibitionists, who will not help the temperate and sensible people to pass the high-license law.

(2.) The Louisiana Lottery reëstablished by the Constitution of 1879.

Will you permit me to place the responsibility for the lottery where it belongs, and that is, on the Republican party? The Constitution of

Louisiana of 1845, article 116, and that of 1852, article 113, prohibited lotteries and buying and selling lottery tickets, and from 1845 to 1864 it was a criminal offence in Louisiana to draw a lottery or to buy or sell a lottery ticket. When Gen. Sheridan, with the aid of his Federal soldiers, forced on the people of Louisiana, under the Reconstruction Act of the Republican Congress, the Constitution of 1868 and the Warmoth government, this prohibition was repealed, and among the first acts passed by the Republican Legislature, elected and held in power by Federal bayonets, was an act to incorporate the Louisiana Lottery Company for twenty-five years. During the whole term of Republican rule in Louisiana, from 1868 to 1877, the will of the people of Louisiana was suppressed by the United States Army, which was sustained in its action by the Republican party of the nation, and no effort was made to repeal this charter.

A Democratic Legislature in 1879, Act 44, repealed the charter of the lottery company, and made it a penal offence to buy or sell lottery tickets in this State. The same Legislature called a constitutional convention. The Hon. Edward C. Billings (a New England Republican, a graduate of Harvard, appointed United States Judge by President Grant), on a bill in equity filed by the Louisiana Lottery Company, held that the charter of the lottery company was a contract between it and the State, and the act of 1879, repealing the charter and making it a crime to buy or sell lottery tickets, was in derogation of the Federal Constitution and void; and he enjoined the sheriff, the police, and all State officers from enforcing in any way this criminal statute of the State against the Louisiana Lottery Company or its servants and agents (see 3d Wood's Reports, page 222).

Many people were thus made to believe that the Federal power in the hands of the Republican party would maintain the lottery company in spite of the State law abolishing it. While the injunction was in force, the Constitutional Convention assembled with about 132 members, of which 30 were Republicans. When the lottery article was before the Convention, on a motion to strike it out the votes stood 59 to 59, absent 14. Every Republican voted against the motion to strike out except one, who was absent, and he, on the last and final vote for its adoption, was present and voted for it. On the third and last vote to adopt this lottery article, which reëstablished the Louisiana State Lottery as a contract granted in 1868 and prohibits all lotteries after 1895, the vote recorded 71 ayes, among whom was every Republican except two, and they were absent, and every man of the 52 who voted against the article was a Democrat without exception. An effort was made to allow the people to take a separate vote on this lottery article, and that was likewise defeated by Republican votes. If, therefore, the Republicans had been equally divided, or nearly equally divided, on the lottery article, it would have been defeated. A large majority of the Democratic members of the Convention invariably voted against it.

One clause of the charter of the lottery company, which exempted it from State and municipal taxation, has been recently upheld by the Supreme Court of the United States as a contract, the obligation of which cannot be impaired by the State. (See New Orleans vs. Houston, 119th United States Reports, 265, decided 6th of December, 1886.)

Under these circumstances, I submit that neither the present State Administration nor the people of Louisiana can justly be held responsible for the existence of the lottery.—Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

B. R. Forman.

New Orleans, May 3, 1887.

THE COLOR LINE IN MISSISSIPPI.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a Mississippi court now in session, a negro teacher was indicted for obtaining money on false pretences, viz., reporting more pupils and more teaching days than he had a right to do. The counsel for the defence was a negro; opposing counsel and *all the jury* were white. *The negro won his case.*

That same negro lawyer had a case to-day with a white lawyer as associate counsel.

What a pity, for the negro's sake, that Cleveland was elected! Æ.

THE KENTUCKY STATE CONVENTION AND THE PRESIDENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Kentucky State Convention which has just met is perhaps deserving of some notice, as being the first of a series which will take place before the next national Convention. It is interesting, not from any doubt which hangs over the result, but as expressing with tolerable clearness the attitude of Kentucky Democrats towards the altered conditions of public affairs. In a State as completely withdrawn from the influence of new, elevating ideas as Kentucky undoubtedly is, in a State in which the voice of the younger generation is either silent or lost in the ancient Bourbon chorus, it is curious to note that men still realize, however vaguely, the advent of a new order of things. The interest in the Kentucky Convention, in a word, revolves around its attitude toward the President.

I think I do not overstate the case when I say that no man of eminence in Kentucky has committed himself unequivocally to the Mugwump idea in politics; and in saying this I do not except even Mr. Carlisle, who has, as far as I know, never announced his position on the matter in perfectly unambiguous language. On the contrary, our Congressmen and Senators are notoriously opposed to it. Kentucky is perhaps not wholly to blame for this; its teachers have treated it very ill, the teachers from whom it deserved better things. The mossback reigns in unquestioned supremacy, and the *Courier-Journal* is the accepted idol of the large mass of the Democratic party. Let us give the devil his due: it has vigorously applauded the firm stand of the President against paternal government; his pension veto; his tariff-reform utterances. But, on the other hand, it is besmirched with the taint of every corrupt monopoly in the State, and has disseminated an idea which has done more to brutalize politics and repel the intelligence of the country than any other agency that could be named. It has maligned and maliciously misrepresented the whole civil-service-reform idea; it has congratulated us on every bad appointment the President has made, provided only a Republican gave way to a Democrat; it has insidiously striven to undermine the President, while conscious of atmospheric indications that point to his renomination; and, finally, it keeps at Washington a correspondent who worships at the shrine of the immaculate Higgins, and snarls at the President like an enraged and disappointed cur.

And the platform of the Convention reflects just this state of things. Its endorsement of the President ignores the cardinal feature of his policy; its civil-service declaration is as absurd as ingenuity could make it. And yet, after all—and this is the thing to which I wish particularly to call your attention—the omen is good when a Kentucky politician who still glories in the music of the words "Jeffersonian" and "Jacksonian," realizes that the President, despite the slight resemblance he bears to those now largely mythical heroes, must be renominated. This was clearly the sense of the Convention. They may agree with him or not; they may understand him or not; but they recognize and admit his strength, notwithstanding the fact that it is hard to make his actions harmonize with their traditional notions of a real Democratic President. This recognition strikes me as extremely important; it is, we sincerely hope, the first step towards the comprehension and absorption of his ideas.

A.

Louisville, Ky., May 7, 1887.

WOLSELEY AND LEE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Notwithstanding the comparison suggested between Wolseley and Boulanger, I do not believe that Gen. Walker would maintain that the English soldier whose high reputation and position have been solely the result of professional success, was to be compared with the military politician who has leaped into notoriety by means of the French War Office.

It is hard to differ from so able and courteous an opponent as Gen. Walker, but we should probably not fully agree as to the condition of McClellan's army at Westover, or as to that of Burnside at Fredericksburg, however much we might discuss the question. In his last letter Gen. Walker supports his view of the case by disparaging the testimony of men eminent in the civil and military history of the United States, whose statements were not "opinions," but descriptions of facts by eye-witnesses, or derived from such.

But the point is not there. Lord Wolseley, in an article devoted mainly to other matters, in speaking of the imperfect organization of the American armies and their untrained staffs, referred to Westover and Fredericksburg as instances where these faults prevented Lee from obtaining the full fruits of his success. Lord Wolseley's estimate of the situation is pretty much the same as that, say, of Gen. Hooker in the one case, and of, say, Gen. Palfrey in the other. Gen. Walker takes a different view, and thinks Lord Wolseley wrong. Not only so, but he thinks Wolseley has blundered so inexcusably in following such guides that he speaks of his article as trash unworthy of any one above the grade of subaltern, and of his military criticisms as silly, empty, and vain.

Now, the point Lord Wolseley is illustrating—viz., the defects in organization and especially in the staff service of the armies of both North and South—is one upon which Gen. Walker probably does not differ very widely from Lord Wolseley. These defects were the natural result of the lack of military training among our people. West Point and the other military schools could supply but a small part of the training and experience needed for the thorough management of large armies suddenly called into existence. The remainder had to be got by actual practice in the field. Our armies were therefore very deficient in some respects at first, but improved as the war went on. I entirely agree with Gen. Walker that the former soldiers of both armies should resent unworthy imputations upon the "valor, discipline, and endurance of American soldiers, North and South," but it does not seem to me that Lord Wolseley has made such an imputation. At the first battle of Manassas the ammunition for some Confederate batteries had, in the absence of caissons, to be carried on common farm wagons. I should not think a reference to this clumsy makeshift a reflection upon the Confederate Ordnance Department, nor does the statement of the fact that both sides often suffered during the war from the inexperience of an untrained staff seem to me a disparagement of either of the contending armies.

A word to your Chicago correspondent. I re

gret that I should have done anything to "irritate" a gentleman who informs us that he has become a "sincere admirer and warm friend of the people of the South," but I submit that "E. O.'s" irritation proceeds from some confusion of ideas or of dates. Both "E. O." and myself are now citizens of the United States, and have one country, but it was not so twenty-five years ago. After the beginning of the civil war, Gen. Lee's country was the Confederate States; and when the war ended, he had until his death no other *status* than that of a Confederate prisoner of war on parole. We doubt whether at that time "E. O." considered Gen. Lee his countryman. In discussing Lee's career during the war, it is proper, therefore, to speak of the South as his country, and of ex-Confederates as his countrymen, in a sense very different from any in which these terms could be used of the whole Union. The connection in which these expressions occur in my letter might have shown "E. O." the indelicacy, if not impropriety, of giving them a wider meaning. I have no doubt that many Americans in the North are "proud of Gen. Lee's splendid talents and still more splendid virtues," but I do not believe that the North is willing to adopt Wolseley's estimate of Lee, or that it will do so during this generation. It would, therefore, have been improper to have extended to the whole country a statement which is true enough of the South—even if by so doing one might have avoided irritating "E. O." W. ALLAN.

McDONOGH, MD., May 4, 1887.

COEDUCATION.—A STRAW.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The friends of collegiate coeducation have never claimed, we believe, that it is the best method of education for all women, or that it is yet an ideal system. They *have* asserted that it has its place as well as the separate college for women, and that, as the majority of these latter colleges have been carried on, the tendency of coeducation has been to make women, not of necessity better, but more scholarly. It is at least a significant fact that since the opening of Bryn Mawr College two years ago, the twelve fellowships that have been awarded have without exception been given to graduates of coeducational colleges. It would seem to indicate that until a recent period it has been difficult for a woman to gain as thorough training in a separate college as in one established exclusively for men, and that therefore the urgent petitions of women that the doors of men's colleges should be opened to them have not been wholly unreasonable.—Respectfully, M.

TRANSFORMATION OF SURNAMES.—FINALLY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Last year a young Italian was employed on a farm in this neighborhood. His name was James Fun. On being questioned about his odd surname, he said that in Italy the name of his family was Fano, but soon after his arrival in the United States "the boys" where he worked, hearing him say that he "wished to be American in everything," advised him to change his surname to Fun. He seemed to be proud of the name as of a badge of true American citizenship, and said he should always "go by it." T.

NEWBURGH, April 18, 1887.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have been much interested in reading several letters in the *Nation* relating to the transformation of names. Some years ago I had occasion to look up the history of a family whose names had been changed in a most singular way, as it seems to me. About 1641 a German named Rahmsauer settled in North Carolina. Some of his descendants afterwards removed to Georgia, then to Alabama, then to Mississippi, then to South Carolina, then to Tennessee, then to Arkansas, then to Louisiana, and finally to Texas, where some of them are now living, near Ft. Worth. I found that in something more than two hundred years the family name had undergone the following changes: Ramsauer, Ramsaur, Ramsour, Ramseur, Ramser, Ramsir, Sirram, Ram, Sheep, Lamb.—Respectfully, C.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Thanks to your correspondent who has answered a question that has been a puzzling one for so long—why the family of Darby, who gave its name to the Darbytown Road that crossed the fields of the Seven-Days' Battles around Richmond, should have spelled their name Enroughty. And, as Winchester, Mass., has told us how M. L'Arrivée has translated his name to Cummings, let Winchester, Va., too, add to the record which the *Nation* is making on this subject.

An intelligent French stone-mason, when asked how a Frenchman came to be named Betters, explained that in his native country, Canada, his name had been Le Mieux. C. L. C. M.

WINCHESTER, VA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of April 21, 1887, you cite the remarkable instance of the family name of Enroughty being called "Darby." As a native of Henrico County, Virginia, in which the Enroughty families have lived for generations, I can give you the local explanation of the anomaly. It is related that the first Enroughty who settled in Henrico County became so incensed and resentful at the mispronunciation of his surname—some calling it Enruffty, others Enrooty, and others again Enrowty—that he insisted, whenever spoken to, that he should be called "Darby." It is not stated that he told or was aware of the reason (that his family belonged to the sect called Derbyites) mentioned by the learned divine to whom you refer. Whatever the origin of "Darby," the family has ever been tenacious of the name of Enroughty and equally tenacious of the name of "Darby," and if a stranger should happen to call any of them by any name other than that last given, he would immediately be requested to say "Darby." In all writings, bank accounts, and poll-books—indeed, wherever it is necessary to write the true name—it is spelled Enroughty, but invariably pronounced "Darby." We read, in official reports of the operations of Grant's and Lee's armies below Richmond, of "the battle of Darbytown," but, in truth, the locality was Enroughtytown.

Respectfully yours, GEO. SAVAGE.

412 CATHEDRAL ST., BALTIMORE, May 7, 1887.

Notes.

THE second volume of the Rev. H. W. Foote's 'Annals of King's Chapel' is in the press of Little, Brown & Co., Boston. Meantime from the same firm we have the beautiful volume, 'The Commemoration by King's Chapel, Boston, of the Completion of Two Hundred Years since its Foundation, on Wednesday, December 15, 1886. Also, Three Historical Sermons.' All the arts that go to the making any book good of its kind have been employed here, on a not unworthy occasion. The parish of King's Chapel has stood on the same spot for seven generations, and embraces descendants of a subscriber to the first building two centuries ago. In that long interval it has gone over from Episcopacy to Unitarianism, and it would be hard to anticipate the judgment of a Puritan of Andros's day as to which service was the more abhorrent. The memorial volume is very interestingly illustrated with portraits of provincial Governors, ministers of the church, old views of the Chapel, etc.

The publication of Mr. J. E. Cabot's biography of Emerson is, as Houghton, Mifflin & Co. announce, postponed till the autumn.

Novels being in season, G. P. Putnam's Sons will bring out '7 to 12,' by Anna Katharine Green, and 'Told at Tuxedo,' a series of tales by two writers; Henry Holt & Co., 'Miss Bayle's Romance,' an English tale of a Chicago girl, "with American revisions"; Lee & Shepard, 'Drones' Honey,' by Sophie May, who has hitherto written for a juvenile audience.

Mr. Frederick A. Stokes has bought out the interest of his partners in the late firm of White, Stokes & Allen; a new book-publishing firm, C. W. Moulton & Co., has been established in Buffalo; Dr. Daniel G. Brinton retires from the editorship of the *Medical and Surgical Reporter* of Philadelphia, but will not abandon medical journalism.

"He" and "She"; or, A Point of Honor,' by Mrs. Annie Edwardes, just published by G. W. Dillingham of this city, is an old book issued with a new name—doubtless for the purpose of taking advantage of the popularity of Rider Haggard's 'She.' It was first published a dozen years ago with the title 'A Point of Honor.'

The Messrs. Appleton are issuing, for their Spanish-American trade, a series of books on zoölogy, for primary schools, under the title "El Reino animal para niños." It must have been an oversight that they allowed their editor to print the following (we translate): "Animals are sometimes likened to different people. Porfirio Diaz, on account of his custom of weeping to cover up his evil deeds, is compared to the crocodile, and it is said that his tears are like those of this fierce and deceitful animal." The prospect of a large Mexican sale for this volume would not seem to be bright.

White's 'Selborne,' Raleigh's 'Discovery of Guiana,' and Macaulay's essays on the 'Earl of Chatham,' are the latest additions to Prof. Morley's "National Library" (Cassell & Co.).

A well-conceived 'Vacation Journal: A Diary of Outings from May until November, with Hints and Information for Tourists,' is sent us by A. D. F. Randolph & Co. The information includes the calendar, the moon's phases, the signal-service flags, postal rates, a dictionary of flowers according to their season, the laws of lawn tennis, etc. Poetical selections usher in each day. The volume is daintily got up.

The well-known work of Karl Marx, 'Das Kapital,' has been translated into English and is published here by Scribner & Welford. Although spoken of in Europe as "the Bible of the working classes," it might better be compared with the Talmud. It is incredible that more than one workman in a thousand, even among the German Socialists, should have read it through, to say nothing of understanding it; and when we consider that these two volumes constitute but a third of the whole work, it seems probable that its doctrine must always remain of a highly esoteric character. The platforms of the "Labor" party embody the more practical of Marx's conclusions; as to the premises from which they are derived, so far as they have a logical derivation, they are obtained by confounding capital with money, and assuming that men would risk their accumulations without any expectation of profit.

Marx was not without wit, and his scurrility diffuses a certain lurid light over his otherwise dreary pages. Those who are curious concerning his life and his disciples may be referred to three letters, by the late Friedrich Kapp, which appeared in vol. xxvii of the *Nation*, pp. 81, 95, and 114.

The Rev. Samuel Orcutt, an indefatigable writer of town histories, offers as his latest production a 'History of the Old Town of Stratford and the City of Bridgeport, Conn.' In nearly 1,400 pages he has brought together a great mass of material in a rather confused and fragmentary form, but relating to nearly everything of interest or importance in the town. There are biographical sketches of all the early settlers and the more prominent citizens down to the present time, as well as valuable lists of the inscriptions in the various graveyards. The last 300 pages are devoted to genealogies, for which the editor acknowledges his indebtedness to the labors of the Rev. B. L. Swan. Stratford originally included the city of Bridgeport and the towns of Huntington, Trumbull, and Monroe, accounts of all of which are given in this work. That of Bridgeport is largely made up of descriptions of the various manufactories of the place, which read almost too much like advertisements for a history, and considerable space is also naturally given to the enterprises of Mr. P. T. Barnum. There are numerous portraits, of the marked American type, illustrations, and plans, and an excellent index. A word of praise should also be given to the typographical execution of this work, which is far above that of most of its class.

Dr. Wilhelm Bernhardt is editing for D. C. Heath a series of 'German Novelettes' (*Deutsche Novelletten-Bibliothek*), designed to furnish a convenient supply of short material for rapid reading by those who have mastered the elements of the language. The form is convenient, and the notes will be appreciated; but it is a pity that the publishers reconciled themselves to type at once Gothic and of so trying a size.

The license of book-auctioneers in mixing lots sometimes leads to unpleasant juxtapositions. We have before us a "Catalogue of a Portion of the Libraries of the late Rev. Convers Francis and his Sister, Lydia Maria Child, . . . together with Selections from Another Private Library." Scattered through this are a number of erotic titles, of the class euphemistically known to the trade as "Facetiæ," and which could be quite unerringly picked out as derived from "Another Private Library." But is it fair to the reputation of Mrs. Child and her brother to leave room for the suspicion that their collections contained such disreputable publications?

A circulating library of music has been undertaken in connection with the Brooklyn Library, and has proved to meet a real want in that music-loving community. Its composition and working are described by Mr. W. A. Bardwell in the *Library Journal* for April.

A pleasing portrait of Mrs. Cleveland serves as a frontispiece to the *Magazine of American History* for May, and accompanies an article by Mrs. Lamb on the successive ladies of the White House, as many of whom as possible are pictured. A girlish likeness of Mrs. Cleveland is also given in the *Photographic Times* for May 6, and it has not only the charm of youth and beauty, but a peculiar interest as a very successful example of "process engraving." We do not remember any portrait so well rendered as this by purely mechanical lines.

A. Battistella reviews, in a late number of the Milan *Perseveranza*, a translation of selections from Walt Whitman's verse by Prof. Luigi Gamberale ('Canti scelti di Walt Whitman: Versione e prefazione.' Milan, 1887). We judge from this notice that Gamberale's admiration of the American bard is tempered by a recognition of his shortcomings, but that his reviewer has an even juster sense of the true state of the case. The translation is praised.

The *Perseveranza*, by the way, which has, we may be permitted to think, fallen off in literary interest since Bonghi was at the helm, has begun publication of a supplementary *Rivista Scientifico-Letteraria*, in quarto form. In the first number Prof. Cognetti De Martiis introduces with approval to the Italian public Henry George's 'Protection or Free Trade'; an anonymous writer compares Tennyson and Gladstone, apropos of the new 'Locksley Hall' and the ex-Premier's comment on it; Tolstoi and Dostoyevsky are the theme ably presented by "I. B."; Prof. G. Cattaneo discusses "The New Biology"; there is a short story by Memini, etc.—a well-assorted and entertaining table of contents, meriting a more ambitious typography.

That delightful journal of folk-lore and mythology, *Mélusine*, so ably conducted by H. Gaidoz and E. Rolland, is rounding its tenth year, not, however, without a suspension, which accounts for its being only in its third volume. Last year there sprang up beside it the *Revue des Traditions Populaires*, organ of the Société des Traditions Populaires. It bears on its pink cover a Mother Goose summoning her flock, and this symbol, somewhat curtailed, accompanies the regular news item concerning the monthly *dîner de "Ma Mère l'Oye."* It would be hard to draw a line between the matters appropriate to the *Revue* and to *Mélusine*, and we can only hope that the competition of the newer periodical does not injuriously affect the pioneer.

It is well known that the *privilège* for the creation of the Opéra Français was granted in 1671 to the poet Perrin and the musician Cambert and their associates. It has always been believed that they were fraudulently despoiled of this *privilège* in 1672 by the composer Lulli. Now it seems to be established that in reality the *privilège* was fairly bought by him. The March-April number of the *Revue Historique* contains the information that MM. Charles Nuitter and Ernest Thoinan have discovered in the National Archives and those of the Prefecture of Police, and in the *études* of various notaries, all the documents necessary to complete the history of the foundation of the Opéra in the seventeenth century, and the part taken in it both by Perrin, who was constantly in debt and in prison, and by Lulli, who, it would now seem, has been unjustly accused of robbing him of it for the past 200 years.

The Faculty of Letters of Lyons is about to begin the issue of a *Bibliothèque* for the publication of independent works, instead of the *Revue* which it has issued for two years past. The works announced as in press are 'Neuchâtel et la politique prussienne en Franche-Comté 1702-1713,' by E. Bourgeois; 'La Chanson de Roland, traduction archaïque et rythmée,' by L. Clédat; 'Correspondance et mémoires inédits de M. de Biran,' by A. Bertrand.

The tenth, eleventh, and twelfth fascicules of the 'Causeries d'un ami des livres,' by M. L. Derome, have just appeared, thus completing the work, which now forms two very handsome volumes. A short time ago we gave a full account of the earlier numbers of this publication upon the original editions of the *Romantiques*. The three last published are entitled: 'Michelet et la décadence de l'histoire romantique'; 'L'aile droite de l'école romantique'; 'Eclectiques et Romantiques.' There is also a curious appendix devoted to the lost or suppressed works of Alfred de Musset.

M. Ferraz has recently published the third and last volume of his 'Histoire de la philosophie en France au xixe siècle' (Paris: Perrin). This volume is entitled 'Spiritualisme et libéralisme.' An idea of its extent and direction may be obtained from the following names, which are placed by the author upon the title-page for that purpose: Mme. de Staël, Laromiguière, Maine de Biran, Ampère, Royer-Collard, De Gerando, Cousin, Jouffroy, Guizot, Ch. de Rémusat, Adolphe Garnier, Émile Saisset. The first volume of the work was 'Socialisme, naturalisme et positivisme,' the second, 'Traditionalisme et ultramontanisme.' Only the octavo edition of the last volume is published as yet, but the others are issued also in 18mo.

The large folio edition of the 'Récits des temps mérovingiens' of Augustin Thierry, with the fine illustrations of J.-P. Laurens, which has been published by Hachette in numbers, one *récit* at a time, is well known. The same house has now issued another edition in a single quarto volume, in which the original designs are reproduced by the Poirel process. This process softens and, as it were, throws a slight veil over the reproductions, while it preserves fully the character of the originals. The *Revue Historique* praises the "scrupulous archæological exactitude" of the designs, and also their "sentiment profond de l'histoire et des mœurs mérovingiennes."

The veteran Belgian scholar, Kervyn de Lettenhove, has recently published the fifth volume of his 'Relations politiques des Pays-Bas et de l'Angleterre sous le règne de Philippe II.,' quarto (Bruxelles: Hayez). The present volume embraces the first part of the administration of the Duke of Alva (September, 1567–September, 1570).

The Harvard Summer School of Physics will open at the Jefferson Laboratory on July 12, if there is a demand for it. To determine this demand, or to obviate it, a pamphlet 'Descriptive List of Experiments in Physics' has been issued, to indicate the course contemplated for admission to Harvard on elementary experimental physics. This is the first practical step towards aiding the preparatory schools to fulfil a very difficult task. Application for admission to the proposed school should be made to Dr. E. H. Hall, 5 Avon Street, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

—We have expressed so much admiration of M. de Laveleye's 'La Péninsule des Balkans' (*Nation*, No. 1112), and have so warmly recommended it to our readers as a guide in the intricate field of East-European ethnography and politics, that we shall not be suspected of fondness for carping if we emphatically object to the manner in which it has been introduced to the English public ('The Balkan Peninsula,' translated by Mrs. Thorpe and published in America by G. P. Putnam's Sons). Passing over the inflated title-page, we must condemn the translation as most hastily and carelessly done, and unworthy of the original. Evidently the translator's knowledge of either language was not at fault, but she probably had to do her work too rapidly to allow reflection or revision. That the book was "edited and revised for the English public by the author," of course implies no close examination and comparison of phrase after phrase, and it surely was not the Belgian economist's task to correct verbal errors or to establish rules of English transliteration. He very likely only examined the work "in its new form" to prevent its being distorted in sense and tenor in the process of reducing the two volumes of the original narrative to the compass of the present one. We would fain grant "a lenient judgment in the matter of transliteration, upon which scholars are little agreed," but how could we excuse such a medley of English, French, and barbarous forms as we find pressed together (on pp. 141, 142, 291, 300) in speaking of the Wallach race; "Valaks," "Valaques," "Wallacks,"

"Tzintzars," "Tzintzares," "Wallack Tzintzares," "Valaque Tzuntzares"? The compound forms stand, besides, for Tzintzar Wallachs (Fr. "Valaques-Tzintzares"). Of otherwise inaccurate or unidiomatic renderings we may point out, in a few connected pages opened at random, "The Slavonish-Brod," for Slavonian Brod, or Brod-in-Slavonia (p. 72); "buffaloes and sheep," as translation of "des troupeaux de buffles et de chèvres" (p. 75); and the sentences beginning with "The saddle" (p. 70) and "Shepherds" (p. 75). And yet, even in this version, the book is well worth reading, rereading, and possessing. An additional chapter by the author, on "The Present Position of Bulgarian Affairs," and a fine map of the Balkan Peninsula, enhance its value.

—The Rev. Prof. B. B. Warfield, D.D., late of the Theological Seminary at Allegheny, Pa., and now of Princeton, has recently published in the series of manuals known as "The Theological Educator," instituted by the editor of the *Expositor*, 'An Introduction to the Textual Criticism of the New Testament' (New York: T. Whittaker). The author intends his treatise as "a primer to the art of textual criticism rather than to the science," and as preparatory to the fuller works on the subject, such as Dr. Hort's 'Introduction' and Dr. Gregory's 'Prolegomena to Tischendorf.' There is room for just such a work, for Dr. Hort's 'Introduction' is hard reading, and some students may be repelled by it. Prof. Warfield's little book consists of 225 pages, small octavo, divided into four chapters, which discuss the matter, methods, praxis, and history of criticism. Of these, the second, comprising nearly one-half of the book, is the most important, and is a working over, in a more popular and attractive form, of Dr. Hort's 'Introduction,' Part 2. Those who are familiar with Prof. Warfield's paper on "The Genealogical Method," contributed to Dr. Schaff's 'Companion to the Greek Testament and the English Version,' will find a fuller exposition of this method in the present work, and especially a clear treatment of mixture in manuscripts, which causes so much trouble in the effort to sift readings and to determine the text of the autograph. Excluding the Syrian text—that of most of the cursives, and hence of the so-called Textus Receptus—as it "was made by a revision out of the other three classes, and preserves nothing from antiquity not already in them," the Neutral and the Alexandrian texts are now arranged "as two great sub-classes of a greater class, including them both and standing over against the Western," which last is "the most corrupt of all known forms," while the Neutral is the most correct and the Alexandrian holds an intermediate position (pp. 158–160). It will thus be seen that the author is a follower of Dr. Hort. The last chapter may be characterized as very meagre, and Prof. Warfield might have enlarged it to advantage. Also, the subdivision of the chapters into paragraphs, with distinctive headings, and the addition of an index, would have facilitated the use of the book.

—George Cabot Ward, who died on May 4, after a long illness, was born in Boston sixty-three years ago. He was the son of Mr. Thomas Wren Ward, who more than seventy years ago came from Boston to this city, and, with his relative, the late Jonathan Goodhue, founded the firm of Goodhue & Ward, afterwards so well known as Goodhue & Co. In 1817 he returned to Boston, and ten years later became the American agent of Baring Bros. This agency was exclusively conducted by him until his death, when it devolved upon his son, Mr. Samuel G. Ward. George Cabot Ward was graduated at Harvard, and subsequently studied at Heidelberg, and, after a voyage round the world in a sailing ship, a rare experience in those days, settled in New York and founded the firm of Ward & Campbell, afterwards known as Ward, Campbell & Co. It contained at one time one of the Baring family, but was never, as has been stated, the agent of Baring Brothers. Mr. Ward withdrew from it in 1869, to share with his elder brother, Samuel Gray, who had moved to this city from Boston, the Baring agency, which continued in their hands until George Cabot's illness, when both brothers surrendered it, in January, 1885. George Cabot was, when the war broke out, in 1861, one of the most active and energetic supporters of the Government in this city. He was one of the founders of the Union League Club, its President for one term, and its Treasurer until the decline of his health. He was also one of the Governors, and, we believe, Treasurer, of the New York Hospital, Treasurer of the American Freedman's Aid Society, one of the trustees and most devoted and valuable friends of the Children's Aid Society, and a Director of the Bank of Commerce and of the Union Trust Company. In fact, he was one of the men who are always ready "to pay with their person" for any worthy public object, and, although of a singularly modest and retiring, and one might almost say self-distrustful, disposition, had trusts and responsibilities imposed upon him without stint. He was a man of extraordinary simplicity of character, and had a rare capacity for devotion to the interests of his friends as well as those of the public. His reading was very extensive, and his love of speculation in the field of transcendental philosophy often gave an air of quaintness and abstraction to his conversation which made one wonder that a business life in this city should ever have been to his taste. He took a great interest in the establishment of the *Nation* in the year 1865, and perhaps had more to do with putting it on a firm financial footing than any other one person. The memories of the war made him a very good Republican down to his last illness, but in no way diminished his sympathy with all efforts in the direction of purer politics. His death deprives New York of one of her most valuable citizens, and one of a type which the existing conditions of business do not foster either in politics or in society.

—The *Bibliothèque Universelle et Revue Suisse* for April contains the first of a series of "Études de littérature américaine," by M. Remy de Gourmont. The writer has begun these studies at the point which offers the greatest difficulty to a stranger to the country and its people, with "L'humour et les humouristes," which is the subtitle of his article. Irving, Haliburton, and Holmes are the writers examined in the present paper, with much moderation and fairness of temper, but with the inevitable failure to seize just the right shade of character and of expression which sometimes makes the observations of foreign critics such very amusing reading. M. Édouard Sayous, who wrote for his thesis for the doctor's degree in 1866 "La France de Saint Louis d'après la poésie nationale," has returned to his early affections in "La Croisade de Constantinople," which was begun in the *Revue* for March. The learning and research in these papers are carefully concealed, and it must be a very matter-of-fact person indeed who would not be carried on to the end by the easy and picturesque narrative. The profane in such matters do not always enjoy Villehardouin and the other chroniclers whom M. Sayous has here condensed for their benefit, and the most frivolous student in these scientific days is ashamed to absorb the Middle Ages through the romances of Walter Scott as the happier reader of the past once did; but perhaps the thought of the less entertaining work of M. Sayous in the *Revue Historique* may reconcile such a one to the enjoyment he cannot help finding in this "Croisade de Constantinople." Among the other noticeable articles is the second and concluding part of M. Honoré Mereu's "Destruction de Rome"—that is, its renovation now in progress. In this the writer is more generous to the renovators than his title would imply, though he is by no means sparing in his blame of either the Roman municipality or its critics, of whom the most violent could not be more severe in their judgments than M. Mereu shows himself at times.

—The Société de l'Histoire du Protestantisme Français has been publishing in its Bulletin during the present year a series of documents accompanied by notes in regard to the burial of Protestants in Paris in the last century. These transcripts are the more valuable inasmuch as the original registers from which they were taken perished at the burning of the Hôtel de Ville. For some years after the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes it appears, from a contemporaneous account, to have been the custom to bury Protestants, both natives and foreigners, "dans les champs," the bodies being taken out by night and put where a place could be found for them. At length, in 1726, permission was granted for Protestant foreigners who died in France to be buried in certain designated places under strict police surveillance. Among the last who were buried in conformity to this decree was Commodore John Paul Jones, a certificate of whose burial is given in the March number of the Bulletin. From this and the accompanying notes we learn that at the meeting of the National Assembly, July 19, 1792, the day after his death, a letter was read from his friend Col. Blackden, to the Commissioner of the Police of the district in which Jones had died, asking that he might be buried without expense, "in consequence of a formality yet existing with respect to Protestants." This letter excited much indignation in the Assembly, and a member cried out, "I demand that in order to consecrate the freedom of religion the Assembly send a deputation to the funeral of Paul Jones," a proposition which was immediately adopted. Twelve of the Assembly, including the notorious Bishop Gay-Vernon and a priest, escorted by a detachment of the gendarmerie, attended the burial, which took place the next evening at eight o'clock.

—The funeral of Józef Ignacy Kraszewski, the Polish novelist and miscellaneous writer, which took place a few weeks ago in Cracow, was accompanied by as fervid and general manifestations of sympathy on the part of his compatriots as those which characterized the celebration in the same city, in the autumn of 1879, of the semi-centennial anniversary of the opening of his literary career. In fact, both celebrations were political demonstrations, but half-disguised. The admiration of Kraszewski as an author is universal among Poles, it is true with varying degrees of intensity. He is by far the most prolific of Polish writers, and the 500 volumes of novels, novelettes, historical and travelling sketches, poems, etc., etc., which have flowed from his facile pen have served to amuse, enlighten, and educate two generations; but none of his works is really classical, and Polish literary history will assign him a place below such names as Krasicki, Niemcewicz, Mickiewicz, Slowacki, or Krasinski. It was the indefatigable worker in the interest of the Polish nationality who was glorified at Cracow by myriads of patriotic enthusiasts from all parts of ancient Poland and elsewhere, both in 1879 and 1887. The demonstrations differed only in this, that the first was directed against Russian oppression, which drove Kraszewski into voluntary

exile in 1863, and the second against Germany, which punished his patriotic indiscretions by imprisonment in a fortress in the last years of his life. This difference also decided the attitude of the Austro-Hungarian Government towards the celebrations. The martyr of Russia was treated by the Galician authorities, under directions from Vienna, with effusive attentions; not only was the martyr of Bismarck officially ignored, but the addresses in his honor were subjected to a rigid censorship.

LOFTIE'S LONDON.

London. By W. J. Loftie, B.A., F.S.A. [Historic Towns. Edited by Edward A. Freeman and the Rev. William Hunt.] London. 1887. 8vo, pp. viii, 223.

"THE towns to be treated in these volumes," says the prospectus of Messrs. Longman, "will, as far as possible, be selected with reference to the special part each played in the general history of the kingdom. . . . The object of this series, in dealing with such towns and groups of towns as may be chosen for illustration, will be mainly to bring out the general historic position of each. The purely local history of each place, municipal and ecclesiastical, while not neglected, will be dealt with chiefly as it throws light on its general position."

We are glad to see that the author of the first volume of this series diverges from the course prescribed by the above announcement, in that he places the internal municipal history of London in the foreground. Most of the books devoted to the past of particular English towns emphasize the "general historic position" of the latter; very few of them present a clear account of the constitutional development of an English municipality. In this direction England has much to learn from other countries of Europe, especially from Germany and France.

The first chapter of Mr. Loftie's work is entitled "London before Alfred." Its essence is contained in the following extracts:

"Indeed, the two chief events in the history of Roman London, the building of the bridge and the building of the wall, might alone have been mentioned, as they are the only two events of the period which had any permanent effect on its later existence. But for the wall, but for the bridge, Roman London might as well never have been built, so entire is the breach of continuity in the succession of events which follows the invasion of the Saxons" (p. 9). "Except the name of London itself and a fragment of the wall, there is not a trace of the Roman occupation above ground. It rests with those who assert the municipal continuity of Roman and Saxon London to find some sign or proof of it, however slight; but they have failed to do so" (p. 14). "It does not seem to have occurred to any one that exactly a millennium has just elapsed since Alfred founded London. . . . Though we have occasional notices of the existence of London before his time, it is only after 886 that its annals can be written, and it is only from the rudiments of a municipal constitution which Alfred planted, that the mediæval and modern corporation grew" (p. 16).

Though some eminent writers have affirmed the contrary, we believe with Mr. Loftie that there is a want of constitutional continuity between the Roman *municipium* and the mediæval English borough. In his view of the influence of King Alfred, on the other hand, he is guilty of the very fault for which he condemns the advocates of the Roman theory—that is to say, he positively affirms a fact for which he can give no proofs. Here is all that the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle says on the subject: "The same year [886] King Alfred restored [or set in order] (*gesette*) London-borough; and all the Angle race, except those held captive by the Danes, turned to him; and he then committed the borough to the keeping of alderman Ethered." Commentators differ as to the meaning of *gesette* in this passage, but all of them agree in rejecting Mr. Loftie's construction. Nor is there anything in other contemporary or later sources to support his assumption. That Alfred exerted some influence upon the constitution of London is quite probable, but more than this we are not justified in asserting.

In chapter ii, "The Portreeves," Mr. Loftie tries to simplify matters by identifying these officers with the sheriffs, chamberlain, the *justiciarius* of the charter of Henry I., and the later mayor (pp. 29, 34); but in so doing he only makes confusion worse confounded. He has, in fact, added very little to our knowledge of the portreaves; on the contrary, the reader seeking light on the subject in these pages will be confused or misled. The other salient topic in this chapter is the dissolution of the "cnihten-gild" in the reign of Henry I. Here Mr. Loftie is even more at fault than in his treatment of the portreeves. "There can now be no doubt," he remarks on page 30, "if any doubt existed before, that the governing body of London was the Knightenguild, as Stow calls it. . . . In the reign of Henry I. we find the guild in full possession of the governing rights." Its lands, he tells us, constituted "the very endowment of the portreeve" (p. 34). Now this is all pure conjecture; the author does not produce the similitude of a proof in support of these pregnant statements. Almost all that is known concerning this fraternity is that it was probably aristocratic in its composition, that some prominent London citizens were among its members, and that it was dissolved in the reign of Henry I., the brethren giving the lands of the guild to the Holy Trinity Priory. There is nothing to indicate that it was even a minor constituent part of the municipal organism—that it exercised any civic functions whatsoever. Had it been the "governing body" of London, it is highly improbable that it would have voluntarily extinguished itself in the manner described. What we have said holds true, whether we take our data from the City Archives (with which the author has only a very superficial acquaintance) or from Stow, who is Mr. Loftie's main source of information.

Chapter iii, entitled "The Mayors," deals with London in the thirteenth century. The repeated attacks of the King upon the liberties of the citizens are clearly stated, but the account of the constitutional growth of the city is very unsatisfactory. The author has much to say of the struggle between the "communa," or governing gild merchant, and the craft gilds. But the term gild merchant of London never occurs in the sources; and "communa" almost invariably means either the community at large or the commons, the populace. In only one instance was this expression used in an abstract sense, namely, in 1191, after the deposition of William Longchamp, when, we are informed by contemporary writers, the citizens erected a "communa." Instead of attempting to explain just what this meant, Mr. Loftie evades the issue by saying, on p. 39, that "this act was no new establishment of a commune." The struggle that took place in the thirteenth century was simply between the richer citizens, headed by powerful aldermen, and the commons, the *vulgus civitatis*. Mr. Loftie asserts that the gilds "interfered constantly at every election" of Mayor and other officers (p. 66). The fact is, it was the populace. In the 'Cronica Maiorum et Vicecomitum,' the principal source for the study of this period, we invariably find not the gilds, but the "vulgus," the "populus," the "minutus populus," the "populus vocans se communam civitatis," pitted against the "magnates," or the "aldermanni et discreti viri." To identify the gilds with the populace, without corroborative evidence, is as illogical as it would be to promiscuously identify the populace of to-day with the trades-unions. Mr. Loftie has thrown no new light upon the obscure questions of the inception of the London mayoralty and of the status of the London craft gilds in the thirteenth century—their constitution, their functions, and their relations to the civic authorities. Like many other writers on English municipal history, he has warped the truth by introducing into his narrative facts that are true of the development of many Continental towns, but wholly inapplicable to those of England.

Chapter iv, "The Wardens" (*i. e.*, London under the King's Wardens, 1285-1297), is mainly devoted to the early history of the London Wards. The author's strong proclivity to indulge in gratuitous guessing is very conspicuous in this chapter. On almost every page such expressions as "perhaps," "it may be," "it is possible that," "we may presume," etc., meet the eye. He is particularly fond of employing his fancy in the identification and derivation of personal or topographical names. On p. 81, for example, he derives Aldersgate Ward from a hypothetical Ealdred, whose name, he goes on to say, "may well be that of some contemporary of Alfred, perhaps the first settler in the district." Again, on p. 87, he puts forth this query: "Is Hacon the Alderman still commemorated by Hackney?" The author's identification of the Wards of the time of Edward I. with those mentioned in a list of *circa* 1115 is, in great part, idle speculation.

The title of chapter v ("The Municipality") like those of chapters iii and iv, is ill-chosen giving one a very inadequate idea of the contents. "The completion of the municipality" would have been a more appropriate heading, for it treats of the changes that took place in the constitution of London down to the middle of the fifteenth century. "From the middle of the fifteenth century the outward form has been but little altered: the municipality was thenceforth complete, and, with a few minor differences, much what it still is." The civic officers and the livery companies are the principal subjects of discussion, but the history of two important constituents of the civic organism, the sheriffs and the court of aldermen, is passed over in silence. The author frequently speaks of the "livery," telling us, for example, how in 1375 it succeeded to the functions of the ward-motes in the election of the Common Council, but he nowhere accurately defines the "livery" as distinguished from the companies at large. This chapter will certainly not give the uninformed reader a clear idea of the present power and position of the companies in the civic polity. In this and other parts of the book we have observed a tendency of the author to indulge in vague and dubious generalities, which at times seem to be put forth merely to veil a lack of knowledge. At all events, they give rise to unanswered queries. Here are some examples. "Under the three Edwards the mayoralty was still in its infancy; and the rank of 'Henry le Waleys, mayor of the city of London,' whom the citizens elected on the restoration of their electoral rights in 1297, was very different from that of Whittington or Frowick in the fifteenth century" (p. 104). But he does not tell us what the difference was. In fact, there was no material difference. "Among the wardens' reformations it is probable we may count the rule under which the election of the mayor was to be made by the commonalty rather than by the tumultuous assembly of the folk-mote" (p. 107). What is meant here by "commonalty"? Contemporary writers, as we have already pointed out, applied this very term to "the tumultuous assembly of the folk-mote." "Unquestionably the work of Walter Hervey was bearing fruit in the gradual formation of voluntary combinations of traders for the regulation of prices, and in obtaining the recognition of the Guildhall authori-

ties." "We find, however, few, if any, traces of companies formed for the purpose of carrying on trade. The 'mistery' met for a different purpose, and was composed of men who traded each on his own account" (pp. 110, 113). What was this "different purpose"? The distinction between trade-gild, mistery, and company must be anything but clear in Mr. Loftie's own mind; and his ideas concerning their *raison d'être*, their origin, and functions are decidedly hazy. "The point of departure, the place where the history of the country and the town diverges, is the establishment of the communal idea as a working principle," namely, "the right of every free man to a voice in the management of affairs" (p. 118). We have already remarked that it is very misleading to apply the term "commune," or "communal," to the mediæval English town. The primary conception of the "commune" on the Continent was independence from external control in the management of the town government. The participation "of every free man" did not necessarily follow. In fact, it was not until long after the establishment of the "communes" that the government of Continental towns became democratic. Besides, Mr. Loftie forgets that in a preceding chapter (pp. 52-54) he made the "commune" of English towns identical with a "mercantile oligarchy" which had a monopoly of the local government.

Chapter vi, "London and Middlesex," treats of that part of the metropolis not included within the city proper. The author has made what he regards as a great discovery with reference to the signification of Henry I.'s grant of the farm of Middlesex to the Londoners. This was more valuable, he thinks, than any privilege that the latter had ever received from the crown. "It was a proclamation to all England that under the King London was a free city." The people of English towns, he argues, "were in ignorance as to the peculiar liberties of London; and if one came out to tell of them, his words might seem but idle tales; but the farm of Middlesex was a fact which could not be disputed. It was known to all who cared to know anything of English law and civic liberty" (p. 124). This argument, very shadowy in itself, loses all force when we note how inconsistent it is with what the author has elsewhere emphasized, namely, that most English towns received a grant of "the liberties of London" (p. 52), that London was "the municipality on which all the municipalities of England were avowedly or tacitly moulded" (p. 117). The latter statement is incorrect, as London was only one of several radiating centres, or exemplars, of municipal franchises; but there is enough truth in it to render absurd the author's assertion that those very "liberties of London" were "idle words" to the burgesses of England. In all probability the grant of the farm of Middlesex was viewed by the King and the citizens primarily as a simple financial transaction, the latter giving the former £300 a year for the various royal rents and perquisites attached to that county. We should like to see some authority for Mr. Loftie's statement that Kensington, Chelsea, Hackney, and other parts of the metropolis in Middlesex and Surrey, were originally "colonies of the citizens of London" (pp. 134-135). Surely the author might have given us, in this chapter, a brief exposition of the unique and cumbrous machinery by which "the metropolitan area," with its vast congeries of boards and bumbledoms, is governed.

Chapter vii, "The Church in London," consists in great part of a long succession of fatuous conjectures concerning the origin of London parishes. On pp. 154-155 the author makes the following candid admission, which applies to the whole book: "Here, as in so many other points, information fails us, not that ample records do not exist, but that no one has been at the pains of consulting them." Why, instead of indulging in speculative aerial gyrations, did not Mr. Loftie consult these "ample records"? In considering the influences that led to the growth of "London Trade" (Chapter viii) he omits one of the most important, namely, the strength of the English Crown in the Middle Ages. It was this, rather than "the organization of the trades and misteries," that led to internal peace and a sense of security; it was mainly to this, likewise, that we must ascribe "the comparatively peaceful attitude of the craftsmen during the Angevin and Tudor reigns" which the author calls a "very potent element among the causes of London commercial prosperity" (p. 184). The last chapter, "London and the Kingdom," is one of the best in the book, because the author confines himself mainly to the condensation of well-known facts, in doing which he is more efficient than in attempting to add to the sum of knowledge by original research.

There are many errors of fact in Mr. Loftie's work, besides those already noted. We subjoin only a few more. The author betrays a very superficial acquaintance with English municipal history in general. The signification of the Latin *villa* is not confined to "village" (p. 112); it was applied to municipal towns perhaps even more commonly than was the term *burgus*. It is not entirely correct to say that there was a "custom which existed in many English cities to refer municipal disputes to the corporation of London" (p. 179). Where doubt existed as to the construction of municipal laws and privileges, Oxford (and perhaps some other towns at present unknown) sent to London, but only to ask what was the corresponding custom, or usage, in the metropolis. Hereford, Bristol, Newcastle, and other municipal centres were appealed to in the same way. Not a single instance of a gild "receiving a town or city in farm" is known, though Mr. Loftie speaks of it on page 186 as a common practice. The author's philology is sadly in need of mending. The adjective "real" has nothing to do with "royal" (p. 26); nor "tailors" with "telarii," weavers (p. 49); nor "mistery," a craft, a trade, with "mastery" (p. 186). The derivation of the first two are well known: "mistery" is from "ministerium," mediæval Latin for craft. "It may be worth while," he says on page 36, "here to mention that in such a form as 'Henry Fitz Ailwin' or 'Eilward Fitz Wizel,' the 'Fitz' is used for the Latin 'Filius.'" By most readers this will certainly be regarded as carrying coals to Newcastle. But Mr. Loftie is not sure of the truth of the above statement, for on page 64 he writes: "Yet 'Fitz,' if it is indicated by *Filius* in the Latin writers, is growing less and less common." "I do not know," he continues on page 36, "when 'Fitz' became usual in London, but it was before the reign of Henry III." One requires no great knowledge of English history to assure Mr. Loftie that the Fitzes multiplied and flourished in London from the time of the landing of William the Conqueror. "The exact date of the charter [of Henry I. to London] is given by Rymer as 1101" (p. 28). No date is given by Rymer; in the latter's 'Fœdera' this grant is placed between documents of 1132 and 1135. "The great fact of Henry's charter is the recognition of London as a corporation" (p. 32). But on page 124 the author gives us to understand that, after receiving this charter, the burghers were "still unincorporated." The mediæval term "guildable" had nothing to do with gild fraternities (p. 51), but was connected with "gilds," *i. e.*, payments, to the king. Mr. Loftie speaks of an "Act of Parliament" of 1475, giving to the London livery companies "a power which they do not seem to have enjoyed elsewhere" (pp. 114, 115); on page 187 he calls it a "charter." It was neither the one nor the other, but an ordinance of the Common Council of London. It is truly insular to call the churches designed by Wren "a series of models of unapproached beauty" (p. 171). The gilds of England were abolished in 1547, not "in 1557" (p. 185).

The above strictures will, generally speaking, also apply to Mr. Loftie's 'History of London' (2 vols., 1883–1884), of which the volume before us is a condensation. But the latter contains new results, based on the Calendar of the Documents of St. Paul's, in the Ninth Report of the Historical MSS. Commission. It may be admitted that Mr. Loftie, with all his weaknesses, is now regarded "as the chief authority on the history of London" (*Athenæum*, No. 3091); we hope, however, the *Athenæum* reviewer is wrong in predicting that this volume "will long remain the handbook to the history of our greatest city."

BISHOP HANNINGTON.

James Hannington, First Bishop of Eastern Equatorial Africa: A History of his Life and Work, 1847–1885. By E. C. Dawson. London: Seeley & Co.; New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 1887. Pp. x, 451. Map. Illustrations. 8vo.

BISHOP HANNINGTON seems to have been a very good specimen of Tennyson's Sir Walter Vivian, a "great, broad-shouldered, genial Englishman." He was frank, fearless, sincere, thoroughly good-humored, and with an overflowing fund of animal spirits. These led him into all sorts of wild, madcap adventures, and made him throw himself impulsively and wholly into everything which interested him for the time, whether it was bird's-nesting, a town-and-gown row, or a religious mission. In some respects he reminds us of Bishop Patteson, whose fate was so like his own. He had neither the latter's mental powers and training nor his high breeding, but to a similar bodily vigor and love of athletic sports he joined that faculty for strongly attaching men, as well as that single-hearted devotion to his work, which characterized the first Melanesian bishop. He is also equally fortunate with the latter in his biographer. Mr. Dawson, indeed, has done his work so well that we lose sight of the fact that, apart from Hannington's tragic death, there was absolutely nothing in his short career deserving such a memorial.

The son of a wealthy Brighton merchant, who was strangely indifferent to the advantages of a regular education, his youth was spent in almost unrestrained freedom. A little smattering of natural history, picked up in endless ramblings on sea and shore, and skill in managing a boat, seem to sum up his acquirements when, at the age of fifteen, his school life closed and he entered his father's office. Yachting excursions and volunteer drill, however, appear to have occupied his time far more than business; and his confession, after six years spent in this manner, that he was "fit for nothing but collecting curiosities," was probably not far from the truth. The mercantile profession was accordingly abandoned, and in 1868 he entered Oxford with the intention of studying for orders. As he was entirely unfitted by temperament and lack of training to be a reading man, he naturally plunged headlong into the least harmful of the dissipations of undergraduate life. When he became "captain of the boats and president of the club," his highest ambition was gratified. "I am at the head of everything," he writes. His genial disposition made him a general favorite, even with the long-suffering Dons, who "extended to him an unwritten license," says his biographer and classmate. On one occasion, "the Principal remonstrated with him by letter upon want of attention to study, and inquired how long he intended to continue 'a gentleman at large.' To

this the irrepressible *alumnus* at once replied, 'I hope that you will in future regard me no longer as a gentleman at large, but a gentleman at "smalls!"'" In a closely contested boat race, of which there is a very spirited description, Dawson, who rowed No. 6, Hannington being 7, perceived by the shouts of laughter from the bank that something unusual was going on in their boat. "As we passed the post, and I turned to congratulate Jim upon our escape, I beheld him overwhelmed with confusion and shame. In his immense energy he had worked his nether garments almost wholly off, and the latter half of that hard-fought race had been rowed by him, not without frantic snatches at his disappearing raiment, garbed almost as slightly as Ulysses and his crew, as depicted upon some ancient vase!" Still, he was not wholly given over to the spirit of fun, as is shown by the following entry in his diary, giving "the details of a single Sunday, which may be taken as a not unfair example of many others: '7 A. M., Holy Communion. 9 A. M., Chapel. 10:30, 'Varsity Sermon by Dr. Goulburn; twenty-mile walk with E. Ashmead-Bartlett. 5:15, Chapel. 7:30, Service in St. Mary's. 9 P. M., Greek Testament Lecture under Burgon.'"

The next year found him at Martinhoe, a little village on the North Devon coast, where he had been "strongly recommended" to retire, that he might pursue his studies under the care of a tutor. "A place of wide-stretching moorland; dark, weather-scarped cliffs, and rocks worn and torn by the ceaseless sweep of Atlantic billows," it had a great fascination for Hannington, and he found as many temptations to neglect his books in clambering about the cliffs and exploring their numerous caves as he did in the diversions of Oxford. Here he spent a large part of the remainder of his undergraduate life, and when, after several failures, he finally succeeded in taking his degree and passing his examination for deacon's orders, he returned to it as curate to his former tutor. Whatever the motive which first prompted him to enter the Church, as soon as he was fairly at work he put his whole heart into his profession, and was henceforth an earnest, devoted clergyman, whose every thought was to do his duty to his people, and who found a vent for his superabundant activity, when the narrow limits of his parish pressed him too closely, in mission labors in various parts of England. There is nothing especially worthy of note in Mr. Dawson's account of the eight years passed at this place and at Hurstpierpoint, to which he was appointed in 1875, as Hannington's diary and letters rarely refer to matters of general interest.

In 1882 he gave up his parish in order to go as missionary to Africa. It is difficult to resist the conviction that this step was due to an impulse rather than to a real call. Undoubtedly he was perfectly sincere in his motives, and in most respects well fitted for the work; but the wild, adventurous life of the African traveller, its hardships, difficulties, and dangers, were so exactly suited to impress his imagination that we cannot help thinking that an unconscious longing for its excitements may have been mistaken for the appeals to a sacred duty. Leaving behind him a wife and three young children, he sailed for Zanzibar in May, 1882, being destined for the Uganda mission on Lake Victoria Nyanza. Mr. Dawson has been quite as successful in describing Hannington's African experiences as those of the previous portion of his life, and there are few more graphic and interesting accounts of African travel than are given in the second part of this work. This is owing chiefly to Hannington's own descriptive powers, which were of no mean order, and also to his faculty for constantly getting into scrapes which more sober travellers would have avoided. He took the ordinary route into the interior through the terrible marshes which have proved so fatal to so many white travellers. Hannington was soon seized with fever, to which was added first dysentery and then rheumatic fever. Although brought to the very brink of the grave, he struggled on until he reached the southern end of the lake. Here a camp was formed, and preparations were made for the voyage to Uganda on the north coast. During the intervals of his attacks of fever, he amused himself by hunting and making collections of birds, insects, and plants. In one of these excursions he had the following adventure:

"At about a mile from camp, he saw some animal moving through the dense mimosa scrub, and, firing, killed it. His prey proved to be a large lion's cub. The gun-bearer, seeing this, fled with every sign of terror, and shouted to him to do the same. It was time indeed to do so. The cries of 'Run, bwana, run!' were accentuated by a double roar, and, looking round, Hannington saw the bereaved parents, a fine lion and lioness, coming toward him with long, bounding leaps over the scrub. An ordinary man, encountering lions face to face in the open for almost the first time, would probably have lost all presence of mind, and, turning to run, have been inevitably destroyed. He deliberately faced round upon his enemy. The enraged lions were distant but a few paces, but they suddenly checked, and both stood, as though transfixed, glaring upon him. So they remained for some time, till Hannington, placing one foot behind the other, and still keeping his eyes fixed upon the yellow orbs before him, gradually increased his distance, and, having placed about a hundred yards between himself and the monsters, quietly walked away. But the indomitable nature of the man comes out more strongly in what followed. Most men would have concluded that they had had enough of such an adventure and have accepted their escape from the jaws of death, or at least would not have renewed the contest without assistance. Hannington was formed of quite another metal. Though the light was waning, he determined that he would return and secure the skin of the cub he had killed; so he retraced his steps. When near enough to observe their motions, he could see that the lion and lioness were walking round about their cub, licking its body and filling the air with low growlings. At this moment an unknown flower caught his eye. He plucked it; took out his note-book, pressed it between the leaves, and classified it as far as he was able; then, with coolness perfectly restored, he ran forward a few paces, threw up his arms, and shouted! Was it that the lions had never encountered so strange an antagonist before? At all events, they looked up, then turned tail and bounded away. He dragged the cub for some distance, till having left the dangerous vicinity he shouldered it and brought it into camp. Acts such as these gave him unbounded influence over his men. They learned to regard him as invincible, and entertained a most wholesome dread of opposing his expressed will."

After various unsuccessful attempts to obtain canoes, Hannington was convinced that further progress, for him at least, was impossible, and set out on his return to the coast. It is unnecessary to dwell upon the painful details of this journey, the record of which reminds us of Livingstone's 'Last Journals.' But for the fact that in all his dreadful sufferings "his patience and cheerfulness never forsook him," he must surely have died. Contrary to every expectation, however, he succeeded in reaching Zanzibar, and, after an absence of a little more than a year, was again at work in his old parish.

But it was not likely that a man who found tent-life in Africa, even under such circumstances, "thoroughly agreeable" to him, would long be content with the humdrum life of an English village. His intense dislike to acknowledge that he had been beaten also added to his restlessness. So it was only natural that with returning strength there came an irresistible desire to make another attempt to labor in the missionary field. The Church Missionary Society not only gladly accepted his renewed offers, but also secured his appointment as Bishop of Eastern Equatorial Africa. This puts his return to Africa on an entirely different footing from his first visit, as there can be little question that he was admirably fitted for this responsible post. He was consecrated in June, 1884, and, by the end of the next January, was in Frere Town, which he intended to make his home. This is a settlement chiefly of liberated slaves on the mainland opposite Mombasa, about 150 miles north of Zanzibar. His first work was to visit the neighboring stations and to make preparations for planting new ones. With this end in view he made a flying trip to Kilima-njaro in the spring, to induce the well-known Chief Mandara to receive a missionary. Having obtained his consent, he conducted to that region the requisite men and material to found a station, his return journey of 120 miles being made "at the extraordinary rate of 40 miles a day"—a pedestrian feat probably unrivalled in the annals of African travels. His next object was to visit the Uganda Mission, which was included in his diocese. After conferring with Sir John Kirk and the authorities at Zanzibar, he determined to make an attempt to reach the lake by the route which Mr. Thomson had just shown was practicable. This was not only the most direct way, but it was also much more healthy than the southern route. So far as he, or any one at the time, knew, the chief danger to be apprehended was from the Masai. If he succeeded in passing safely through their land, it was believed that he would have no difficulty in reaching Uganda. The Bishop, accompanied by a native clergyman and some 200 porters, found Masailand decimated by famine, and the chief obstacle to his progress the lack of food. Although nearly starving, he struggled on, until at length, in October, he got within sight of the lake. Here he left his companion in charge of the caravan and pushed on with fifty men as far as the Victoria Nile, some two days' journey from Rubaga, the capital of Uganda.

At this point, when every danger seemed to have been safely passed, he was seized by the chief of the district, acting under orders from the young King Mwanga, who had succeeded his father on Mtesa's death in 1884. After a few days' imprisonment, enduring patiently sufferings most vividly described in his diary, he was shot, his porters, with the exception of four, sharing his fate. The reason for this utterly unexpected murder is now perfectly clear. The Bishop, coming by the northern route, was regarded by the King as an emissary of the Germans, whose recent annexations of territory had naturally filled him with fear for his own dominions. Acting under the advice of his chiefs and the resident Arabs, who hated the missionaries, he killed the Bishop, to make it plain that this door to Uganda could not be opened.

Mr. Dawson's biography deserves to rank high among works of its class. If he has erred, it has been in giving too many unimportant details of Bishop Hannington's early life, some of which were of a too personal nature to print. The attractiveness of the book, which, we regret to notice, lacks an index, is also increased by the illustrations, many of which are taken from the Bishop's own sketches.

RECENT MATHEMATICAL WORKS.

A Treatise on Algebra. By Profs. Oliver, Wait, and Jones of Cornell University. Ithaca, N. Y.: Dudley F. Finch. 1887. 8vo, pp. viii, 412.

Algebra, an Elementary Text-book for the Higher Classes of Secondary Schools and for Colleges. By G. Chrystal, M. A., Professor of Mathematics in the University of Edinburgh. Part I. Edinburgh: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. 1887. 8vo, pp. xx, 542.

The Mechanics of Machinery. By Alex. B. W. Kennedy, Professor of Engineering and Mechanical Technology in University College, London. Macmillan & Co. 1886. 8vo, pp. xv, 652.

A Treatise on Surveying, comprising the Theory and the Practice. By William M. Gillespie, LL.D., formerly Professor of Civil Engineering in Union College. Revised and enlarged by Cady Staley, Ph.D. D. Appleton & Co. 1887. Large 8vo, pp. vi, 549, and tables pp. 127.

AMONG the mathematical works upon our table there are four which seem to demand special notice, both from the character of their authors and from the character of the books themselves. They are all entirely above the ordinary run of text-books. Indeed, from their size and scope they can hardly be considered as text-books at all, if by "text-book" we understand a book intended especially for use in instructing classes in schools and colleges, though they might all be so used by a teacher or professor skilful in the art of selection and omission.

The combination of three persons in the production of a single mathematical treatise is somewhat remarkable. Were it not for the title-page and the notice of copyright, we venture to say that no scrutiny, however close, would lead any one to suspect that more than one person had had a hand in the composition of the Cornell treatise on algebra. There is a similarity and consistency in the treatment of every subject from one end of the book to the other which gives the reader the impression, not that the authors had divided the work between them—one taking one subject, another another—but that some one of the three had given the final form to the whole, working upon materials furnished by the other two, or that each and every part had been the joint product of a sort of cabinet council of all three, nothing being considered as settled until it had received unanimous approval. However they may have combined their labors, the authors have undoubtedly produced a work treating a greater variety of subjects than any single volume with which we are acquainted. It was intended, the authors tell us, when its composition was commenced, "for young men who had already studied the elements of algebra and geometry, and who had had some scholarly training." "At no time have they thought of it as a book for beginners." In the form in which it is now published they say of it: "As a text-book for use in ordinary classes it must be abridged: yet its wide range of subjects makes it all the more valuable to teachers, as a book of reference, and to those bright scholars who wish either to place their knowledge of algebra on a sure foundation, or to make that knowledge a stepping-stone to the higher analysis."

And yet, with all this elaboration, the work is confessedly incomplete. We quote again: "Another edition will contain chapters on theory of equations, integer analysis, symbolic methods, determinants and groups, probabilities, and insurance; with a full alphabetical index." Here is material enough to fill another volume as large as the present one, and that, too, without treating any of the subjects in an exhaustive manner. But from the fact that there is nothing about the present volume to indicate that it is intended to be a "vol. i," and from the language above quoted, most persons will, whether rightly or wrongly, infer that it is the intention of the authors to incorporate the new matter, together with that of the present treatise, in one volume, so that the purchasers of the first edition who might desire to have the complete work, would be obliged to buy again what they had already paid for. More than that, the declaration in its present form is calculated to defeat the object in view by hindering the sale of the present edition, and thus postponing the appearance of the second. A book so multifarious in its contents greatly needs an index, and many, for this reason alone, will wait for the appearance of the second edition. So, also, will many more who may happen to be specially interested in any of the subjects not yet treated.

The authors have given to the word "algebra" an extension altogether beyond its usual signification. Many subjects which the student usually meets for the first time in analytical geometry or the calculus are treated by them. Thus, the theory of infinitesimals, and Taylor's theorem, which are usually first encountered in the differential calculus, are here treated. The chapter on imaginary quantities is a sort of introduction to Hamilton's quaternions, and free use is made of many of the terms invented by him. Our authors have also introduced several new signs, or modifications of old ones, so that a careful preliminary study of the first chapter is indispensable, even to an expert mathematician, in order to read almost any chapter in the work. Any attempt at detailed criticism would be altogether out of the question within the space at our disposal, but we can assure our readers that the work is evidently the product of a profound knowledge of almost every branch of pure mathematics, and its careful study will well repay the professional mathematician.

The title of the second work on our list is certainly somewhat misleading. It is far from corresponding to what is generally understood by an "elementary text-book." In the opening of his preface Mr. Chrystal tells us that the work "is so far elementary that it begins at the beginning of the subject. It is not, however, intended for the use of absolute beginners." But we think we can go much further than this, and affirm with a good deal of confidence that, unless perhaps under the guidance of Mr. Chrystal himself, few students could use it with profit except those who already had as much knowledge of algebra as is usually possessed by undergraduates in the last two years of their college course. Although it forms only the first part of the treatise which Prof. Chrystal intends ultimately to give us, yet as it stands it is far more extensive than any "elementary text-book" on algebra with which we are acquainted. It seems to us best adapted for those students who are pursuing a post-graduate course of mathematics. Prof. Chrystal disclaims the idea of writing a book "on the philosophical nature of the first principles of algebra," but he admits that the opening chapter is the one "which the beginner will doubtless find the hardest in the book." He endeavors to treat every subject that he takes up in an exhaustive manner. He has made free use of graphic illustrations, and, indeed, he seems nowhere to have allowed considerations of space to impose any limitations on the full development of his ideas. Prof. Chrystal gives in the present volume no indication of the subjects he intends to treat in the second part of his work. But those who delight in the manipulation of algebraical expressions, presented often in their most complicated and abstract forms, will undoubtedly wish for its speedy completion.

Both the works which we have noticed belong to the most abstract department of pure mathematics, and are remarkable for their extent, and, each in its own way, for wide departures from the methods, the arrangement, and the subject-matter of ordinary text-books. The remaining two belong to the department of applied mathematics, and are equally remarkable for the skill and clearness and simplicity with which abstract science is made subservient to the needs of practical life.

Nothing drier and more tedious can be conceived than a work on machinery, except to those who are studying it professionally or for some special purpose. But if any book on that subject could be made to interest the general reader, always supposing that he has sufficient preliminary training to understand any work on the subject, it would certainly be Prof. Kennedy's. In his way of presenting things, we are constantly reminded of the clearness and felicity of expression which have contributed so much to spread the fame of Helmholtz and Tyndall. Adopting at the outset a method of explaining the motions of machines which, from a theoretical point of view, is eminently scientific, he carries it out consistently through his whole work. Until the laws of nature are altered, and the principles which govern the motion of all bodies with which we are acquainted become something different from what they have been found to be by the philosophers and mathematicians of the last three or four centuries, the method must be always applicable. Among the numerous advantages of this scientific consistency which have suggested themselves to the mind of the reviewer in the course of the perusal of the work, we have space to mention only one. A new machine is presented to the mechanical engineer who has studied this book. It works, perhaps, in a complicated and apparently novel manner. But he knows at once how to go to work to unravel its complications, to comprehend its motions, and to reduce to simplicity what to the ordinary observer would seem an inextricable puzzle. Another characteristic of the book is the felicitous, or, as the mathematicians like to say, "elegant," manner in which the author illustrates general principles by the explanation of particular cases. These special cases are in most instances taken from machines in actual use, and are explained with a fulness and minuteness of detail the perfect clearness and intelligibility of which saves it from becoming tedious. The book is illustrated with nearly four hundred figures. Of their artistic merit we are not competent to speak, but as real helps to an understanding of the text they are admirable. They are not, as is so often the case in illustrated text-books, mere reproductions from older works, often obsolete or faulty; but Prof. Kennedy says that nine-tenths of them have been drawn by his own hand. As Wagner composed the music to his own libretti, so Prof. Kennedy made the pictures to his own text.

In our opinion, the introduction of this work as a text-book into our schools of technology cannot be too strongly recommended. The great work of Weisbach and others constructed on a similar plan are too extensive for use in an ordinary course of engineering, and they generally bristle with formulæ drawn from analytical geometry and the differential and integral calculus. However desirable it may be that all engineers should be accomplished mathematicians, yet such is not, and for a long time will not be, the fact. Prof. Kennedy's work is not too large for complete study during the ordinary engineering course. In all possible cases it solves problems by graphic or geometrical methods, and, as the author says, can be easily tackled by the engineer who is master of his drawing instruments, while with the tools of analytical mathematics he is often, we might say generally, not so familiar. Our readers, however, must not infer that Prof. Kennedy's book is in any sense superficial. It is practical, but throughout eminently scientific and thorough. Wherever it handles anything in a manner more simple and intelligible than ordinary, it arises from that "scientific tact" which is the result partly of long experience and partly of a "natural gift"—a mental constitution alike rare and invaluable, but which seems more com-

mon among Frenchmen than among any other people.

That scientific tact is exhibited in an equally remarkable degree in the last book we have to examine, the author of which was an American professor of the same science as Prof. Kennedy. Gillespie's 'Land-Surveying' was printed for the use of his classes in 1851, but was not published for the general market until 1855. The favor with which it was received and the rapidity with which it supplanted other works, was something extraordinary. The surveyor in a country town with nothing but a common-school education said, "This man has common sense; he knows how to put things so that common people can understand them." The civil engineer, furnished with all the apparatus of modern learning, was equally enthusiastic in his praises of its accuracy and the scientific manner in which the subject was developed, and almost every Government surveyor adopted it as his guide in surveying the public lands, a subject which Prof. Gillespie treated with special care. In the preface to his work, the author promised a second volume on 'Levelling and Higher Surveying.' Parts of this volume were printed for use in class work, but it was not finished at the time of his death. His papers were put in the hands of Mr. Cady Staley, who finished the volume, and published it in 1870. It was marked by the same characteristics as the first volume, though, of course, it interested a much smaller public. Both works have been incorporated in the present large and handsome volume, and as the work stands it is a complete manual of every part of the science, with full directions alike for the farmer who, without instruments, lays out his farm by counting his steps, and for the engineer engaged in a triangulation or a coast survey.

At the place where this review is written we have no copy of the first edition, and cannot speak in detail of the modifications and additions of Prof. Staley. We can only say from recollection that he seems to have been thoroughly imbued with the spirit and methods of the original work, and to have treated it with careful and reverent hands. For thirty years the 'Land-Surveying' of Prof. Gillespie has had no rival; in its present shape it promises to hold that position for an indefinite period to come. There is an Analytical Table of Contents covering eleven of the large pages, but this hardly compensates for the lack of an alphabetical index to so extensive a work.

A Look Round Literature. By Robert Buchanan. Scribner & Welford. 1887.

Mr. Robert Buchanan speaks of himself toward the end of this volume as "a man who is far beyond all literary predilections or passions." This bit of self-criticism is the gem of the book. It is possible, however, that it is not meant to be retroactive, and he might acknowledge that some of these papers, which are collected from his critical utterances for several years past, are not the work of a mind completely emancipated. The article on Rossetti, in which he won his spurs, is, of course, not reproduced, since he has many times expressed his contrition for its errors; but he cannot praise that tenuous poet now without a left-handed dig at Burns's muse, as "the poetry of kicking up one's heels and rolling with milkmaids in the hay." The essay on Goethe, however, is the most rich in unexpected felicities of pugnacity. The "Titanic Tutor," the "Greatest Stage-Manager," the possible "very popular Parson," had he had a trifle less animation and fewer amours, the master of Arnold and Lowell, as he calls him—for this man, Goethe, Mr. Buchanan has an invincible repugnance. There is Thackeray, too, who "based a splendid reputation on the theory of suckling fools and chronicling small beer"; George Eliot, "whose writings reflected, not the lover of humanity, but the superior person"; Emerson, with "no pathos"—and so on, over big and little reputations, saving and excepting only Walt Whitman, the Socrates and Christ of American democracy, in apotheosizing whom his worshipper makes that remark respecting his freedom from "literary predilections or passions."

But, withal, one has a hearty good liking for this mighty Nimrod of a critic, who disturbs the repose of the monarchs of the forest and gives the comfortable deer of our contemporary preserves a taste of wild life. It is not unpleasing to know that the race of the Dekkars and Dennises and Christopher Norths has not died out; and Buchanan, like his prototypes, has at times that facility in blurting out a brutal truth for which the British censor, time immemorial, has had a native genius. The strength of his social and religious convictions, the energy of his beliefs of all kinds, give genuineness and vitality to his words; and the cultivated reader who still has in him a mild strain of the old English blood that loves a fighter, cannot be hard on a sturdy champion engaged in what seems less like serious criticism than a game of literary fisticuffs.

The personality of Buchanan is the real thing in the volume; his opinions—at least the literary ones—are not of so much consequence. He is a good hater, and he does not hide his talent in a napkin; he veneers his solid billingsgate with rhetoric of some color and polish; but all this must not blind us to the fact that he has ideals, and that he does truly regard the great names with which he makes free, and venerates them. He cannot refrain from the ill word; but he never tweaks the ear of a literary god without expressing his high respect for all other parts of his person. There is one portion of the book which is altogether agreeable, and it gains a considerable part of its attractiveness from the writer's personality exhibited more directly than in his criticism. It is that which deals with a few of his private friendships with literary men when he was a struggling youth. Of Thomas Love Peacock, to whom he introduced himself by one of those letters which boys of genius will write, he gives us a very charming sketch. The old man on the lawn teaching his granddaughter Italian, or in his library finding Aristophanes funnier than Dickens, or learning Spanish at eighty years to read those "Autos" of Calderon that Shelley so long ago had praised to him—all this is excellently done, with both taste and feeling. Peacock belongs to a class of Englishmen whose lives too seldom get into literature. He was "a cold scholar"—this epithet of Hogg's will stick to him as long as his name; but he presents a pleasanter picture in his old age. It is a piece of the omnipresent irony of life to find it written of that man to whom Shelley wrote those immortal Italian letters, "Italy he knew not, nor cared to know." He had never been to Paris even. He spoke freely of Shelley, not with much understanding; and his claim to have aided Shelley in forming his poetic style in 'Alastor' is ridiculous. Another interesting person on whom Buchanan throws the light of personal reminiscence is Sydney Dobell, who befriended him on his coming to London, and touched him with his peculiarly sweet and noble nature and also by the sight of his physical frailty, so in contrast with his own "rude flush of health and hope" and "audacity of physical well-being." The human feeling in both these sketches is very simple and true. The "Priory," also, was one of his harbors of entertainment, but George Eliot probably had no more unawed spectator; he represents her as always "on the tripod," on which she had sat so long that "her genius had become frozen at the fountain, and her character was veneered over with the self-pride of insight; so that, with all her apprehensiveness, she lacked sympathy, and with all her moral enthusiasm she was spiritually cold." To Buchanan, with his Lares and Penates of Democracy and Religion, she was a poor kind of Sibyl. Of Democracy and Religion there is always a groundswell in his own work, and there is much humanity in it, too; in criticism he is not well furnished, but if one is experienced enough not to be irritated by it, he will better measure and appreciate the spirit of the man who seems to put his whole heart into all he does.

Principles of Art. Part I. Art in History. Part II. Art in Theory. By John C. Van Dyke, Librarian of the Sage Library, New Brunswick. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. 1887.

The fever for art instruction which seems to prevail among us, growing in part out of the self-recognized inartistic character of our time and race, develops a class of art literature which has no chance of existence in any other country than ours or England, where the conditions are almost identical. It consists mainly of rehashing judgments, opinions, and statements of fact in reference to art, with addition of personal conjectures, appreciations, and observations, in which lies the entire originality of the work. It is not enough to have read many books, even in the case of a person who has a strong personal feeling for art; the mere fact of having collated what is known and what is concluded by other thinkers is no basis for criticism, and does not qualify any one to write on art. In science a student may learn all the facts known up to his day in any specialty, and yet not have the authority necessary to form conclusions and establish generalizations which shall admit him into the category of scientific magnates. Much less, then, in the case of art, where not definite and demonstrable facts form the basis of generalization, but opinions which are their own authority are the material we must build with, can we admit as teacher a man who has only informed himself concerning and collated compendiously what has been written by others. We had to insist on this in the case of Mrs. Mitchell's 'Greek Sculpture'; the collation of *authorities* may be ever so complete and admirable, as in that work it was, and the comparative judgment of the respective value of the collated *opinions* be gravely in default, as it was also there. These are distinct elements of critical ability, if, indeed, we must admit the former to be a part of criticism, for the collater and the critic are not necessarily related, as is evidenced anew by the book of Mr. Van Dyke.

This author—whether from youth or insufficient mental breadth it is quite impossible to say—has not attained to that generalizing power which qualifies him to pronounce on so difficult a question, or justifies him in adding another to the many books which confound wisdom on art. It is seldom that a man's opinions in matters of art are of much value before he is forty; very few are authoritative before fifty; and when a man is sixty he will look back on his expressed opinions and feel inclined to burn nine-tenths of them. Mr. Van Dyke is diligent and systematic, and has laid out the scheme of his work largely, but as if it were a scientific treatise which he was constructing. He has wished to write a book for popular use, and for this purpose he has "endeavored throughout these pages to be clear and concise in statement, to be accurate as regards events of history and their effect upon art, and to be intelligible by the choice of the simplest language. The scientific has been avoided; he has not thought to write the hieratic for a small

metaphysical priesthood, but rather the plain language of the people for all who are in any way interested in art." But the first thing in any treatise for popular education in art, as in every other branch of human cognition, is to get hold of correct fundamental principles. So far from its being, as most people suppose, easier to make a good book for primary education, the most masterly knowledge and the profoundest grasp of first principles are required for such a work, that no labor may be thrown away by the necessity of eradicating fundamental errors in education.

It is needless to question much the historical part of our author's book—history being matter of science, not of opinion; but we cannot let pass one very grave error, which shows that the writer has failed to comprehend one of the most important *facts* in art. He says:

"In treating of the ideal in Greek art, the word must not be confounded with 'the ideal' of to-day as it is understood in its contemporary application. Our ideal is but an imaginary type, 'a form seen in the mind,' a memory gathered from many impressions; and in works of art *it is likely to be as characterless as it is agreeable to the eye.* The Greek ideal was something entirely different. In the first place, the Greek physically was the most perfect man imaginable, . . . In Sparta none but the perfect were permitted to live. . . . To represent the gods, then, the Greek sculptor generalized the human form and was eclectic. He combined the excellences of the many into one perfect whole, and then made a new and individual form."

Now, there is not the slightest evidence that the Greek form was any more perfect in the days of Phidias than now, nor is there the slightest probability that it was. Nor did ideal art ever have a footing in Sparta. Mr. Van Dyke must not take his *facts* from hypotheses framed to support a false theory of art elaborated by German philosophy; and when he goes on in his historical department to talk as if he had seen statues which we have even no clear description or reproduction of, he needs to be called to order. "The representation of *soul and thought* in the statues [of the Greek gods] was apparent, but it was passive, not active; reserved, not demonstrative; silent, not boisterous. In addition, the grandeur and sublimity of Phidias's best work was materially heightened by the colossal proportion, as instanced in the Olympian Zeus and the Parthenonic Athena." This may be as good sense as we think it nonsense, but if relevant it is pure assumption. There is no indication of soul or thought in any of the Greek statues, and if there is a way of indicating soul as distinguished from thought, it is a pity Mr. Van Dyke has not given us the recipe. But in the above extracts he has dragged in questions about the ideal which have nothing to do with the history of art, and of which his treatment shows that he is utterly afield as to Greek art at least, for he absolutely fails to understand what the ideal means. We are not surprised, therefore, to find in the theoretical part a condensation of miscomprehension. Thus, quoting Hamerton's definition of the ideal, he says: "Under this definition of Mr. Hamerton's Michael Angelo, Delacroix, Millet, and Corot would be classified as idealists; whereas none of them ever tried to record a type, *build up a perfection*, or realize a universal conception. . . . For ourselves, then, in our consideration of modern art, we will wholly abandon 'the ideal.' Our theory can get on without it. It had its place, and lived and died in Greece." But there is no true art that is not based on the ideal, and Greek art is simply the greatest or truest art because it is most purely ideal. We are forced to the conclusion that Mr. Van Dyke, with all his diligence in reading and collation, has not taken the time to digest his accumulations, and has no right from the ideal point of view to thrust upon us his crude conclusions.

Finally, such a statement as this—"The architecture of the fifteenth century was favorable to painting because the Renaissance style furnished wall spaces in abundance, and demanded for its completion the services of the painters"—shows such curious ignorance of the relation between the great works of the wall-painters, Giotto, Orcagna, Fra Angelico, etc., and the fifteenth century and Renaissance, that we are persuaded that this is mere haphazard conjecture as to what wall-painting was in the fifteenth and what in the fourteenth centuries.

Baltimore and the Nineteenth of April, 1861. By George William Brown, Chief Judge of the Supreme Bench of Baltimore and Mayor of the City in 1861. Baltimore: R. Murray, Publication Agent Johns Hopkins University.

THIS is a valuable contribution to the history of the rebellion, being a clear and candid account of the memorable and shameful attack upon the Sixth Regiment of Massachusetts Volunteers by a mob in the streets of Baltimore on the 19th of April, 1861. The regiment was the first to respond to President Lincoln's call of April 15, 1861, for militia "to maintain the honor, the integrity, and existence of our national Union, and the perpetuity of popular government"; and was en route to the national capital when it was attacked.

The author, Judge Brown, was then Mayor of Baltimore, and not only did all in his power to prevent disorder, but, after the attack began, joined the assaulted troops and gallantly marched through the streets to the depot at the head of the column, and saw the regiment embark upon the cars and move out of the city upon the journey to Washington. In the attacks, four of the soldiers and twelve civilians were killed and thirty-six soldiers wounded. The number of civilians wounded is not known.

Fort Sumter had been taken by the Confederates about a week before, but as the capture had not been attended by loss of life, the author regards the fight in the streets of Baltimore as the more momentous of the two affairs, and he goes so far as to say that the bombardment and capture of Fort Sumter by the Confederates "did not necessarily mean war between North and South"; but that it was the shedding of blood in Baltimore that made "accommodation" impossible. There are many who do not concur in that opinion. The unbearable insult to the Government and the North was offered at Sumter. There was then no question of accommodation—no question about "war between North and South." War was from that moment prevailing, and the only question was when peace would be restored. There is no probability that the outrage of bombarding Fort Sumter could or would have been "accommodated." The collision in Baltimore probably had but little more effect upon the question of peace or war than a drop of blood from a tap on the nose would have in a quarrel between two gentlemen, after one had been deliberately, defiantly, and publicly slapped in the face with the open hand of the other.

The author begins his book by citing a coincidence between the collisions at Lexington, April 19, 1775, and Baltimore, April 19, 1861, and gives it as the point of difference between them that the attack at Lexington was prepared and deliberate, whereas the attack in Baltimore was a sudden "uprising of popular fury." The comparison is interesting, but is hardly sound, from the fact that the action in Baltimore cannot fairly be called a sudden uprising. In fact, this book affords abundant evidence that it was of steady growth. On the *eighteenth* of April, the day before the attack, as some regular troops and four companies of militia passed through Baltimore, "a large crowd assembled at the station and followed the soldiers in their march to the Washington station, with abuse and threats" (pp. 36–7); and in the evening of that day "a meeting of the States' Rights Convention was held at Taylor's building, where it was alleged very strong ground was taken against the passage of any more troops through Baltimore, and armed resistance to it threatened." One of the resolutions adopted said: "The massing of large bodies of militia, exclusively from the free States, in the District of Columbia is uncalled for, and is a standing menace to the State of Maryland," etc. Stronger evidence even than this that the purpose of attack was not sudden, is afforded by a letter dated April 20, 1861, from the author of this book to Gov. Andrew of Massachusetts. The author said in that letter: "No one deplores the sad events of yesterday in this city more deeply than myself, but *they were inevitable. Our people* viewed the passage of armed troops to another State through the streets as an invasion of our soil, and could not be restrained." This is about as good a description of the feeling that prevailed at Lexington as at Baltimore. As to the character of the men engaged, the author tells us that a wealthy merchant of long experience, usually a peaceful man, was indicted for participation in the riot, and that one of the leading rioters, then a young man, is now "a peaceful merchant." With these explanations of the riot, taken from the book itself, it cannot be admitted that "the attack by the mob in Baltimore was a sudden uprising of popular fury," in any sense that would mitigate the crimes committed or the disgrace of the occurrence.

The author devotes a chapter to showing that the alleged plot to assassinate Mr. Lincoln when he passed through Baltimore in February, 1861, was mere fiction; and he aims to establish the point that Mr. Lincoln's "midnight ride through Baltimore, and the charge that its citizens were plotting the President's assassination, helped to feed the flame of excitement," and thus contributed to the attack upon the troops which was made two months afterwards. The real cause of the attack, just given, effectually disposes of this attempt to make Mr. Lincoln's action, or the story of the plot to assassinate him, accountable for it.

Judge Brown, a Baltimorean, has, naturally enough, written from a Baltimore point of view. His duties in those dreadful times were difficult and dangerous, and from September 17, 1861, to November 12, 1862, he was held by the Government as a prisoner of state, and confined at Forts McHenry, Monroe, Lafayette, and Warren. Yet he does "nothing extenuate, nor set down aught in malice." He treats his subject calmly, judicially, honestly, ably; and his book, covering events of great importance before and after the attack upon the Sixth Massachusetts regiment, is written with clearness and force. He says of himself: "I was deeply attached to the Union from feeling imbibed in early childhood and constantly strengthened by knowledge and personal experience. . . . I did not believe in secession as a constitutional right, and in Maryland there was no sufficient ground for revolution. . . . It was my opinion that the Confederacy would prove to be a rope of sand." But he adds: "I thought the seceding States should have been allowed to depart in peace, as Gen. Scott advised." In justice to Gen. Scott, it should be noted that allowing the "wayward sister" to depart in peace was not a measure that he advised, but an alternative that he mentioned.

Judge Brown says he believed that their own interests and the necessities of the situation

would induce the seceding States, after they had tried it alone, to return "to the old Union, but *with slavery peacefully abolished.*" This is a striking and novel opinion. The reasons for it are not given; nor are they to be found in the formation or action of the Confederate Government, slavery being the foundation upon which that structure was built. It is hardly conceivable that the Southern States could be so short-sighted as to leave the Union at the risk of war, and establish a new government based upon slavery, and then abandon the "institution" and return without it to the Union they had left to perpetuate it.

It sounds strangely in these times to hear that the regularly constituted authorities of Baltimore formally ordered the burning of railroad bridges to prevent the passage of troops to Washington in response to the call of the President; and that delegations—to one of which the author of this book belonged—visited President Lincoln and compelled, or at least induced, him to agree that the forces which he, the constitutional Commander-in-Chief, had ordered to the defence of the capital, should, in a time of public danger, depart from their direct route and pass around Baltimore, in deference to the wishes or the threats of people of that city.

Judge Brown well says that we are now "living in a different land and under a different Constitution," and that the results achieved by the war "are worth all they have cost." On the other hand, he believes the new state of affairs is not without its dangers, and says that "Communism, socialism, and labor strikes have taken the place of slavery agitation," and that "many people have come to believe that this is a paternal Government, from which they have a right to ask favors, and not a republic in which all are equal." He believes, also, that "there is a dangerous tendency towards the centralization of power in the national Government, with little opposition on the part of the people." But, notwithstanding these drawbacks, he says: "I rejoice to believe there is a reserve power in the American people which has never yet failed to redress great wrongs when they have come to be fully recognized and understood." In that belief we heartily concur.

The Genealogical Dictionary of Rhode Island; comprising three generations of settlers who came before 1690. (With many families carried to the fourth generation.) By John Osborne Austin. Albany: Joel Munsell's Sons 1887. Folio, pp. 443.

THIS work is dedicated to the memory of James Savage, and is virtually a reëditing of the Rhode Island names in Savage's 'Genealogical Dictionary of New England.' It is, if we mistake not, the first attempt to do for a single State what Savage did for the original four, and as such it marks an epoch in the establishment of American pedigrees. It will hereafter be the alpha of research on the part of those who claim a Rhode Island descent. Mr. Austin's preface is singularly modest. "The material gathered in these pages," he says, "was drawn from many sources. It is presented to the reader by a clear method, requiring but little explanation, though the plan is a comprehensive one, and the arrangement in some respects original." This plan is as follows: The page, of generous dimensions, is divided into three columns—the first about the width of one of our own, the second about twice as broad, the third narrowest of all. The first column is reserved for the founder, the second for his children, the third for his grandchildren, of whom merely the names are entered. All the information displayed is first-hand, from town and probate records, deeds, court reports, tax lists, etc. Care is taken to give abstracts of wills and inventories. In a summary way we get a picture of early New England life, and Mr. Austin preserves what quaint or humorous touches fall in his way, like this coroner's verdict, "that the lad, the widow Ballou, her son, named Samuel Ballou, going into the river which runneth to the mill in Providence, to wash himself, was by a Providence of God drowned."

The critic feels like multiplying words in order to *seem* to do justice to so great and so successful a labor as this. Yet it is enough to say that Mr. Austin is a worthy disciple of Savage, bettering (with ampler resources) his example, and evincing his qualities of self-effacement and scrupulous accuracy—brushing aside foolish tradition in favor of evidence that cannot be gainsaid. We have tested this Dictionary in ways which satisfy us that it may be relied upon; its mere typographical punctiliousness is highly praiseworthy. The compiler has supplied two and a half pages of additions and corrections, and time will surely reveal others that must be made; but, owing to circumstances peculiar to Rhode Island, it is doubtful if further research will so greatly alter the record here made up that this Dictionary will ever be superseded. Mr. Austin has at least the satisfaction of knowing that no one could have performed his task better, and that he has not postponed or suppressed a more competent undertaking of the same kind. His Dictionary is printed from type, the edition is limited, and it must soon be considerably enhanced in value.

Years of Experience: An Autobiographical Narrative. By Georgiana Bruce Kirby. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

THE old question, "Have we a Bourbon among us?" could have been answered by the late author of this autobiography in the affirmative, with reference to her own person. An irregular connection gave her Louis Joseph, Prince de Condé, for her great-grandfather, and her family history takes us through all phases of living, from the splendors of Chantilly to California "roughing it." Miss Bruce, however, came into the world a middle-class Englishwoman, with the very smallest trace of French descent. She was plain-featured, with little æsthetic sensibility, early in revolt against the suppression of her sex in the household, against convention generally, and against Calvinism. The account of her home life, though sufficiently dreary, is interesting for its distinctly British stamp, and forms an artistic contrast to the romance of her pedigree. The independence which led her to cross the ocean for a career of her own, shifts the scene to the backwoods of Canada, where spiritual freedom and the charm of the novel landscape put a new phase on existence; and of this the cheerful reminiscence evokes corresponding feelings on the part of the reader. A greater metamorphosis was in store for the young teacher when she took service in the family of the Rev. Dr. Gannett of Boston, and was presently encouraged by him to seek admission to Brook Farm.

The chapters relating to this social experiment are much the most valuable in the book, yet are disappointing as a description of the every-day working of the community. It is extraordinary that, with so many men and women of fine literary gifts among the founders and inmates of Brook Farm, not a single plain, unvarnished report has been written of what went on there, what tests of membership were applied, how labor and wages were apportioned, what the farm products were, the whole course of development into a Fourierite phalanx, and the final collapse. Not even a diary of this character has emerged, and we doubt if any could have been kept except by some one with a sense of humor that would have prevented either his joining or his remaining with the association. We say this not unmindful of the author of 'The Potiphar Papers,' who is commemorated by Mrs. Kirby for his delightful singing and playful masquerading as Fanny Ellsler; or of our esteemed contemporary, the editor of the *Sun*, gratefully remembered as a stimulating teacher of German at Brook Farm, unconscious of his latent capacity for comic journalism. Mrs. Kirby's recollections are personal rather than systematic, and are vitiated by a feminine disregard of chronological particularity. She vindicates Margaret Fuller against Hawthorne in the best manner, by quoting letters from her which reveal her kind and generous nature. She touches off Lloyd Fuller, Margaret's youngest brother, "a large-headed, loose-jointed lad of sixteen, with some down on his upper lip," who did keep a diary, "principally, it would seem, for the purpose of letting others understand his opinion of them, for he tore pages out, occasionally, and dropped them where those he had criticised severely would be likely to pick them up." To the head of the community and "the master of moral philosophy," sitting in the hall library, Miss Bruce was once moved to confide her satisfaction in her environment:

> "At first he did not hear me; then I spoke louder, leaning over the banisters:
> "'Mr. Ripley, Mr. Ripley, I am *perfectly* happy.'
> "It had seemed to me abundantly worth while that he, who had been prominently instrumental in bringing this happiness about, should be apprised of the fact. But he only glanced up with an absent expression, and said:
> "'Ah, indeed!'
> "And my high spirits received a sensible check. I had not spoken at an opportune moment, nor could he immediately withdraw his attention from the book he was reading."

Many other amusing passages would invite quotation did space permit. Under the Fourierite régime, "the word went abroad that Brook Farm wanted skilled mechanics in place of transcendental enthusiasts, and they began to come. The *women* were, as a rule, inferior to the men, and with less executive ability than the late poetic dreamers. It was plain that there could be no congeniality between the new-comers and those who had been so united under the first dispensation. The charm was swiftly dispelled." By and by, "the mechanics who were to be the bone and sinew of the new order, had raised the cry of 'democracy,' 'aristocracy,' in their most senseless acceptance, and had especially assailed Messrs. Ripley and Dana." The end was close at hand.

No change could seem greater than from Brook Farm to Sing Sing prison, where Miss Bruce next sought occupation as an assistant matron with Mrs. Farnham and Mrs. Mary Ann Johnson. This chapter offers a high degree of painful interest, and is in every way profitable reading. Seminary teaching in Illinois followed, and then plantation (white) school-teaching in Missouri, furnishing inside views of slavery; whence, by an easy transition, returning to the East, Miss Bruce became governess in the house of Robert Purvis of Philadelphia. Her final chapter is a bundle of anti-slavery reminiscences, in which we notice some confusion of dates and some improbabilities, for which the lapse of time is responsible.

As this book doubtless went to press without Mrs. Kirby's revision, we will not insist on the typographical errors in which it abounds. None is more remarkable than "Jonesbery" (p. 135) for Jones Very; though "Francis Wright Darnsmont" (p. 278) for Frances Wright Darusmont ranks not far behind.

Studies in Musical History. By Louis S. Davis. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1887. Pp. 164.

ALTHOUGH occasionally somewhat dry and didactic, this brief collection of essays is well worth the attention of music-lovers, few of whom can read it without learning something new and interesting, and without a freshened enthusiasm for what is best in their art. The author is evidently an organist. In the two chapters on his instrument, he points out many of the commonest faults of organists, one of which is the mania for improvising, notwithstanding that there is a vast amount of available music by the greatest masters. "Suppose that any person of ordinary musical talent should call together an audience and improvise for their delectation on the piano, violin, or any other instrument; how long would it be tolerated? Yet in the performance of the most sacred office of music, this impertinence goes unchallenged." In a paper on the Choral, Mr. Davis justly inveighs against the absurd titles, such as Uxbridge, Manchester, Birmingham, etc., given to church hymns, and pleads for the introduction, in place of these vapid productions, of the meaty German chorales. A very few of these "have found their way into our hymnody, and the fact of the popularity of such hymns as Dundee and Old Hundred shows that the introduction of the whole Luther choral would be by the mass of the people welcomed and adopted." "In Germany children are taught to sing the choral just as they are taught to read and write. These hymns are the heritage of the people, and the school-children know them, not by some irrelevant, meaningless title, but by that one text which they were intended to interpret." The "Use and Influence of Bells" is the title of a long chapter in which Mr. Davis, among other things, remarks on the influence bells have had on architecture. It is to them that churches owe their towers, which were originally built in order that the summoning tones might be heard at a greater distance, and less harshly near by. Many are the ecclesiastic and domestic associations connected with bells, and yet the bell has had its day, as Mr. Davis admits. The watch and the newspaper have taken its place as an enunciator of time and of events, and the complaints of invalids and others that bells are a nuisance have not remained unheeded.

Among the other essays in this volume those on "Color and Thought in Music," "Teachers and Taught," and "The Modern Song" are the most readable. The first named contains an excellent page on the influence which *association* has in determining our musical likings. "A Scotchman once said to me that he would rather hear the bagpipes than any other instrument. I thought it bad, not to say execrable, taste. On me it produced only the effect of sensation, but on him that of beloved association." The following is also worth quoting: "Men want exact thinkers nowadays in music as in philosophy. We don't want love-songs tacked on to psalm tunes, nor sacred texts found in the company of Moody and Sankey."

Les Solutions Démocratiques de la Question des Impots. Par Léon Say. 2 vols. Paris. 1886.

M. SAY has, in his latest work, produced a study which ought to be in the hands of every thinking workingman. The demagogues (and they are not all politicians, for some who profess to teach political economy are strongly tinged with the true demagogic spirit) flatter the laborer that, by a sudden revolution, the social structure may be changed so as to obliterate the distinction between capital and labor, to make the laborer other than he is, and independent of his daily toil. We have been surfeited with treatises on the labor question, ranging from those which tell the workingman to stay where he is and accept his destiny, to those which coddle him and flatter him with the hope that all may be his, did he only act. It is pleasant to light upon such a study as that of M. Say, for it holds out no ready-made scheme of universal happiness; it takes men as they are. Moreover, it carries the war into the camp of the discontents, and, taking up the claim of the enemy, subjects it to analysis and criticism, showing that both practice and theory prove that the means are inadequate to the proposed objects, and are even ruinous and destructive to those who resort to them. This is the true function of the economist; and for this task M. Say is peculiarly fitted, by an inherited aptitude, by careful study, and by a wide practical experience as a banker and a man of affairs. To these qualities he adds a clear and concise style, contrasting strongly with the involved paragraphs of the dreamer who seems hardly conscious himself of what he desires.

Taxation forms a convenient instrument for working injustice under the pretence of effecting a public benefit, and it is as weapons of offence that some of the earliest forms of taxation meet the student, and especially in the customs, where the idea of discriminating between native and foreigner has always availed. It is a like abuse of the tax function to levy taxes upon one class of the community for the benefit of another, or to tax one class and exempt arbitrarily another. Though the tariff may again be cited, that is not a democratic instrument, and it is not the tax which is urged by "democracy"—by which M. Say means the workingmen. Their end, they believe, can be better attained by a graduated income tax, and this is proposed in the platforms of the "labor party" in the United States as well as in France.

The idea of a graduated tax, based upon a division of the population into classes, is an old one, and the crude attempts to frame a capitation tax graduated according to the rank of the taxable, show how naturally the conception of such a tax arises. It is hardly necessary to say that such a tax, no matter how minutely apportioned, is one of the most arbitrary and unequal that can be laid, and it was not long before it was discarded. While this idea of graduating taxes is of ancient date, it was intended to work justice by equalizing burdens; to make it an instrument of injustice is a refinement of modern times which has arisen in a not unnatural manner, and nowhere more logically than in France. For centuries there was a struggle against personal taxes and in favor of taxes on real property. The system of personal taxes lent itself with peculiar readiness to inequality, and, when subject to the capricious rapacity of a king, the greed and interest of a farmer of taxes, or even the general laws of the land controlled by certain classes of the community, the inequality became still greater. So that, at the time of the French Revolution, it would be scarcely an exaggeration to assert that in no two provinces of the kingdom were taxes assessed and collected in the same manner, hardly two persons in the land paid taxes according to the same rule. Property counted for nothing as a basis of assessment—the individual was all; and a glance at Taine's 'Ancien Régime' will show to what an extent personal taxes were engines of oppression. The very name *taille* or *corvée* awakens no thoughts unattended by conceptions of dire tyranny.

To abolish this inequality and substitute for it equality was the aim of the democracy which grew out of the Revolution; and in furthering their views they had the support of the economists of that day, to whom the system of personal taxation was no less obnoxious, both in theory and in practice, than it was to the people. The details of what was accomplished need not be recounted; in the end a double tax on income resulted. The capitation tax, by being divided and subdivided according to rank or profession, becomes in reality a tax on income, like the class-tax of Germany, while the principles of a land tax are extended to personal property; and, from taxing the property or capital, it is but one step to taxing the income derived from that property or capital.

Later it is seen that the progress of reform divorces it from justice. Instead of continuing to seek to equalize burdens and sacrifices by applying the principles laid down by political economy, the new democracy turned against their former oppressors—the rich and privileged—and, by the very instrument which, if properly controlled, would produce a new and just tax system, they sought and still seek to pull down capital, which they still regard as their oppressor. Whether persons or property are to be taxed, income or capital, the idea is the same—to impose a heavier burden upon the rich, or rather upon the capitalist, than a true adjustment of sacrifices would demand. In other words, taxation is to become an instrument for effecting a new distribution of wealth, for transferring wealth from those who have to those who have not.

It is through the machinery of a graduated income tax that this new system is to be made effective. But how is the tax to be assessed? To judge by outward appearances is most unsatisfactory, though the French adopted at one time the rents of buildings as a gauge of the occupants' income. Proportionality would seem to be the only safe rule: double or treble the income, double or treble the tax. This is not the rule that has been adopted, for, after a few stages, it becomes unendurable, practically amounting to confiscation. To obviate this difficulty, the supporters of the system frame a scale, say one per cent. on incomes less than $2,000, two per cent. on incomes from $2,000 to $5,000—a scale which is not only purely arbitrary, but results in restoring that personal taxation which prevailed in the last century. Where the scale is high, it is destructive to capital, and where it is low it is unproductive of revenue. In any case there is danger of tapping the stream which supplies trade and industry with the aliment they require, and on which national progress depends. Wherever it has been tried (and M. Say examines in detail the systems of taxing income in England, Germany, France, Switzerland, and Italy), it has failed of its purpose, and has introduced an element of uncertainty, and almost of oppression, which has proved noxious to the best interests of the community. Nor should the efforts to tax incomes made in the United States during the last war be omitted, though M. Say takes no notice of them. The short experience at that time proved how impossible it was to assess and collect an income tax under the Federal Government, even when the idea of graduation had been applied; and certainly no State could attempt a like measure without doing violence to its economic welfare.

The zeal of Proudhon in behalf of the workingman can hardly be questioned, yet no one could be more intensely prejudiced against the graduated income tax. At the other extreme stands Mill, who denounced such a tax as graduated robbery. In the light of such severe condemnation by labor reformers and orthodox economists, and in the face of a full experience which has not shown brilliant results when confined within safe bounds, it were madness to advocate so dangerous a remedy, and one so capable of being abused. Dangerous it would be, for what situation could be more replete with danger than one in which taxes are collected from one part of the community to be expended by another?

Nearly fifty years ago M. Thiers sought to check Socialism by showing how impracticable and mischievous were the schemes advanced by Socialists. M. Say's treatise should be placed with Thiers's 'La Propriété,' for it has the same object in view, and is even more timely and practical.

The Aztecs, their History, Manners, and Customs. From the French of Lucien Biart. Authorized translation by J. L. Garner. 1 Vol. 8vo, pages 342. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1887.

THIS book contains nothing new, and yet, despite this most damaging fact, it will be found to have a certain use in so far as it gives us the history of these people as it is usually told, together with an account of their civil and religious polity and their manners and customs, in a more compact and convenient form than we remember to have met with elsewhere.

Brief as this criticism may be, it is all that the work calls for, and we should feel justified in dismissing it without further notice, were it not that, in view of the modern method of investigation, the plan which our author has followed of repeating the accounts of the early writers without a word of explanation or a note of warning (except, perhaps, in one instance), seems to invite comment. And here it may be well to premise that we do not propose to concern ourselves with the story of the wanderings of these people before they finally settled down in the valley of Mexico, nor do we intend to question the accuracy of the account here given of the career of conquest which they are said to have subsequently followed, and which resulted in placing them at the head of the confederacy that opposed the advance of Cortes. All that we are told on these points may or may not be true; but as it can be neither proved nor disproved, it may be passed over with the simple remark that it is not more impossible or improbable than are many of the stories connected with the early histories of Greece and Rome, which we were once taught to regard as fact, but which are now looked upon as fable.

What, however, we do object to, is the false idea which a perusal of these early records must inevitably give of the social and political condition of the ancient Mexicans, unless they are accompanied by a friendly word of caution as to the proper mode of interpreting them. Formerly no such warning was ever given or deemed necessary. We accepted the accounts as they came down to us literally, just as is often done to-day, and hence the prevalence of the extravagant ideas as to the high type of civilization of which these people are assumed to have been the exemplars. For this mistake on our part, the old chroniclers are not wholly responsible. They have not, as a rule, been guilty of any intentional misstatements, neither have they indulged in any very great amount of exaggeration, save when it became necessary to magnify the courage and achievements of the Spanish conquerors; but it is we who, failing to make due allowance for the circumstances under which they wrote, have persistently misunderstood them. Thus, for instance, when one of these old worthies, making use of the only terminology with which he was acquainted, describes an Indian pueblo and its inhabitants in terms that were suited to the Court of Madrid and the Church of Rome, but which were totally out of place in the connection in which they were used, we do not interpret them by what we know of the manners and customs of the Indians who were here when the Europeans first arrived, as indeed we ought to do; but we endeavor to read them by the light of the civilization that prevailed in the Spanish peninsula at the time of the conquest, and this of course, leads us into error. Fortunately, however, all this is now in process of change. The comparative method of study, now so generally employed in investigating questions of this character, has been used by writers like Morgan and Bandelier with brilliant results; and, thanks to their efforts, we are gradually arriving at a correct appreciation of the position which the Aztecs, or, as we prefer to call them, the ancient Mexicans, had reached in the scale of development.

Under this mode of treatment, Montezuma, "the King," disappears, and in his place we have a simple war chief, such as might have been found among the Creeks, the Iroquois, or any other of our "military democracies." Rude communal houses of mud and stone are no longer described as "palaces" with marble columns, etc., and we have ceased to speak of a medicine lodge on top of a mound as a "temple." So, too, we have come to recognize the fact that industries and institutions which were once thought to be characteristic of the Mexicans, and upon which their claim to a higher civilization was based, were not unknown to the Indians east of the Mississippi and south of the great lakes. A counterpart, for example, to the Mexican merchant might have been found in the Huron peddler who travelled hundreds of miles in search of a purchaser for his wares. The famous feather dresses which so captivated the fancy of the Spanish chroniclers did not, probably, differ from the "match coats" that were in such general use among our own Indians, except in the brilliant plumage of the birds from which they were made; and a "public treasure," or general purse, made up by voluntary contributions, or by tribute from conquered tribes, and devoted to the exercise of tribal hospitality and to defraying what may be justly termed public expenditures, was common to the Iroquois, the Creeks, and the Florida tribes as well as to the Mexicans.

But it is unnecessary to pursue this branch of the subject further, though it would be an easy matter to swell the list of these resemblances to an indefinite extent. Enough, however, has been said to show the method of investigation that is now generally adopted, and to foreshadow the conclusion towards which the researches on this point now tend. Indeed, we might even go further, and venture the assertion that among the aborigines of America there prevailed at this time but one phase of development from Canada to Panama. Differences, no doubt, there were among the numerous tribes that held this region, in their domestic arts, their customs, and, possibly, in their forms of worship: but these are believed to be differences of degree and not of kind, and they consequently do not imply a difference in the civilization of the peoples among whom they were found. Probably there exist to-day, and within this city, greater differences, and more of them, than could have been found, at the date of the Spanish conquest, in the whole of the two Americas from Greenland to Tierra del Fuego.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Friend in Need; A Household Guide in Health and Disease. Boston: Cupples & Co. 75 cents.
Badlam, Anna B. Suggestive Lessons in Language and Reading. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.65.
Bernhardt, W. Deutsche Novellerten-Bibliothek. Band I. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Bourinet, Dr. J. G. Local Government in Canada: An Historical Study. Baltimore: N. Murray. 50 cents.
Dahlgren, Madeleine Vinton. Lights and Shadows of a Life. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.50.
Dayne, J. B. In the Name of the Tzar; A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 15 cents.
Del Mar, E. H. Classified Business Directory of Mexico, Central and South America, Cuba and Porto Rico. Spanish-American Commercial Co. $10.
Greene, H. The Blind Brother. A Story of the Pennsylvania Coal Mines. Thomas Y. Crowell. 90 cents.
Health of Our Children. Boston: Cupples & Co. 75 cents.
Hodges, Katherine. Fifty Years a Queen. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Hughes, T. P. American Ancestry. Vol. I. The City of Albany, N. Y. Albany: Joel Munsell's Sons.
Hylton, J. D. Arteloise: A Romance of King Arthur and Knights of the Round Table. Palmyra, N. J.: The Hylton Publishing Co.
Jackson, Helen (H. H.). Between Whiles. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $1.25.
Kellogg, Dr. A. H. Abraham, Joseph, and Moses in Egypt: A Course of Lectures. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.50.
Kennard, Nina A. Mrs. Siddons. [Famous Women Series.] Boston: Roberts Brothers. $1.
Kirkland, J. Zury, the Meanest Man in Spring County. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Kirkman, M. M. The Handling of Railway Supplies; Their Purchase and Disposition. Chicago: Charles N. Trivess.
Knight, Mrs. A. A. A Primer of Botany. Boston: Ginn & Co. 35 cents.
Ladd, Prof. G. T. Outlines of Logic and of Encyclopædia of Philosophy. Dictated Portions of the Lectures of Hermann Lotze. Boston: Ginn & Co.

Fine Arts.

SOCIETY OF AMERICAN ARTISTS.—I.

THE ninth exhibition of the Society of American Artists, now open at the Yandell Gallery at Fifth Avenue and Nineteenth Street, is the best the Society has yet held. It is not a large exhibition, containing but 148 numbers in all, but by reason of the high average of the work, and the excellent arrangement of the pictures on the walls, it ranks far above any other exhibition of native art of the present year. The small number of contributions from Europe is remarkable. At other exhibitions of the Society Mr. Sargent, or Mr. Dannat, or Mr. Whistler, Mr. Donoho, or Mr. Harrison, among the members of the Society, have sent pictures of note, and other painters in the foreign colony have forwarded a fair proportion. This year we find only Mr. Davis's two landscapes, Mr. Melchers's small genre, Mr. Metcalf's and Mr. Hitchcock's and Mr. Stark's three pictures, or six in all. A pastel head by M. Rajon is to be added to these, and the rest is home work. As to originality, there are very few conventional canvases. Mr. Metcalf's "Goose Girl," No. 96, an excellent outdoor study of a peasant girl at Grez, with the Grez willows and the familiar River Loing as a setting, is one, however; being exactly like a dozen other pictures painted at Grez by other artists, and painted with the eyes of others. Mr. Beckwith's portrait, No. 6, and Mr. Rice's portrait, No. 110, may be likewise criticised for a leaning to the methods of Carolus Duran. Mr. Blum's "Venetian Palaces," No. 13, is not without resemblance to the work of Rico; Mr. Chase's portrait, No. 30, shows slightly the influence of Whistler; and in Mr. Cox's large decoration, No. 37, there is a suspicion of unconscious imitation of some of the work of the Venetians. It is hypercritical, perhaps, to pick out these few instances for remark, for they are unoriginal to a degree only. In general, as we have said, originality is the stamp of this exhibition, and is all the more striking in that it is so diversified. It is as noticeable in the landscape as in the figure work also.

To begin with the latter, could there be a more personal piece of painting than the "Portrait," No. 16, by Robert B. Brandegee? It is an admirable head, exactly yet freely drawn, broadly painted, without a suggestion of endeavor to be flippantly clever. It is natural, honest, and real. It has some defects, it is true, such as a slight muddiness of color in the shadows, and a lack of simplicity in the modelling of the chin; but these are lost sight of in looking at the head as a whole. It is free from affectation, and has a completeness about it that makes of this painting of the simplest of subjects a real work of art. The "Portrait of Mrs. H.," No. 28, by William M. Chase, exhibits some of the best qualities of good painting. The full-length figure of a lady in walking costume is real and life-like; in the painting of it, all things of moment are properly insisted

on, without undue attention to detail. It is one of the eminently original works in the exhibition, though it may not be essentially different in treatment from other portraits by the same artist, who must now be conceded a position by himself. He has a style of his own and is strong enough to have followers. His "Portrait of My Sister," No. 32, is charming. The naïve, girlish pose of the figure is thoroughly in character, and there is a delicacy of observation in the painting of the various parts of the white dress productive of the keenest sort of pleasure. The head is well modelled and fresh in color, and the figure again, as in the other painting, is well drawn. These two portraits are enough in themselves to give Mr. Chase a dominant place in the exhibition, but we find in "Portrait," No. 21, a small half-length of a seated figure of a lady, another delightful little bit of color and the most skilful sort of painting; in "Landscape," No. 29—a simple motive of land and sky—a delicate note of color; and in "Prospect Park, Brooklyn," No. 32, one of the most refreshing and truthful little transcripts of nature, smiling in the sunshine and full of light and air, that it would be possible to imagine. It is only at the Society of American Artists that we are accustomed to see Mr. Chase's work exhibited, and he has never been seen to better advantage than he is this year.

Edmond C. Tarbell, a new name in New York exhibitions, makes an unequivocal success with his "Portrait of Miss S.," No. 121. This young lady, in her well-fitting gown of black silk, standing by a small table with a wrap of silk and fur at her feet behind her, is of a type such as it is not easy to paint successfully. The face is subtle; it is not simply pretty, nor is it of the strikingly handsome style, more common in women of maturer age than this young lady. It is refined and delicate, sweet in expression and rather negative in character—something very American, and yet without the distinguishing marks of race, as we find them in the women of Europe. Now Mr. Tarbell has made of this portrait a picture that is good in every way. From the technical point of view it is simply and directly painted; the figure is well placed on the canvas and is well drawn. It is agreeable, almost handsome in color. From the point of view of the general observer, it is a beautiful picture of a refined and gently bred young lady. There is scarce a fault to find with the painting, it is so even throughout. If it does not possess the personality of the work of Mr. Chase or Mr. Brandegee or Mr. Dewing, it has a charm of its own to distinguish it. This portrait must be classed well up among the best things in the gallery. Dennis M. Bunker, in "Portrait," No. 21, has painted a life-size sitting female figure which is as remarkable for positiveness of type as Mr. Tarbell's is for the absence of it. The head is intellectual, and the face seems to be that of a person of strength of mind and force of character. There is an air of gravity in the simple black costume in which the figure is clad, in the plain arrangement of the hair and the absence of ruffles or ruches about the neck or wrists. The background to this sober figure is a simple mass of gray, as severe and unadorned as the figure itself. It is pleasant to find an artist laying out for himself such a serious study, and Mr. Bunker has in the main been successful in his treatment of it. It is somewhat hard and edgy in parts, like some of Mr. Thayer's work—notably in the turn of the side of the face, which does not round off into the background, but has a papery, flat look. The black of the dress is of a handsome tone. Most remarkable, however, is the important element of drawing.

A small half-length figure of a lady in evening dress of black, with the head seen in profile, "Portrait," No. 49, by T. W. Dewing, is of a sort only to be found at the exhibitions of this Society. That such a delicate bit of refined drawing and color would hold its own in another exhibition, among whatever gaudy landscapes or carmine-cheeked milkmaids it might chance to be placed, no one can doubt; but here, surrounded by congenial company, on a wall adapted to an art exhibition, it may be properly seen, and, thus seen, cannot fail to be appreciated. It is one of the gems of the exhibition.

Such a collection of portraits as these half dozen we have been discussing is enough of itself to place the exhibition on a high level. But there are other portraits here which invite notice: "Portrait of a Young Lady," No. 72, by Miss W. D. Hawley, is an excellent little head, well drawn and simply modelled. "Portrait of a Child," No. 35, by Kenyon Cox, a small profile head of a little girl, though almost devoid of color, is refined in treatment, and is a clever piece of drawing. "Portrait of Mrs. R. W. G.," No. 60, by Wyatt Eaton, a half-length picture of a lady, is remarkable for some excellent qualities of color, notably in the hands, and for an air of repose and dignity in the subject. "Portrait of Mrs. J.," No. 96, by Wilson de Meza, an outdoor study, possesses considerable truth of observation; the head especially being successfully modelled, with the subtle gradations produced by the diffused light of the open air. "Portrait of Miss Phoebe Russell," No. 110, by W. M. J. Rice, a life-size, full-length figure in Florentine costume, though somewhat empty and loose in construction, is broadly painted and good in general effect. "Portrait," No. 62, and "Portrait," No. 63, by Miss Rosina Emmett, and "Portrait," No 147, by Irving R. Wiles, have serious qualities, and are creditable productions even when judged by the high standard which prevails about them. "Portrait of a Child," No. 6, by J. Carroll Beckwith, is as cleverly painted as usual, but it is not of this artist's best. Directly and accurately drawn, it is inharmonious in color. "Portrait Head," No. 51, and "Portrait of Lady and Dog," No. 53, by Thomas Eakins, are curious specimens of the work of a man of reputation whose presence here can only be accounted for on the supposition that traditions have some weight in the Society as well as in less progressive bodies of artists. In sculpture, "Portrait Bust," No. 71, by J. S. Hartley, well modelled and strong in character; "Bust of J. Carroll Beckwith," No. 17, by George T. Brewster, which is fleshy in modelling and life-like, though not over just as a likeness; "Portrait of a Lady," No. 61, a bust in plaster by F. Edwin Elwell, a refined and simply treated head of a young woman; and "Portrait of a Lady, Bust in Bronze," No. 139, by Olin L. Warner, must be noted in the long list of portrait work in the exhibition. It is in portraits more than in any other sort of work that the greatest progress seems to have been made since last year. Of the landscapes we shall have to speak at another time.

Mr. Kenyon Cox, in "Painting and Poetry," No. 37, has carried out a happy idea of painting, in the form of a decoration with life-size figures, the admirable design for the dedication to his well-known illustrations of the 'Blessed Damozel.' It is not greatly to his discredit that he has been only partially successful. The painting of the nude figure which personifies the Art of Painting seems to be perfunctory and without truth of form. The legs and feet are by no means well drawn. The head, which, in his small drawing, was excellent in character, amounting almost to a creation of a new type, is here ordinary and coarse. The best part of this figure is the torso, in which there is really good painting of the nude. Much better in ensemble is the draped figure of Poetry. This large canvas, in spite of faults of detail, is in general exceedingly effective. It is agreeable in tone and finely composed.

"Woman and Swan," No. 123, by Abbot H. Thayer, is, we take it, but another title for "Leda," long a favorite subject with painters: there is such a delightful chance to contrast the flesh tones with the dull white mass of the swan's feathered body, such a rare opportunity to paint a woman's hand nestling caressingly on the bird's white plumage, such graceful lines to be found in the curve of his neck and in the recumbent figure of the woman. Mr. Thayer's picture is an unequal performance. On the one hand, the woman's right thigh and knee, with the muddy brownish flesh color and hot brown patches of paint to represent shadows, are most disagreeable; on the other, her neck and bosom are luminous and beautiful in color and delicate in modelling. The well-poised head is well drawn and simply painted, but it is outlined with an ugly stripe around the edges which cuts it out as sharply as if it were made of paper. This is a picture with excellent qualities and striking faults. Mr. Thayer's work is becoming more and more mannered. It is a long step downward from the "Portrait of a Lady with the Horse," the admirable picture shown by him in one of the Society's first exhibitions, to the "Woman and Swan"; yet if he were a new-comer, the "Woman and Swan" would make him distinguished.

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VI.

The Popular Science Monthly for June.

CONTENTS:

ARE RAILROADS PUBLIC ENEMIES? II. By Appleton Morgan.
SOME HUMAN INSTINCTS. By Prof. William James.
THEOLOGY UNDER CHANGED CONDITIONS. By Canon Fremantle.
ASTRONOMY WITH AN OPERA-GLASS. The Stars of Summer. By Garrett P. Serviss. (Illustrated.)
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INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION AND RAILWAY SERVICE.
GRAINS OF SAND. By George Wardman.
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CONTENTS:

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 417

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS 420

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:
The Progress of Reform 422
The Beverly Incident 422
Diamonds 423

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:
Spring Meeting of the American Oriental Society 423
The Moral of the Schnaebelé Affair 424

CORRESPONDENCE:
Western Mortgages 425
The Beekman and Clinton Coats 426
Archæology in the Mediterranean 426

NOTES 426

REVIEWS:
Jebb's Introduction to Homer 429
Recent Novels 429
Final Memorials of Henry Wadsworth Longfellow 431
History of Woman Suffrage 432
Impressions on Painting 433
The Huguenots and Henry of Navarre 434
Perley's Reminiscences of Sixty Years in the National Metropolis 434

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 434

FINE ARTS:
The Society of American Artists.—II 435

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 19, 1887.

The Week.

ONE of the stock arguments of the Republican organs in 1884 was the assertion that Mr. Cleveland was not qualified to appear with credit on those occasions where the President of the United States is called upon to represent the nation. Save in the wilds of Iowa, where Republican Bourbonism has taken its last refuge, and where newspapers still allude to Mr. Cleveland as "a beefy nonentity," this sort of talk has now ceased. The President's address at the Harvard celebration last summer, and his hearty reception by the cultivated audience there gathered, dealt a hard blow at the campaign theory about Mr. Cleveland's intellectual equipment and the way in which he would be regarded by thoughtful citizens. His admirable address at the unveiling of the Garfield monument last week has destroyed what little vitality the fiction still preserved. Even bitter Republican organs like the New York *Tribune* and the Philadelphia *Press* have been compelled to commend it. "President Cleveland deserves hearty approbation and thanks for speaking true and worthy words," says the *Tribune*. "President Cleveland is to be congratulated upon his address," says the *Press*; "it was dignified, patriotic, and eloquent." Some of the Bourbon Republican organs refrain from any comment upon the address, but, so far as we have observed, none of them suppressed it; and to allow their readers to see it is to destroy the effect of any future sneers at the President as wanting in capacity to deliver a dignified, patriotic, and eloquent address.

There is usually a reason to be found for every public dinner, if one searches far enough for it. The reason for the dinner given to Mr. Roosevelt last week was stated by Mr. Chauncey Depew with entire frankness. It was, he said, to do honor to "the ideal *young* man in politics." Now, there are ideal old men in politics, such as Blaine, Sherman, Evarts, and Hoar, not to mention some who were present at the feast last week. This dinner was not for them. It was for the rising generation and for a new deal. So far it was in accord with the teachings of nature, which bestows her most attractive gifts upon the budding plant. But the paucity of political issues other than the claims of young men was painfully apparent in the speeches on Wednesday week. Mr. Roosevelt himself seemed to be searching for such an issue in "the painful and ridiculous vanity of the Mugwumps." His associations with them have been so intimate that his estimate of them ought to have great weight; but this will hardly answer for a political issue, because the Mugwumps, however ridiculous and self conceited they may be, are not candidates for any office. Senator Hiscock was firm in the belief that "tariff for protection, against tariff for revenue only, will be the issue that will divide the parties in 1888." Mr. Depew, the next speaker, was so far from this opinion that he thought it would be necessary to bar the door and imprison the audience if anybody should talk on that dreadful subject. It reminded him of an anecdote in which a sheriff who was about to hang a horse-thief, improved the occasion of a brief respite in the execution to make a few remarks to the spectators on the tariff. Mr. Depew is right in his estimate of the attractiveness of the issue which has so much fascination for Mr. Hiscock. Mr. Blaine sought to make the tariff the moving theme of the last campaign, but without any marked success. It is not to be expected that Mr. Hiscock will succeed in giving tunefulness to the tariff as a political issue when Mr. Blaine failed.

Mr. Cabot Lodge considered the fishery question a hopeful issue, and uttered the lofty sentiment that "whenever the American flag on an American fishing smack is touched by a foreigner, the great American heart is touched." Ex Judge Davis found the true issue in the liquor question. Other speakers considered the inefficiency of the Cleveland Administration a good opening for attack. It was argued that the Democratic party, although in possession of the Executive branch of the Government and also of the House of Representatives, had not been able to carry any measure of party policy even through the branch of Congress controlled by it. This is sad indeed, but we must remember that it is an old Democratic maxim that "the best government is that which governs least." It may turn out that the people prefer a party and an Administration whose chief distinction consists in vetoing the profligate measures of the other party, and in not being able to pass many bills of their own. The scarcity of issues that was so painfully apparent among Republicans at the Roosevelt dinner may be equally marked among Democrats, but the latter possess the advantage of having a man who stands for something at the head of affairs. What he stands for we shall not now attempt to say, but that he stands for *something* is the general belief of both parties.

The turning of the *Times* against Mr. Theodore Roosevelt is a sad finale to the great Mayoral melodrama of which Mr. Roosevelt was the hero last fall, but it does credit to the candor and sagacity of the *Times*. As a reformer in a place in which energy, and courage, and youth were much needed, Mr. Roosevelt was once very useful, but it was a mistake ever to take him seriously as a politician, and the probabilities are that his drafts on public attention in this latter capacity will now steadily diminish. He is rapidly going the way of other young "scholars in politics" of less promise than he, by trying to be "practical"—a rôle for which they have not a quarter of the fitness of Mike Cregan and Johnny O'Brien, and in which their real superiority is utterly wasted. It is a great pity, but their career after all illustrates and enforces the great truth that there is no part for which a young man is less fitted than that of an apologist.

Mr. Theodore Roosevelt's chatterbox abuse of the Mugwumps, of which he has sent a revised edition to the *Tribune*, is very diverting, considered as the return he makes to the *Times* for the unstinting support it gave him for the office of Mayor of a great city. Everything about that Mayoral campaign was more or less droll: the candidate, his promises, his aspirations, his qualifications, the kind of backing he got, and the end of the horn at which he came out when all was over. But nothing in it was half as droll as the return he is now making to his chief admirer. "Nine miles in a locomotive and four speeches in one evening" is nothing to it. We have little doubt, however, that there is more to follow. The quality of the chatter indicates clearly that the supply is abundant.

The compromise between Virginia and her English bondholders has fallen through. This is greatly to be regretted, and quite as much for the State as for the bondholders. It is safe to say that the agitation caused by a continuation of the tender of coupons in payment of taxes will greatly endanger the present Government of the State, and make no one more sorry than the Democratic politicians that they did not settle the question once for all this spring. The causes of disagreement between the State and bondholders were both as to the amount of the debt and the nature of the security to be given. Differences of amount are natural and proper subjects of compromise, but if the disagreement in regard to the nature of the security means that the State objects to issuing any bond with tax-receivable coupons, it is raising an objection out of the limits of compromise. It is difficult to see how sensible, not to say sane, men can expect their creditors to place themselves completely at their mercy. To ask such a thing is suspicious on its face, and the results of submitting to scaling in other Southern States are not encouraging. The noble State of Tennessee, for instance, scaled its debt heavily with the consent of its bondholders, and, after one year, defaulted on its interest, and has been in default ever since. If Virginia intends to pay, why should she object to being bound to pay? And although the present Assembly could be trusted to keep its faith, how can it guarantee that its successors will, especially in view of the Southern doctrine that a legislative body has no right to bind its successors—a doctrine as subversive of all public honesty and decency as the doctrine of the middle ages, that it was no harm to break faith with infidels? So apt are Southern Legislatures to repudiate the promises of their predecessors that, in Louisiana, a debt guaranteed with all the solemnity of a clause in the State Constitution was within five years swept aside. With such facts as these

staring them in the face, the English bondholders would be foolish indeed if they were to exchange the fruits of their hard-earned victories in the United States Courts for the word of honor of the Old Dominion; while for the State to persist in its demand is to place itself under the suspicion of attempting to trick the bondholders out of all their legal rights.

The verdict of guilty rendered by the jury against the Everests in the Buffalo oil conspiracy case appears to be a verdict in general terms against the Standard Oil Trust—it is a misnomer to call it a company, for there is no corporation of this name. If the Everests had been wholly disconnected from the Standard people, we cannot believe that they would have been found guilty upon the evidence in this case of a plot to blow up the works of a rival concern in another city, to destroy property and to put lives in jeopardy—that is, to commit arson and expose themselves to imprisonment in the penitentiary. Of course this verdict will be reviewed by the court in which it was rendered, and perhaps by the higher courts. It will be safest not to conclude that the Everests belong to the criminal classes from the case as it now stands. It is much more probable that indignation against the Standard Oil monopoly has become so deep-seated and pervading that no jury can be drawn that will not aim a blow at it, even if it be a blow in the dark. The decision rendered in New Orleans on Saturday, on a demurrer in the Cotton Oil case, is much more telling against these new-fangled monopolies called Trusts than the verdict of the Buffalo jury. The judge held that the mere fact that a group of persons were exercising the powers of a joint-stock company, without any act of incorporation, was itself a cause of action against them. We do not see why the Standard Oil Trust may not be dissolved and dissipated into its original elements by an application of this principle.

The State of New York collected for one year a tax on the entire capital stock of the Western Union Telegraph Company—that is, on the value of its property situated and operated in all the other States and Territories as well as in this State. The injustice of the act of 1881, under which this assessment was made, was so obvious and shameful that a change of the law was made in the following year, so as to give the State Comptroller the discretion to tax the entire capital of joint-stock companies, or only that portion employed and situated in this State. Subsequently the law was still further changed by taking away this discretion, and providing that only the latter portion should be taxed. Meanwhile, the tax of 1881 had been enforced against the Western Union Company by a judgment which was affirmed by the Court of Appeals, on the ground that the courts cannot change even bad laws, but can only interpret them. The law of 1881 was not unconstitutional—it was only unjust. The court, however, in affirming the judgment, said that the Western Union Company had a moral claim against the State for a refund of the tax, and that it might properly appeal to the Legislature for the relief which it had failed to obtain elsewhere. A bill is now before the Legislature to create a Board of Claims, to which this as well as other claims may be referred. It does not appear that the Western Union Company has taken any interest in this bill, and it is to be hoped that it will not. What it is entitled to is a refund of this money, not the privilege of going before a board or commission and proving the claim. This has already been proved in the court of last resort and in the conscience of every honest citizen and taxpayer. It is a claim that will come up at every future session of the Legislature, and it will have to be paid, and paid with interest. Why should there be any hesitation about paying it now?

Mayor Hewitt's address to the locomotive firemen on Sunday was one of the best labor addresses workingmen have listened to for some time in this city, simply because it contained one of those chunks of human experience known as "common sense." Common sense is simply the result of human observation applied through many ages to the phenomena of every-day life. One of the most familiar of these results is the fact that human society, in every stage of civilization, has been simply an anti-poverty association. Every son of Adam who has ever lived on the globe and was not a lunatic, has been a member of this organization, and engaged vigorously in the work of abolishing his own poverty. Some seek to abolish it by their own labor and frugality, others by the labor and frugality of other people, but all are foes to poverty. If every man could succeed, of course poverty, as Mr. Hewitt pointed out, would disappear from the earth. Why poverty should have more to fear from the McGlynn-George Association than from the human race in general, has not as yet been satisfactorily explained. Until it has, we would advise no one to contribute to its funds. Nature, who holds the key of all possible wealth, has thus far, when making dividends, been exceedingly indifferent to oratory.

It is the knowledge displayed at the George and McGlynn's meetings of the intentions of the Creator which really, far more than their political economy, gives them their importance. Mr. George was on Sunday able to make a special announcement that "the Creator meant His bounties of nature equally for all men." "Instead of this," said he, "we have allowed them to become the property of a few individuals." There is something very puzzling about all this. In the first place, how did Mr. George find out what the Creator's intentions about the division of property were? There is nothing in Mr. George's history or antecedents, or in his appearance, to indicate how he came to be selected as a special recipient of the confidences of the Almighty. In the second place, if what he says be true, how does it happen that the Creator has allowed his "intentions," as revealed by George, to be frustrated by people like Jay Gould and Russell Sage? The "intentions" of the Creator, as usually understood, mean his fixed will, expressed in the order of nature, which no man can gainsay or resist. According to George, however, not only can the divine plan in the creation of the universe be set aside by monopolists and stock operators, but it cannot be set working again without hiring a hall and starting a society with a dollar membership.

The sectional agitators of the Republican party have suffered a most grievous, and, we fear, a fatal loss, in the late but unmistakable conversion of Jeff. Davis to Union sentiments. In a speech at New Orleans on Friday Mr. Davis said to his Southern auditors: "United you are now, and if the Union is ever to be broken, let the other side break it. The truths we fought for shall not encourage you ever to fight again; but keep your word in good or evil." This is the most serious loss since the Democratic party came into power and failed to begin the payment of "rebel claims," or to do anything else to put the "Confederacy in the saddle again." For a long time, whatever else failed, the venerable bloody shirt shakers like Senator Hoar could fall back upon Jeff. Davis and Bob Toombs, and say that they were just as bad rebels as ever they were. But Toombs is dead, and now Davis has become reconciled. There is nothing left to cling to, and Horace Greeley's memorable prediction may be said to be fulfilled: "Your attempt to base a great, enduring party upon the hate and wrath necessarily engendered by a bloody civil war is as though you should plant a colony on an iceberg which had somehow drifted into a tropical ocean."

The death of Judge Woods of the United States Supreme Court has led some of the Republican organs to deplore that a Democratic President will now have the opportunity to appoint upon the Federal bench "a judge who believes that the Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth Amendments to the Constitution were unconstitutionally adopted, and that the reconstruction acts were revolutionary, unconstitutional, and void." They apparently forget that a Republican President has set the example of appointing such men, and even of placing upon the Federal bench "rebels" and "traitors" who fought for four years to overthrow the whole Constitution; Mr. Hayes having appointed as United States District Judge David M. Key, who "entered the Confederate Army in 1861, and served through the entire war as Lieutenant-Colonel of the Forty-third Tennessee Infantry," and who in 1868 supported Seymour and Blair upon a platform declaring that "we regard the reconstruction acts, so called, of Congress as a usurpation, and unconstitutional, revolutionary, and void."

The Liquor-Tax Bill, which the Michigan House of Representatives passed on Thursday by a large majority, provides a tax of $800 for all wholesale liquor-dealers and of $500 for all retail dealers, without regard to the kind of liquor they sell. The tax must be paid in advance, before the opening of a store or saloon, and half the proceeds are to go to the county, and half to the city, village, or township from which it is collected. The bill is a

very elaborate measure, providing against sales on holidays and Sundays, and against the adulteration of liquors, and making proprietors responsible for the action of their clerks, bartenders, and other employees. The large majority by which it has passed the House indicates its easy passage by the Senate.

The High-License Bill which has been passed by the Pennsylvania Legislature is in some respects different from legislation of this kind which has been enacted in other States. It puts all liquor-stores upon the same basis, requiring them to pay $500 for a license in Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, and Allegheny, $400 in all smaller cities, $200 in all boroughs, and $100 in townships. The State is to receive one-fifth of the revenue, the county one fifth, and the city or borough three-fifths. Of the revenue from townships the State is to receive one-fourth, the county one-fourth, and the township one-half. The power to grant licenses is vested in the Courts of Quarter Sessions in all localities, the judges being empowered to decide upon the necessity of the licenses applied for, and to revoke licenses on proof that a place is disorderly. The bill, which has been signed by the Governor, will go into effect on and after June 30. Compared with our "practical" Vedder bill, this is a just and statesmanlike measure. It pays over one-fifth of the revenue to the State, while the Vedder proposition is to tax New York and Brooklyn from two to thirteen times as much as the rest of the State, and turn the whole revenue over to the State Treasury.

It is shocking to learn that the Indian Government has discovered a treasure of $25,000,000 in silver in a secret receptacle in the palace of the late Maharajah of Gwalior. A dispute has arisen between the Government and the Maharajah's heirs as to the disposition of the money; but the mischief is just the same to us, whoever gets it. Here is a stock of silver equal to one year's coinage of our mint suddenly added to the world's supply. We must toil on for twelve months in order to put our own silver-producers in as good a position as they were before. And who knows that other similar discoveries may not be made in Eastern palaces? It is painful to think that our efforts to sustain the market are liable to be frustrated by wretched Indian workmen stumbling upon old vaults containing millions upon millions of buried rupees.

The wear and tear of the gold coinage in Great Britain has at last brought Parliament to consider seriously the question of authorizing the issue of one-pound notes. It is certainly strange that, with the example constantly before them of the convenient and by no means harmful employment of one-pound notes in Scotland, the English Government and people should have adhered to the five-pound limitation on bank notes. We believe the original objection to the one-pound note was largely humanitarian. That is, when counterfeiting was a capital offence, Parliament recoiled from putting the temptation of small notes in the counterfeiters' way. It seemed worth while to hang a man for a five-pound note, but not for a one. The objection has survived, as is not uncommon in England, long after the reason has been forgotten. In matters of finance John Bull is not merely conservative, he is absolutely deaf. He does not even now hear the arguments in favor of small bank notes. He only feels that he has lost a pile of money by carrying so much gold in his breeches pocket, wearing out the gold and tearing out the pocket at the same time. Another solecism has been brought under review by the discussion, and that is the cost of Bank of England notes—*i. e.*, the cost of manufacturing them. No note can be issued from the Bank a second time. If it is taken out by one depositor today and put in by another to-morrow, it must be immediately destroyed. The average cost of manufacturing notes in Belgium, Denmark, and the United States is shown by Mr. S. Montague to be only a half penny, as against 6d. in England. The need of reform in this particular is not as great, perhaps, as the need of one-pound notes, but it is such as to lead the *Economist* to say that the Bank directors must be prepared to move with the times, or see the work taken in hand by others who are prepared to do so.

The Orangemen in Toronto and Kingston have apparently been cooled off somewhat by holding a "loyalist" meeting, in which O'Brien and the Irish Nationalists were handsomely denounced, so that the fears of a riot are passing away. A good deal of violent language was used at the meeting—much of it by Mr. Goldwin Smith, who appears to grow more and more uncomfortable, for he has been writing to the London *Times* that Canada is now, to all intents and purposes, an "Irish Republic," which in his mouth means that Canada is becoming an earthly pandemonium. Lord Lansdowne appears to have a much cooler head than the Professor, however, for the Government organ, the Montreal *Gazette*, which undoubtedly reflects the Governor-General's view of the situation, reprobates some of the oratory at the meeting as "more earnest than wise," and as characterized by the faults which they themselves condemn in O'Brien. It condemns, also, the use of language at the meeting "which will rankle in the minds of other citizens," who, while not approving of O'Brien's methods, nevertheless sympathize with the cause which he represents. The Montreal *Herald*, which, though Liberal, has been opposed to O'Brien's mission, calls for "facts"; but facts that people will accept as facts, are hardly likely to be furnished from the platform at O'Brien's meetings.

The rumors about the condition of Parnell's health are very serious. No one has as yet spoken on the subject with so much authority as Mr. Justin McCarthy in his despatch in Sunday's *Herald*. He says:

> "I have seen Mr. Parnell since his return from Dublin, the day before yesterday. I believe he is better, so far as his bronchial attack is concerned, but his general health is far from good. He has aged sadly of late. He is still a young man, but he looks stooped and old and wasted. Ten years ago—even five years ago—he stood like a young athlete in the strife."

This is far from reassuring, and, in fact, seems to indicate that Parnell may, for all practical purposes, be considered *hors de combat*. There are as good or better men than he among the Irish party in the Commons for the work of resisting coercion bills or harassing the Ministry; but nobody's pledges or promises on the subject of home rule would have half as much weight with the English public as his. Whenever the main question comes up again he will be sadly missed by his followers, should he be unable to appear in his old place. If home rule were carried, too, his loss would be terribly felt when the new Government came to be organized, and the exultation of the rank and file to be restrained. The London *Times* is in the meantime rapidly lessening the weight of its attacks on him by revealing too many secrets. It now professes to have got at the inner workings of the "Clan na Gael," and is thus enabled to connect all the Irish leaders with more conspiracies and assassinations than ever. Of course this is spoiling the sensation market. Secrets are like stocks and bonds: the more of them you issue, the less you get for them. If you lead people to believe that the supply is unlimited—that is, that your treasury is full of them—you are sure before long to find that nobody will listen to you or let you "unload" on him.

The resignation of the French Ministry is probably much less serious than it looks. They have never had real control of the financial situation, or been really responsible for the budget. The Budget Committee and the Chamber keep the revenue very much in their own hands. The custom has long been, when the Ministers and the Chamber cannot agree about the estimates, to make the appropriation in twelfths—or, in other words, to vote the Ministry one, two, or three months' revenue, and postpone final settlement to some future day, which never comes. In fact, the epithet "makeshift" is the only one which can be properly applied to French financial policy during the last twelve years. The floating debt is enormous and increasing, owing to an annual deficit which each Chamber is unwilling to provide for by increased taxation. The difficulties of reduction in the expenditure are equally great. The cost of the army and navy must keep increasing more or less rapidly as long as the present relations with Germany last. The credit of the country is so good that the conversion of a portion of the rentes would be an easy task, but, as they are largely held by the peasantry, the Government is afraid to lower the rate of interest on them. In like manner the State absorbs the savings-bank deposits, and guarantees them both interest and principal, but actually pays higher interest on them than it can get on the money in the market, and is afraid to cut it down, lest it should offend the depositors, who are mainly artisans and small shopkeepers in the cities. Under these circumstances, no Ministry is really considered responsible for the finances in the sense in which an English Ministry is held to be responsible. M. Goblet has resigned, but he will probably take office again, or, if he does not, it will make no great difference in the situation.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, May 11, to TUESDAY, May 17, 1887, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

A BRONZE statue of President Garfield, erected by the Society of the Army of the Cumberland, was unveiled at Washington May 12. It is of heroic size, ten feet six inches in height, mounted on a pedestal, and looks away from the Capitol down Maryland Avenue. It represents Garfield in a graceful standing posture, with his coat thrown back from his shoulder, his right hand resting upon a book supported by a column, and his left holding a manuscript, as if he were addressing the people. The pedestal is eighteen feet high. President Cleveland made a brief address, in which he spoke of "the dangers of a mad chase after partisan spoils," and expressed the hope that the statue would strengthen the "solemn resolve to purge for ever from our political methods and from the operation of our Government the perversions and misconceptions which gave birth to passionate and bloody thoughts." A tablet in memory of the Union General, Sedgwick, has been unveiled at the spot where he fell, near Spottsylvania Court-house, Va.

Mr. James W. Hyatt of Connecticut has been appointed Treasurer of the United States to succeed Mr. Conrad N. Jordan, resigned. Mr. Hyatt is a native and resident of Norwalk. For ten years he was Bank Commissioner of Connecticut by the appointment first of Gov. Ingersoll, and subsequently of both Democratic and Republican Governors. He was National Bank Examiner in Connecticut by the appointment of President Cleveland.

The Inter-State Commerce Law has caused a great increase in the freight traffic on the water ways. The boats on the Miami and Erie Canal cannot carry any large proportion of the freight that is offered. The American Consul at Kingston, Canada, has reported to the State Department that as a result of the increase of freight tariffs on American roads since the law went into effect, Canadian coal dealers are preparing to bring coal from Nova Scotia for all purposes for which it can be used. Orders for hardware and pressed tinware have been changed from American to Canadian houses on account of freight charges, and the tendency in other lines of trade is the same. More petitions both for and against the enforcement of the long-and short-haul clause have been received by the Commission. Commissioner Morrison has expressed the opinion that the desire to repeal the law will not grow, and that governmental supervision of railroad transportation has "come to stay."

The Kentucky Republican Convention on May 11 nominated candidates for State offices. The nominee for Governor is W. O. Bradley. The platform adopted favors national aid to education, a protective tariff, and national appropriations for the improvement of rivers and harbors. Fault was found with the President for refusing to sign the last River and Harbor Bill and for vetoing the Dependent Pension Bill.

A special session of the Missouri Legislature, which was called to enact more stringent railroad laws, convened May 11.

The last Legislature of Missouri refused to appropriate funds to support the militia, and the Adjutant-General of the State has issued a notice that, at the request of the commanding officer, the First Regiment, National Guard of Missouri, with headquarters at St. Louis, which is composed of eleven companies, was disbanded, to take effect May 23. This leaves St. Louis with no other companies than the French Zouaves and the Light Cavalry Troop.

A sheriff in Iowa who attempted to confiscate the product of a brewery under the prohibition law of the State, was ordered to stop by a revenue collector, who claimed prior right to the beer on the ground that it had not paid the national Government's tax. Thereupon the Attorney-General of the State on May 16 advised the State officers to pay no heed to the internal-revenue collectors. The incident has attracted attention because it may lead to another conflict between State and national authorities about the enforcement of a prohibitory law.

The London holders of Virginia bonds who sent Sir Edward Thornton to Richmond to make an agreement if possible with the Virginia Legislature, have refused the Legislative Committee's propositions. The negotiations are therefore closed for the present.

Gov. Beaver of Pennsylvania has signed the High-License Act of the Legislature. It requires a $500 license in cities of 30,000 population, a $400 license in smaller cities, a $200 license in boroughs, and a $100 license in township hotels.

The Supreme Court of Massachusetts has decided that the act of the Legislature is unconstitutional which forbids a naturalized voter to register within thirty days of naturalization.

The number of immigrants to the United States has increased every month this year. At Castle Garden 133,000 have landed since January 1, a large proportion of whom are Irish.

The Convention of wool-growers of the United States in session at St. Louis adopted resolutions May 14 to make an effort to secure the enactment of a tariff law which would give them greater protection than the present one.

Building at Chicago was almost wholly suspended on May 12 by strikes and lock-outs. The excuse for the disagreement between the contractors and the workmen is the refusal of the former to make Saturday the pay-day, but the chief cause of the trouble is the determination of the labor organizations to limit the number of apprentices, and to manage the business of the builders for them. The effort of the workmen is regarded as sure of failure, and building will be so retarded that a formerly anticipated reduction in rents is not now expected to be made. Work has not yet been begun again.

Speaking before a meeting of locomotive firemen in this city on May 15, Mayor Hewitt said: "I want to make the public declaration that the right of men to organize is absolute; that the duty of men to organize in their respective branches of business is of the highest order, and that they are not true to themselves unless they do it. But, like other good things in this world, this right may be abused. . . . No man and no set of men have the right to set up a new tribunal. Americans, inheritors of a great principle and of a blessing the value of which no man knows until he has been deprived of it, will never tolerate this idea." On the next day Archbishop Corrigan preached on one recent turn the labor agitation has taken. He declared that the idea that the private ownership of land is unjust was a fallacy, and was contrary both to philosophy and common sense, against the teachings of the Roman Catholic Church, and in direct opposition to a decree of the Pope, and that those who favored it knew they were impinging on the ordinances of God.

Hiram B. Everest and his son, Charles M. Everest, have been found guilty at Buffalo of conspiring to destroy the business and blow up the works of the Buffalo Lubricating Oil Company. The case has attracted much attention because the convicted men are interested in the Standard Oil Company.

The trial of Jacob Sharp for bribing twenty-one of the members of the New York Board of Aldermen in 1884 to grant the franchise for the Broadway Railroad was begun in this city May 16.

One of the brakemen on the Panhandle Railroad who were arrested for stealing freight, was convicted at Pittsburgh May 11. Another has made confession.

Work has been resumed on the tunnels under the Hudson River between New York and Jersey City, through which it is expected trains will be run. No work has been done since 1882. The engineer hopes to have one tunnel finished before the end of next year.

Five thousand pounds of opium were seized by customs officers on the Pacific Mail Dock in San Francisco May 13.

Bishop Howe of South Carolina refused to omit the name of a colored clergyman, the Rev. J. H. M. Pollard, rector of St. Mark's Episcopal Church, Charleston, from the list of delegates to the Diocesan Convention in Charleston May 13, and all the lay delegates and two clergymen withdrew from the Convention. The seceders organized a convention of their own. Efforts to reunite the two bodies failed, and the question of admitting colored delegates to Church conventions is under discussion in all the parishes.

Queen Kapiolani of the Hawaiian Islands and her suite have for several days been in New York making observation of public works and methods of government here.

The Southern Society of New York has decided to put up on February 22 a bronze tablet on the spot where Washington took boat after his farewell to his officers at the close of the Revolution, and to mark with an appropriate tablet the battle-field of Harlem Heights, where Washington commanded the patriot forces.

Mr. A. T. Soule of Rochester, N. Y., who built a canal nine miles long near Dodge City, Kan., for irrigating purposes, at a cost of $1,000,000, has announced his intention of extending it so that 1,000,000 acres of land may be watered every season.

Natural gas has been discovered in Kansas. At Fort Scott a very strong flow was struck May 12 at a depth of 280 feet.

The reports of great topographical changes and loss of many lives in the State of Sonora, Mex., by the earthquake on May 3 have been confirmed by a party of explorers sent out by the Government. Many persons are yet living under tents and in dug-outs. A wide territory is seamed with crevices, the earth has sunk, and places are flooded with water which were dry before. In the mountains, continuous smoke indicates volcanic action, but the mountains have not yet been explored, because of continuous tremors and great chasms. Slight shocks were felt in California and in South Carolina May 12, and in Arizona on the following day.

Prince Leopold of Germany, having spent several days in New York and paid a visit to the West Point Military Academy, sailed homeward May 14, with the companions of his journey around the world.

Justice W. B. Woods of the Supreme Court of the United States died at Washington, May 14. He was a graduate of Yale (1845), he was a member of the Ohio Legislature in 1857, and Speaker of the House, and he entered the Union Army and became Brevet Major-General. At the close of the war he took up his residence in Alabama, where he was chosen State Chancellor, and was appointed Circuit Judge of the United States Court for the Fifth District by President Grant. President Hayes appointed him Justice of the Supreme Court in 1881. His successor will be the only Justice on the bench appointed by a Democratic President. Lysander Spooner died in Boston May 14, aged seventy-nine. In 1844 he established a private mail from Boston to New York and afterwards to Philadelphia and Baltimore, carrying letters at the uniform rate of 5 cents. The business grew rapidly, and the Government prosecuted him; but he so clearly demonstrated the practicability of a cheap uniform postal rate that in the next year Congress made the first reduction in postage rates. Mr. Spooner was also the author of a pamphlet on the unconstitutionality of slavery, published in 1845, which was intended to controvert the doctrines of the disunion abolitionists, and was a text-book for those who held his view.

FOREIGN.

After a debate on May 17 in the French Chamber of Deputies on the report of the Budget Committee, which demands a reduction in the estimates submitted by the Government, the Chamber, by a vote of 275 to 259, rejected the proposals of the Government. M. Goblet then announced that the Cabinet would resign, and the members of the Cabinet left the House. Their resignations have been accepted by President Grévy.

On May 11 the French Government closed a velocipede factory near Luneville, which was owned by a German, because he employed men belonging to the German Army. The soldiers were expelled from the country. Reprisals were speedily made on the other side of the frontier, and persons were punished for singing the "Marseillaise" and shouting "Vive la France." Arrests of more German spies in France have been made. Prince Bismarck has given official statutory notice to the owners of houses and lands at Strassburg, Metz, and Posen, that the Government contemplates an extension of the fortified area around these cities. Gen. Boulanger's plan for an experimental mobilization of the French Army in October has excited suspicion in Berlin, and it is announced that if France mobilizes her army, Germany also will mobilize hers.

The French Council of State on May 13 gave a hearing to an appeal of the Orleans Princes against their expulsion from the army. It was argued on behalf of the Minister of War that the Council was not competent to decide the case.

At the election for members of the Municipal Council of Paris on May 15 the Revolutionists elected ten members instead of four, as in the last Council; the Moderates, who formerly had twenty-two seats, have but fourteen in the new Council.

The sale at auction of the French crown jewels was begun at Paris May 12. It is thought that the Orleans family are buying many of them. Nearly all the bidders are dealers, among them at least one American firm.

Sir William Vernon Harcourt's amendment to the Coercion Bill, exempting from secret inquiry all proceedings relating to public meetings or agrarian movements, including combinations to obtain reductions of rents, was rejected, May 17, by a vote of 242 to 180. Thereafter the first clause of the bill was adopted by a vote of 171 to 79. Notice was given of eighty amendments to the second clause.

In the House of Commons May 12, Sir John Gorst, Parliamentary Secretary to the India Office, moved the second reading of the bill granting leave of absence to the Duke of Connaught, commander of the forces in India, in order that he might attend the jubilee festivities. The motion was carried, but it provoked a debate in which the promotion of princes to high military positions, because they are princes, was severely criticised.

On May 14, Queen Victoria, with impressive ceremonies, opened the "People's Palace" in East London, an institution built after the idea of Mr. Walter Besant's book, 'All Sorts and Conditions of Men.' The long royal procession, which was the first made by the Queen through this part of London for many years, provoked an unusual demonstration.

The Mayor of Cork, replying to an invitation from the Lord Chamberlain to assist in the jubilee festivities, has written that in view of the Crimes Bill the invitation is little short of an outrage upon the self-respect of the Irish people. The Mitchelstown (Ireland) branch of the National League have requested the people of that district to boycott the Cunard Line because of the insult which they think Mr. O'Brien received at the hands of the captain of the steamer on which he came to New York, and the advice is being already followed.

Mr. Gladstone, at a luncheon of Nonconformist ministers, on May 11, declared that there never had been any reason for charging the Parnellites with complicity in Irish crime. Six years ago, while Prime Minister, he had denounced the Parnellites as dangerous. That was totally different from charging them with crime. He vehemently denounced the Government's attitude on the *Times's* charges against the Irish members, and said the prosecution of the *Times* by the Crown would be a horrible farce. On the next day Mr. Bright wrote: "All the *Times's* charges consist of evidence contributed by the rebel conspirators themselves. The facts are their own facts. The *Times* did not invent them; it only arranged them so that the public could understand the case. Parliament should have nothing to do with the matter."

Mr. William O'Brien, editor of *United Ireland*, who has gone to Canada to make an agitation against Lord Lansdowne, the Governor-General, because of his treatment of the tenants on his Irish estates, arrived at Montreal, May 11, and was received with enthusiasm by the Irish residents. He made a speech the night after his arrival, full of bitterness against Lord Lansdowne as a landlord, but without reference to his conduct as a Canadian official. The next night he spoke at Quebec, and challenged Lord Lansdowne to answer any of the accusations he has made against him. The Corporation of Toronto has refused to allow the town hall to be used for an O'Brien meeting. A meeting was held there on May 14 to protest against his coming, but he addressed a somewhat turbulent open-air meeting there on May 17.

The Canadian Government has refused permission to the Sixty-fifth French Canadian Regiment to pass the Queen's birthday at Highgate Springs, Vt., the Minister of Militia taking the ground that it is a bad precedent to establish, especially in view of the feeling existing over O'Brien's visit and the fishery dispute.

Mr. O'Brien has been elected, without opposition, to the seat in the House of Commons, for the northeast division of Cork, made vacant by the resignation of Mr. Edmund Leamy.

The correspondence relating to the seizure of British American sealing vessels in Behring's Sea by the United States was laid before the Canadian Parliament May 14. Canada asks as reparation $150,000.

The Canadian budget, introduced in the Parliament at Ottawa May 13, proposes a radical change in customs duties, especially on iron. The new tariff is graded on the scale of two-thirds of the United States tariff. The duty on pig iron is increased to $4 per ton. The bounty on pig-iron manufactured in Canada will be $1.50 to 1889 and $1 from 1889 to 1892. The increase in the iron duties will produce half a million revenue, and this amount will be lost by taking the present duty off anthracite coal. The duty on cigars and cigarettes will be doubled, and will increase the revenue by $150,000. The duty on paper is made uniform at 25 per cent. Notice of these duties has aroused the importers and some of the manufacturers of iron to petition the Government at least for as gradual a change as can be made.

Sir Arthur Havelock, the Governor of Natal, has been instructed to proclaim Zululand, except the new Boer Republic, a British possession.

A discovery of gold has been made on Good Hope Farm in the Transvaal, the headquarters of a flourishing missionary colony. Several tempting offers have already been made to the Wesleyan Society in London for the property, but the Society has refused to sell until it has made an investigation.

The Anglo Haytian dispute about the claim of an English subject against the Haytian Government has been settled. Hayti has paid a part of the claim in cash, and given security for the payment of the balance. The total, paid and to be paid, is $250,000.

The Afghan Frontier Commission, being unable to agree, has referred the boundary question back to the Governments of England and Russia.

An amount of treasure, estimated at more than $25,000,000, which had been secreted in the palace of Gwalior by the late Maharajah, has been found by British officers in India. It had been buried in pits under the vaults, and the secret was intrusted to a few confidential servants. The Financial Secretary of India was present when it was unearthed, and the British Government in India, against the protests of the native newspapers, has taken the whole amount as a loan from the young Maharajah. The question will be raised in Parliament whether this be not in fact a mere seizure of the treasure.

It is reported that at the suggestion of England, and with the approval of Germany, the Bulgarian Regents are favorably considering the plan to proclaim King Charles of Rumania Prince of Bulgaria, and thus virtually to make of the Danubian Balkan provinces one kingdom.

Great commercial distress is reported from Russia. The Bankruptcy Court at Odessa is blocked with the insolvency cases of long-established and hitherto flourishing firms. Many commercial men would welcome a war as preferable to the present depression.

The new German Liberals are forming an Anti-Corn-Law League, and are organizing meetings and provoking an agitation throughout the country.

The young Baronesses Anna and Louise of Guttenberg, who have been melancholy since the suicide of King Ludwig of Bavaria, recently rowed to the spot in the lake where he drowned himself, and committed suicide in the same way.

Two members of the Prussian Oberhaus are to be tried for duelling, but it is regarded as certain that they will not be punished. In a recent discussion of this case in the Landtag, a member declared that it was the ancient and inalienable right of the German nobility to decide questions of personal honor at the point of the sword, in spite of the fact that duelling was punishable under the penal code; and his declaration met with approval.

There was a procession in Florence on May 15 representing the entry into the city of Amadeus, Count of Savoy, in 1367. It was a reproduction of the historical pageant.

The proposition to effect a reconciliation between the Italian Government and the Vatican continues to be discussed in Italy. Signor Fazzari, a member of the Chamber of Deputies, has written an article in which he says an *entente* could easily be attained if the Pope would direct the ecclesiastical authorities of the Vatican to support, at the next election for the Chamber of Deputies, candidates favoring such a reconciliation. "Let the Pope take the initiative, and Italy will be grateful to him."

A despatch from Rome on May 13 announced that the Pope had decided to instruct Archbishop Corrigan of New York to warn Dr. McGlynn, the priest who has been suspended for the part he took in the Mayoralty campaign in this city and for approving the George land doctrine, that if he does not present himself before the supreme ecclesiastical authority at Rome within forty days, he will be formally excommunicated. Dr. McGlynn on May 15 had received no notice of such a threat.

Dr. Junker, the Russian explorer, has received letters from Emin Bey dated last November, in which Emin Bey said the routes between Uganda and Wadelai were open. Dr. Junker thinks that the success of Stanley's relief expedition is therefore assured.

A plan is announced to build a railroad immediately across the narrow isthmus which separates Lake Nicaragua from the Pacific, starting from San Juan del Sur and running to San Jorge.

THE PROGRESS OF REFORM.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND'S brief address at the unveiling of the Garfield statue in Washington on Thursday fitly and forcibly enforced the "sad and distressing lesson" of his predecessor's death. "While," he said, "American citizenship stands aghast and affrighted that murder and assassination should lurk in the midst of a free people and strike down the head of their Government, a fearless search and the discovery of the origin and hiding-place of these hateful and unnatural things should be followed by a solemn resolve to purge for ever from our political methods and from the operation of our Government the perversions and misconceptions which gave birth to passionate and bloody thoughts. If from this hour," the President concluded, "our admiration for the bravery and nobility of American manhood and our faith in the possibilities and opportunities of American citizenship be renewed; if our appreciation of the blessing of a restored Union and love for our Government be strengthened, and if our watchfulness against the dangers of a mad chase after partisan spoils be quickened, the dedication of this statue to the people of the United States will not be in vain."

The occasion suggests a contrast between the situation as regards the civil service in 1881 and that in 1887. In his second annual message to Congress, December 5, 1870, President Grant recommended "a reform in the civil service of the country" which should "govern not the tenure, but the manner of making all appointments." In March, 1871, an amendment was tacked on to an appropriation bill in the Senate authorizing the President to prescribe "such rules and regulations for the admission of persons into the civil service of the United States as will best promote the efficiency thereof, and ascertain the fitness of each candidate in respect to age, health, character, knowledge, and ability for the branch of the service into which he seeks to enter"; and also authorizing him to employ suitable persons to conduct these inquiries. A civil-service commission was appointed, and rules were established for the filling of vacancies by competitive examinations, which were put in force during the summer of 1872. The new system speedily demonstrated its advantages over the old, and in his annual message, December 1, 1873, President Grant urged its extension, pointing out that "to have any rules effective, they must have the acquiescence of Congress as well as of the Executive." The Forty-third Congress was Republican in each branch, more than two to one, but the party managers had no sympathy with the reform, and they proceeded to starve it to death. Mr. Blaine, as Speaker, appointed a committee on civil-service reform of which that unblushing spoilsman Gen. Butler was the leading spirit, and, under the lead of Blaine and Butler, a House Republican by 195 to 92 refused to make any appropriation for the support of the Commission in 1874, and the system soon after expired of inanition.

President Grant made no further attempt to push the reform, and the halting attempts of Mr. Hayes were so handicapped by his entanglements with the Returning Board rascals that little progress was made during his four years in the White House. Gen. Garfield's first step was a step backward. He chose as his chief adviser the man who as Speaker had been chiefly responsible for the smothering of civil-service reform in 1874. Within three weeks after his inauguration, he turned his back upon his own professions in favor of reform by an ostentatious action based solely and almost avowedly upon the spoils system. A collector in the New York Custom-house was removed midway in his term, not for the good of the service, since it was acknowledged that he had been an efficient and faithful official, but for the purpose of making room for a politician whose personal demand upon the President's chief adviser must be paid off at the public expense. This backward step was not retraced, and on the morning of July 2, 1881, the outlook for reform was most discouraging.

Perhaps nothing short of Guiteau's shot could have impressed the people with "the dangers of a mad chase after partisan spoils." Certainly the assassination of Garfield marked the turning-point in the struggle with the spoils system. In the next election of Congressmen, in the fall of 1882, the popular demand for a change was made so plain that the expiring Congress, promptly upon meeting in December, 1882, took up and passed the Pendleton bill, which its author had for two years vainly pushed upon the attention of his colleagues. In July, 1883, the competitive system was put into operation. In 1884 the growing demand for a thorough-going reform of the civil service forced the nomination by the Democrats of a proved reformer, and secured his election over a Republican candidate who had shown his attitude towards the question when he committed it to the tender mercies of Gen. Butler ten years before. A change of parties for the first time in a quarter of a century made the natural desire of Democratic politicians to escape the restrictions of rules and regulations in 1885 a hundred times stronger than that of Republican politicians had been in 1874; but only a few straggling Democratic votes could be rallied in Congress to imitate the example of their opponents and starve out the Commission. The system became, month by month, more firmly entrenched, and in May, 1887, an extension only second in importance to its original establishment is made through the approval by the President of rules which apply the competitive principle to promotions as well as to entrance. Most important of all, this latest and most significant action of the President is criticised only by a few spoils organs, dwindling in circulation and bankrupt in influence, while the progressive Democratic newspapers throughout the country accept it as one of the strongest arguments which the party can present for asking another lease of power in 1888.

It is not yet six years since Garfield's assassination, but it is already evident that the lesson of that event has been mastered by the American people. The spoils system reached its full fruition in his murder by a disappointed office-seeker, and the people have taken "a solemn resolve to purge for ever from our political methods and from the operation of our Government the perversions and misconceptions which gave birth to passionate and bloody thoughts."

THE BEVERLY INCIDENT.

BEVERLY is an old town in Essex County, Mass., bordering on the coast, one village of which, known as Beverly Farms, has become of late years a favorite summer resort with rich Bostonians. This new class finally came to constitute a large proportion of the taxable population of the town, and sought to escape bearing its share of the common burdens by having Beverly Farms set off as a separate town. An appeal was made to the Legislature which met a year ago last January, but it failed. Last January another appeal was made, and this time the division scheme went easily through both branches.

Before the bill had passed its final stage, a member of the Senate declared that an attempt had been made to bribe him to vote in favor of division, and that a definite sum had been offered for his vote. After much hesitation, an investigation was ordered, which developed a startling state of things. It was found that, whereas last year the divisionists had submitted their case on its merits, this year they raised a fund of about $20,000, which was given over to a lawyer, who proceeded to organize a lobby and thus easily carried the bill through. The lawyer was cynically frank about the matter. He attributed the success of the measure to the thousands of dollars which he had distributed. It could not be established that any legislator had sold his vote for a definite sum, but it was made perfectly clear that it was the illegitimate use of this fund which had caused one Legislature to favor division where the previous body, viewing the question free from such influences, rejected the scheme. The House Committee of Investigation reported that "such methods were pernicious, if not fatal to good and wholesome government," and declared that "these influences, however, wherever, or by whomsoever exerted, should be and must be emphatically and strongly condemned."

As the bill had not gone to the Governor, there was still a chance to undo the blunder of its passage and save the reputation of the Legislature. Every argument was in favor of refusing to do anything further in the matter this year. The question of division is not a pressing one, and can be postponed a year as well as not. The disclosure that its passage was due to lobbying must necessarily taint the measure if it should become a law. There was just one way in which the pernicious influences could be "emphatically and strongly condemned," and that was by making the $20,000 corruption fund of no avail, by refusing to enact the division. Justice, and even decency, demanded that the Legislature should embrace the opportunity which fortunately remained to defeat the scheme.

Each branch of the Legislature, however, has refused to retrace its steps. Both the Senate and the House have deliberately voted not to reconsider their action, and the work of the lobby is thus soberly endorsed. Seldom, if ever, has so plain a test of the attitude of law-makers towards lobbyists been made anywhere in this country. It is a public proclamation that legislators regard "the Third House" as a legitimate adjunct of law-making.

The criticisms of the lobby by the Investigating Committee are of no account so long as the bill which owes its success to the lobby is enacted. The upshot of the matter is, that the existence of the lobby is practically justified by the Massachusetts Legislature.

There are two aspects of this business which are of importance. It illustrates very forcibly that growing demoralization of legislators as a class, which is one of the most alarming signs of the times in this country. It is impossible to conceive of a body of gentlemen sensitive to their reputation deliberately condoning such an offence as has been here disclosed. Such a body would have improved eagerly the chance to clear their skirts by reconsidering the passage of the tainted bill and pushing the matter over to another year. The incident also illustrates the lowering tone of the Republican party. As the dominant party in the Legislature, it must shoulder the responsibility of this business, and must figure before the people as a party which condones corruption and humors the fancy of rich men who are ready to "put up" a large fund to secure legislation. "It presents itself to their eyes," says the careful Boston correspondent of the Hartford *Courant*, "in the light of rich Boston people coming into the county to settle, and then setting themselves apart from the old town and creating for themselves a new one composed chiefly of their rich and aristocratic selves. They say that, if this is done in one place, it may be in another, and the whole shore may thus be lined with towns of this character, in which much of the taxable property is cut off from its original association."

And yet there is nothing surprising about this. It is the natural sequence of the surrender of 1884, when the old "party of moral ideas" threw away its principles, and accepted a Presidential candidate who had shown his lack of character when he wrote that he "would not be a dead-head" in a matter of legislation pending before him. The Beverly incident in the Massachusetts Legislature is of a piece with the railroad incidents in Speaker Blaine's career in Congress. The Boston *Journal* has made frantic appeals to the Republicans in the Legislature to take the back track as the only way of avoiding defeat next fall, pointing out that a change of only 4,732 votes last November would have elected a Democratic Governor. The *Journal's* mistake consists in supposing that a Republican party which had sunk to accepting a Blaine as its candidate for President, and a mere millionaire as its candidate for Governor, would feel squeamish about a little matter like humoring the lobby in the division of a town.

DIAMONDS.

THE sale of the French crown jewels which is now going on in Paris, is probably the most marked indication possible, not exactly of the extinction of the monarchical tradition in France, but of its failure any longer to touch the popular imagination. No such outward and visible sign of the separation of the French people from royalty in all shapes and forms has been afforded in rational times. In the early days of the first Revolution, half-crazed fanatics chose more emphatic modes of expressing hatred and contempt of kings and queens, but in sober days Frenchmen have never until now proposed to put up the "properties" of the Court at public auction. After the war of 1874, the Empress Eugénie's underclothing was disposed of to the highest bidder, but her wardrobe was not an heirloom of the French nation, as the crown jewels have always been considered. The sale of these means clearly that the French people either have done with royalty, or think they have, with a certainty and solemnity they have never experienced before. A monarchy must by immemorial usage have plenty of jewels. A king who had none, or could be eclipsed on a state occasion by a finer display than he could make, on the part of one of his pampered nobles, would feel humiliated. Every people which employs a king, in fact, expects him to have an abundance of diamonds, and would be mortified if he could not make a good show of them on state occasions. In fact, it is almost impossible to conceive of a diamondless king or queen. Diamonds have come down from the middle ages as one of the marks of royalty, and the most essential part of the splendor of a court. They have, ever since the rise of modern Europe out of barbarism, been considered marks of great wealth. Down almost to our own day wealthy people were not very numerous, and all belonged to the court circle. It was then "the thing" for every noble's wife to have a good supply, but for the Queen to have more than any other woman.

In our time, however, wealth, and even great wealth, has become so widely diffused that diamonds are no longer the exclusive luxury of monarchs and the great landholders who formed the nobility or gentry. Every rich woman now lays in a fine supply of diamonds as soon as she comes into her money. There are to-day many women who cannot boast very long descent, who can make a show of diamonds as good as were ever seen at any Christian court. To this class they are more valuable to day than they are to any royal family. During the present century the means of crowned heads, outside their private fortunes, have been on the whole declining, and there is enough revolution in the air in all countries to make the expenditure of large sums on personal luxury or adornment seem a dangerous pastime. In fact, we think it very doubtful whether the diamonds of any of the royal houses have received very marked additions within the last fifty years.

On the other hand, the passage of diamonds into the hands of what may be called "the people"—that is, of recently enriched persons of humble origin—has been going on at a wonderful rate, and has supported the diamond market, in spite of the increased supply and the diminished means of the monarchs and noblemen who were once almost the only purchasers, because the only persons who, under the then generally accepted view of the proper constitution of society, were entitled to wear them. In an age when nearly every one is engaged in one way or another in pursuit of wealth, and the acquisition of wealth means success in life, it is of course desirable to have some simple and conspicuous mode of letting strangers know that you have succeeded. Nothing supplies this so readily as diamonds. They are easily portable; they attract instant attention wherever shown; they bring their value in cash, if one is "hard up," in almost any part of the world, and they produce a wonderful effect in a woman's costume under artificial light. They are, in fact, except rubies, the only means by which one can exhibit a considerable fortune on one's person without seeming odd or ridiculous. How useful they are to many people in this way is readily understood when we remember how deep-seated and widespread what is called "the passion for display" is. The poor girl who wears a cheap gold chain and locket over her waterproof in a street car, is striving after the very same result as the fine lady at a ball who carries one or two hundred thousand dollars' worth of brilliants in her hair and dress; that is, she wants people who know nothing else about her to know that she is in easy circumstances and can command luxuries.

The part played by the diamond in American city politics and railroading in our day is one of the most interesting facts in its history, but needs fuller discussion than we can give it to-day. There is a certain type of man among us who is as sure to buy a large solitaire diamond pin and stick it in his shirt-front, when he has achieved what he considers a proper measure of success in life, as he is to improve his furniture or his house. It is a type which is largely represented among the classes whose calling brings them into contact with many people, such, as we have said, as politicians and railroad conductors. To them the diamond shirt-pin serves the grateful purpose of giving notice to the spectators that the world is not going badly with the wearer, that his fight for the mere necessaries is over, that he has leisure to think of costly ornamentation, and the means to procure it, and that, in short, he is entitled to take his place among the successful people of the world—the people who have "arrived," as the French say. Looked at in this way, the diamond shirt-pin is not as ridiculous as the newspapers try to make it out when they compare it to the "head-light of a locomotive," and tell stories about railroad managers preferring, as a matter of economy, to keep a conductor who has procured his pin to putting in his place one who is still only longing for it. In fact, it does for the owner in our society somewhat the same thing that the little red ribbon in the button hole does for the Frenchman. It takes him out of the common herd, who are still fighting for a bare subsistence and have not begun to dream of luxury or fame.

SPRING MEETING OF THE AMERICAN ORIENTAL SOCIETY.

BOSTON, May 14.

THE spring meeting of the American Oriental Society was held in this city on the 11th instant, in the rooms of the Boston Athenæum. Prof. Whitney, the venerable President of the Society, was again prevented by illness from attending. In his stead Prof. Andrew P. Peabody of Harvard College occupied the chair. After the trans-

action of the usual business, nine new members were elected to the Society. Since the last meeting death has taken away two of its honorary members, Prof. Adolf Friedrich Stenzler of Breslau, Germany, the well-known Sanskrit scholar, and Mr. Alexander Wylie of London, England; and three corporate members, Mr. Henry C. Kingsley, treasurer of Yale University, Prof. Ephraim W. Gurney of Harvard, and Prof. Charles Short of Columbia College.

Letters were read from a learned Pundit in Bombay, mentioning a paper he had presented to the Bombay branch of the Royal Asiatic Society on "The supposed practice of consanguineous marriages in ancient India;" from Carl Johannsen, Profs. von der Gabelenz in Leipzig, Kuhn in Munich, Bloomfield in Baltimore, etc. Mr. Jewett, a fellow of Harvard College, now studying in Beirut, sent a printed diary of a visit he had paid to the Lebanon.

The papers read before the Society covered a wide range of subjects, and are sufficient evidence of the growing interest taken by American scholars in Oriental philological and historical research. At the morning session Dr. Hayes Ward of the *Independent* read a paper on a peculiar family of Babylonian cylinders, the meaning of which has until now been misconstrued. Dr. Ward showed several originals of such cylinders belonging to his own collection, and copies of others. George Smith had imagined he saw the Tower of Babel represented upon them. Others have explained the picture to be that of the gates of the underworld opening to receive the dead, and of a porter leading the soul into the presence of the Deity. Dr. Ward now offers a new explanation, which commends itself at once to the Semitic scholar. Certain prominences which are invariably found on the seals he takes to represent mountains, as they undoubtedly do in Assyrian art. The deity surrounded by rays is the Sun-God, Shamash. He has been over night under the earth. The porter opens the gate in the morning to let him out. The weapon he holds in his hand is a representation of the fiercely striking rays of the sun. Dr. Ward explains in a similar manner many expressions in the Bible, such as "Lift up your heads, O ye gates," etc., which are probably taken from some old hymn to the sun. Upon another cylinder, dating about 3500 B. C., Shamash is accompanied by a female personage, who may represent a phase of the moon. Prof. Isaac H. Hall, of the Metropolitan Museum of New York, followed with a lengthy paper on a Syriac MS. containing the Revelation of St. Paul and a tract on "The Extremity of the Romans in the Year 739." These are followed in the MS. by a "hymn of praise before the Holy Mysteries," the text and translation of which were presented. Prof. Hall thinks it is an original Syriac composition not earlier than the tenth century. The Society then listened to a carefully-worked-out paper by the Rev. Mr. Chandler on the transliteration of Sanskrit proper names into Tamil. He was followed by the Rev. W. C. Winslow, Vice-President of the Egypt Exploration Fund, who showed the Society a volume of the beautiful edition of the Egyptian 'Book of the Dead,' lately finished by M. Naville. According to Mr. Winslow, this great production is in no way to be regarded as a bible. It is a book of the dead and for the dead. Only by inference can the living know how to live well and to do right. The next paper, by Prof. John Avery, was on the languages on the eastern and northeastern boundaries of India. Prof. Avery dwelt particularly upon the Katchurri and Garro as the two most important of this group. They are sister tongues, and, where they vary from each other, some outside influence has been at work. This comes generally from the Assamese, the Katchurri having borrowed more than the Garro. Prof. Lyon of Harvard College read a short notice of the first fasciculus of Delitzsch's Assyrian Dictionary. He thinks that the work is planned upon too large a scale, and will take many years before it is completed. Before the morning session closed, Prof. Selah Merrill said a few words about the second wall of Jerusalem, 120 feet of which had lately been uncovered under his direction. The wall runs eighty yards from the Jaffa gate. Prof. Merrill explained the whole route which the wall probably took.

Prof. M. Jastrow of the University of Pennsylvania opened the afternoon session with a paper entitled "Iconomatic Writing in Assyrian." This paper was based on a theory advanced by Dr. D. G. Brinton to account for the transition from picture to phonetic writing. An intermediate stage is assumed between these two modes of expressing thought—a stage through which every system of writing has had to pass, *i. e.*, the use of pictures to designate some object similar or identical in sound with the object originally denoted by the picture. Prof. Jastrow thinks he can point out analogous cases in Assyrian—*i. e.*, *shubtu*, dwelling, and *shubatu*, dress, which are both represented by one sign, *Ku*. Coming down to later times, Prof. Toy of Harvard College discussed "The Lokman Story." This personage is much in favor with the old Arabs, but their reports concerning him are very conflicting. Prof. Toy, after carefully reviewing the theories of Derenbourg and Sprenger, brought forward his own, which supposes Lokman to be the mythical representative of a tribe or of certain families which survived the destruction of the tribe of 'Âd. This was afterwards brought into connection with the great wandering of Yemenite tribes towards the north. The rest of the story is the attempt of historians to make order out of chaos. Dr. R. Gottheil of Columbia College presented a paper on "A Syriac Bahîrâ Legend," the text and translation of which will be published in the Journal of the Society. Bahîrâ is the Christian Monk who is said to have been the teacher of Mohammed. Out of this idea a legend has been woven, which, in the form of an apocalypse, is a polemic against the Mohammedan religion. Dr. Gottheil also presented two other papers, "On a Syriac Lexicographic MS. belonging to the Union Theological Seminary of New York," and "An Old Syriac MS. of the New Testament belonging to the Rev. Mr. Neesan." The remaining papers were read in part by the Secretary. There were two by Dr. Jackson of Columbia College, "The Similes in the Avesta taken from the Animal World," and "Translation of a Passage in the Avesta which has not yet been rendered into English." Three papers were sent by Prof. Hopkins of Bryn Mawr: "The Battle-array in the Mahâbhârata," "On Prof. Oppert's View that Gunpowder and Firearms were known in Bhârata Times," and "On Prof. Buchler's New Translation of the Laws of Manu."

The Society adjourned to meet on October 26 either at New Haven or at Baltimore, as the Executive Committee may decide. R. J. H. G.

THE MORAL OF THE SCHNAEBELÉ AFFAIR.

PARIS, May 2.

THE Pagny incident has been settled, as we had from the first hoped it would be, conformably to international law and the *jus gentium*. M. Schnaebelé, inveigled upon German soil by the disloyal zeal of a subaltern, was released unconditionally as soon as the circumstances of his arrest were exactly ascertained. In truth, the facts of the case were so simple, the trap so undeniable, that Americans may perhaps be amazed at the perturbed feeling which for ten days has agitated Europe, checking commercial transactions, and raising in everybody's mind the spectre of a war of extermination between two great peoples. But if our public opinion is sometimes susceptible or excitable to excess, it is seldom that the fundamental causes of its emotion are not serious; and he would strangely err who should accuse European nerves of having been stretched and irritated for no plausible motive. No, Europe was not mistaken: the motive of anxiety and perturbation exists; but this motive is, not the Pagny incident—a mere episode—but the state of the political relations between Germany and France. Now that the matter has been rectified to the satisfaction of both the parties concerned, it is proper to ask if European diplomacy, the coöperation and conspiracy (so to speak) of the good sense of all, ought not to seek remedies for the perilous situation which has, from day to day, excited so much alarm and gloomy foreboding. The German press itself—I mean the honest and relatively impartial press—invites us to the delicate quest of palliatives, if not of remedies, and professes to be ready to take part in it. There are times when silence is the only reasonable and prudent policy, when questions are solved only by affecting unwillingness to solve them; there are other times, like the present, as I believe, when our duty is to attack openly the formidable problems which imperil the dignity, the interests, and the future of European nations.

First and foremost we must put aside one class of considerations. It is said and reiterated that the burden of armaments, and of what has been called with reason the *armed peace*, imposes on peoples such heavy obligations that they prefer to have done with it (*en finir*) by a violent and decisive shock rather than endure indefinitely the overwhelming expense. This was the talk as far back as 1815, and it has been repeated before and after every war; but no European war has modified the state of things in this respect. Neither the victors nor the vanquished have disarmed. Crushed by Russia in 1877, Turkey to-day has at her disposal an army as strong and as numerous as before Plevna. Austria is much more powerful at this moment than on the eve of Sadowa. The increase of military expenditure is not so heavy as is imagined, if we take account of the constant diminution in the value of money. Besides, as the wealth of nations does not cease to grow, it naturally increases in like measure the resources at their command to preserve themselves against invasion. No one thinks of diminishing the number of police agents charged with maintaining the internal peace. On the contrary, the complaint is frequent that they are unequal to their task. Permanent armies, charged with the police of the frontiers, are as necessary an evil as gendarmes; nor is their existence any greater menace of peace than is that of policemen numerous and powerfully armed against attempts at disorder and rebellion.

We may further reply to those who dream of a terrible shock "pour en finir," that such collisions have never ended anything, unless we go back to the third Punic war or to the submission of Gaul to Julius Cæsar. Napoleon would fain have *finished* with Europe when he went to Moscow; he had wanted to *finish* with Austria in 1809. It is notorious how badly he succeeded. And yet, in 1809 as in 1812, he wielded a military power more formidable than that of all his neighbors and enemies in coalition. To-day, between France and Germany, the situation is wholly different. If in 1870 the inequality between the military forces of the two countries was profound, to-day all competent judges allow that causes, more or less real, of inequality are hardly discoverable. Now in 1870, when France was

almost disarmed, it was a narrow chance that the battle of Saint-Privat did not drive the invaders beyond the Rhine, the army of the Loire cause the siege of Paris to be raised, the resistance of Metz, prolonged for another fortnight, force the Germans to retreat precipitately upon the Vosges. We had then five or six hundred thousand men, of whom many had never handled a gun; we have to-day three millions of genuine soldiery. Who would dare assert that there could be any *finishing* with three millions of men, resting on impregnable fortresses, fighting not for glory or for the ambition of a single man, but for the safety and very existence of their country?

What is true of France is true of Germany. It wields a formidable military power, immense resources accumulated during sixteen years of peace. If Germany cannot hope, without a veritable aberration of conceit, to *finish* with the France of 1887, neither could France, without equal folly, flatter herself on *finishing* with Germany. The result of a war would be the massacre of two or three hundred thousand men, the squandering of ten milliards; then, after some months of violent encounters and sterile butcheries, a more or less imperious mediation which would establish the *status quo ante*. To desire and pray for such a war—is it mere folly, or is it not the most stupid contempt of the good sense of peoples and the conscience of the human race?

We see, therefore, that the armaments and engines of destruction may become, and are in fact becoming by the force of things, the most effective guaranty of peace. So said, thirty years ago, Sir William Armstrong, who professed to be manufacturing cannon in the interest of international good relations. Such has long been the voice of the wisdom of nations in the well-known formula, *Si vis pacem, para bellum*. A manifest inequality of force between two neighboring nations almost fatally leads to a rupture of equilibrium—a law of history reflecting a physical law. For that reason, the feeble States of Europe are protected by the collective guaranty of the strong States. And as for the latter, they have to protect themselves by the fear which their strength inspires: disarmament would be equivalent to suicide.

Thus war is not a solution: it would be one more calamity added to so many others, opening an indefinite perspective of new wars. Outside of any consideration of humanity and progress, peace is imposed; but the memory of past wars is a sad heritage which weighs, and will long weigh, on the stability of this peace. The task of diplomacy is all the more lofty: it consists in fixing the conditions of the pacific relations which may and should exist between two peoples accustomed to slaughter each other periodically for two hundred years. I believe the problem clearly indicated. I believe, also, that it is far from being insoluble.

One fact which dominates all the rest is, that the France of 1887 cannot forget the *entire* France of twenty years ago. By so doing she would efface her name from the list of great peoples and commit moral suicide. The consequence of this, for sensible and pacific minds in Germany, is, that care should be taken not to remind the France of 1887, by more or less voluntary provocations, what was the France of 1789 and the France respected by the treaties of 1815. In order to that, the first duty of the rulers of Germany is to return to the traditions of M. de Manteuffel, and to break energetically with the system initiated by M. de Hohenlohe. Public opinion in Germany confesses that a wrong track has been followed for a year past; I will not declare the thoughts which this brutal policy inspires in French public opinion. The two countries would agree in applauding the modification of a rule which is in defiance of the ideas of the nineteenth century, of those which German philosophers and jurisconsults have not been the last to insist upon.

The duty of France with respect to this painful question was traced by Gambetta in a well-known *mot* which I may be dispensed from repeating. The question is asked in Germany if this ever-vigilant thought, if these imprescriptible hopes, are compatible with the maintenance of a solid peace. Doubt is no longer permitted on this point. For sixteen years France and Germany have lived in peace; for sixteen years their relations, without being friendly, have for the greater part of that period been free from tension. When a tension was produced, as in 1875 and in 1887, everybody in Europe knows that the German military party was the cause. Among them have been found and still exist many people—many young officers of the Imperial Guard, for example—who lightly speak of *finishing*, perhaps because their short-sighted patriotism unconsciously confounds itself with the appetite for promotion. I have said there could be no question of *finishing*, and that is enough to hold up to the just severity of Europe the doings of a military party which is not the German nation, and which cannot pretend to make itself, abroad, the interpreter of Germany's sentiments and wishes.

The war-party Germans, who are relatively few in number, but who make more noise than the rest, maintain that France cherishes aggressive designs; that she has armed herself, not in self-defence, but for attack. As to this there are two opinions in Germany. Some, who are wholly ignorant, represent all France to be possessed with bellicose ideas; others, more prudent, go no further than to complain of the presence among us of a turbulent minority that might one day (as was seen in 1870) drag into an offensive war the most numerous part of the nation. I shall make no reply to the first: let them take the trouble to open their eyes and ears. But an answer is due to the second, since Bismarck affects to be of their mind. The most conclusive response would be a collection of articles from the French press—the provincial not overlooked, as is lightly done—published during the first months of the present year. If certain men among us have desired war, they have wanted Germany to declare it; nobody has lifted his voice in advocacy of the offensive. Public opinion would not have hesitated to consider as a provocative agent and a public enemy any one who should have repeated in 1887 the words of Émile de Girardin in 1870. War can be declared to-day only by the Chambers; it is no longer at the mercy of feminine influences or an old man's whim. Now the Chambers are not the minority, but the most imposing expression of the majority of Frenchmen. As well-informed and candid Germans admit that this majority, this immense majority, is pacific, they ought to confess that the Chambers are equally so, and consequently that the fear of being attacked, with which they excuse themselves in the face of Europe, is either insincere, or unreasonable, or utterly chimerical.

The Pagny incident would not have produced so much alarm if the excitement of the month of February had not left in all minds profound traces and (as it were) seeds of panic. It is the manifestation, the symptom, of a tense situation which has been the work of certain declaimers envenoming at pleasure a situation already delicate. Delicate it will remain—it is impossible that it should be otherwise. It will be, perhaps, for long years, the *concordia discors* of which the Latin poet speaks. But it will be, if both sides will lend themselves to it, a frank peace, a *paix voulue*, all the more because it needs, in order to endure, the concurrence of the will, the good will, of governments and peoples. Let the peace betwixt Germany and France be imaged by one of those frontier-posts of which there has been so much talk in these latter days. When a storm comes upon it, it leans to one side or other, or is even laid flat by a gust of wind. Straightway two representatives of the adjoining countries unite in setting it up again. Ill luck would have it that once one of these representatives was a worthless or foolish creature, but great nations are not apt to be represented by such men. The noise made by the Pagny incident, the gloomy reports it put in circulation from the Tagus to the Bosphorus, the sadness with which it filled those who wish to live, to labor, and produce, will not have been lost for the welfare of mankind and the peace of Europe, if they inspire governments and nations with the sincere resolve to remove future conflicts by a desire for peace at once passionate and rational. The peace necessary for all ought to be a peace desired by all: *cupias quodcunque necesse est.* S. R.

Correspondence.

WESTERN MORTGAGES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Unquestionably the note of warning sounded by "L." in the *Nation* in regard to Western mortgages, comes none too soon. At the same time, all Western mortgages ought not to be placed in the same category. For many years the placing of funds upon the security of well improved farms has been recognized as a safe and legitimate business. Nothing could be further from either risk or speculation. Good rates of interest have been returned to investors in these securities, and no losses sustained. Many thousands of Western farmers are to-day either entirely out of debt, or are in comfortable circumstances, through having had the use of money to improve and stock up their farms. Had funds not been obtainable at reasonable rates, opportunities would not have been afforded them of fencing, building good barns, buying cows, etc.; and in consequence of this inability to diversify their pursuits, there would be still greater quantities of the crude products of the Western farm dumped upon the grain markets of the Old World.

While all this is true as regards the placing of what are called "farm loans," yet it will be frankly admitted that in many sections of the West to-day this business is being sadly overdone, or is being done by some in a reckless way. The older and more cautious people living in the West, who have had years of experience in the business, view with alarm and dismay the tendency on the part of many to "overloan," *i. e.*, to advance too much upon the security offered. It is quite the fashion to do this now to a great extent. Firms or companies unwilling to make large loans are, for the time being, left behind in the race for business. They are doing less business than formerly and at reduced rates. Reduced rates means not only a restricted business in the field of operations, but less cash in the treasury out of which to pay great advertising bills in Eastern papers and large commissions for the sale of securities. Conceding, however, that the claims presented by many that, with the rapid increase of population, all the good farming lands of the West will double in price within the next ten years, what shall be said of the security lying back of the town and city real-estate loans, now so readily placed in the East? Will the expectations of all the city builders of the country be met? Will there not be some foolish building following foolish "booming"? Will

the valuations put upon property in far inland towns, of $500 to $1,000 per front foot, stand the test of time? Will loans made upon some of these valuations of 1887 be found safe upon reduced valuations of '92, when effervescing local judgment as to values will have subsided somewhat?

These are quite proper and pertinent questions for investors to ask, as well as the basis of values underlying farm mortgages. By exercising due diligence and discriminating care, no Eastern investor in Western mortgages or securities need ever lose either principal or interest. Failing to investigate the class and character of the mortgages taken, as well as the character and capacity of the men in the West through whom the business is conducted, will no doubt entail possible loss and hardship upon investors in the not very far distant future. This in turn will, later on, react against the deserving Western agricultural borrower, whose security, however intrinsically good, will be looked upon with suspicion, and, if accepted at all, will be at greatly enhanced rates of interest. JOSEPH SAMPSON.

STORM LAKE, IOWA, May 9, 1887.

THE BEEKMAN AND CLINTON COATS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The last number of your paper has, in the article "Crazy Heraldry," a few misstatements which I take the liberty to correct.

It says the Beekman coat armor lacks authenticity. I have not seen the book, the Library copy being at the binder's; but if the same is as follows — two roses, separated by a running stream—it is the coat-of-arms granted by James I. of England to Gerard Beekman, the grandfather of William Beekman, who became the ancestor of the family in America. Gerard Beekman was a graduate of the University of Heidelberg, a zealous Protestant; and in behalf of his church he went to England about 1612 to implore the help of the "Defender of the Faith" for the persecuted Reformed Church. On this occasion he was made "armiger." The records under my charge contain on many letters written by William Beekman impressions of his seal, as described, in wax.

Of the Clinton coat-of-arms your article says, "Only one of the three governors of this name used it." I suppose you refer to Admiral George Clinton, Royal Governor of New York from 1748 to 1753. The Admiral was of the family (second son) of the sixth Earl of Lincoln, a family which bears now the title of Dukes of Newcastle. He called Charles Clinton, the father of Governor George, of the *State* of New York, *cousin*, and the latter used the same coat-of-arms as Privy Seal, in sealing State commissions, as the Royal Governor had done. Examples of it may be seen in the State Library. His nephew, Gov. De Witt Clinton, made use of the same, as he had a perfect right to do. B. FERNOW.

STATE LIBRARY, ALBANY, N. Y., May 6, 1887.

[We see nothing in the foregoing letter to modify our assertion that the Beekman arms lacked confirmation. Mr. Vermont printed first as Beekman arms a coat of a griffin holding a helmet in his paws. He gave his usual vague authorities. The coat, however, was obviously copied from Burke's 'General Armory'—no authority at all in such a case. Then he found that this coat was wrong, and printed in plate xvii another coat, viz., a bend wavy between two roses, giving as authority the seal of William Beekman. After his first conspicuous blunder, we naturally asked confirmation of the second coat. An early use of a seal is fair evidence, no doubt, but we should very much like to know if the grant of arms by James I. to Gerard Beekman has been printed. If it has been, it should have been cited; if not, the sooner it is printed the better for the Beekman claim.

As to the Clintons, Mr. Vermont, in his appendix, goes further than Mr. Fernow does, for he says that a letter in the New York State Library shows that the emigrant, Col. Charles Clinton, was son of James and grandson of William, who was a son of the second Earl of Lincoln. We should be glad to see a copy of this all-important letter. We cannot accept Mr. Vermont as a safe reporter of essential facts, as examples before cited show. The letter is important, for, if correct, the American line is entitled to recognition in the British Peerages, and the male heirs would be in the line of succession to the Earldom of Lincoln.—ED. NATION.]

ARCHÆOLOGY IN THE MEDITERRANEAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I shall not trouble you with a controversion of Messrs. Clarke and Emerson's reply to my letter on Archæology in the Mediterranean, so far as Cyrenaica is concerned, because I have never been in the country myself, and base my conclusions on what I have heard from the French and Italian archæologists. The fact, however, that your correspondents have made excursions in the country does not impugn what I wrote, since making rapid and unimposing excursions in any barbarous country is a different thing from entering into serious and prolonged undertakings there. Mr. Reinach could advise the Institute much better than I, as he knows the history of the prior attempts. I had my attention directed to the Cyrenaica years before Mr. Clarke suggested it as a field, but was told that it was impracticable from the hostility of the tribes in the interior towards any foreign intervention. It is only a few months ago that the unsubmitted Tuaregs made a descent, I think on Ghat, so submissive are they to the Turkish rule, and exterminated the entire Turkish garrison; and there is nothing practically to prevent them from raiding as far as Benghasy. It was for this reason that I said that where the authority of the Turks ceases, the Tuaregs will stop excavation, and where they cannot prevent it, the Porte will.

There is very great political jealousy about the Tripolitaine. The best course to follow would be to see, first, if the Porte would give a firman. I quite agree with Mr. Clarke as to the value of the field for archæological research, but I should strongly advise taking the advice of experienced explorers before undertaking any expense in that direction. For many years French archæologists, as well as English and German, have had their eyes on Tripoli, but at this present moment there is no Power which is free from suspicion as to its views on the East. Even in Crete I was often told that the United States had long entertained a desire to annex the island. No Oriental believes a direct statement of anybody as to politics, but that what is said is merely the cover for what is intended. If the Porte can be induced to give a firman for excavation in Cyrenaica, where it can protect the excavators, and the United States Government will promise to hold the Porte to its engagements, it would be safe to risk an expedition there; otherwise not, in my opinion.

As to Italy, however, I am only surprised that Messrs. Emerson and Clarke should have gone to work in open violation of the Italian law, and expect to be let off with merely filling up their excavations. The naïveté of foreigners who suppose they can come into a civilized country and undertake excavations especially forbidden, without authorization by the royal Government, and without taking the trouble to ask for a permission, "needs no comment." If Messrs. Clarke and Emerson had taken the trouble to ascertain the state of the law on archæological investigation before beginning, they would have found that any such work must be authorized by the Ministry of Instruction, and that the communal authorities have no more right to permit it than the Town Council of Salem, Mass. On the contrary, the communal authorities are continually conniving at clandestine excavations by which many objects of archæological interest are taken from the country, not "for scientific ends," but as "treasure trove," and the Ministry is obliged to employ a large staff of persons whose business it is to prevent any such digging. Messrs. Emerson and Clarke were, in fact, poaching, and, if they had been Italians, would have been punished more severely than by the reclosing of their trenches. Their indignation against "those at the head of archæology in Italy" is, under the circumstances, amusing. Their attempt to evade the Italian law will probably make it difficult for the Institute to get the permit which would once have been easy. The Government applies these restrictions not to prevent foreign museums from acquiring objects found here, but to keep an exact record of what is found and where it was found, and to be enabled to purchase for its own museums what is necessary to fill gaps in the Italian collections. In this they deserve the hearty support of every scientific archæologist.

Yours truly, W. J. STILLMAN.

VENICE, May 5.

Notes.

THE Historical Society of Pennsylvania propose to issue a volume to commemorate the centennial anniversary of the adoption of the Federal Constitution. It will contain the debates in the Pennsylvania Convention that ratified the Constitution, a number of able essays that appeared at the time, and biographical sketches of the Pennsylvanians who were members of the State and of the Federal Conventions. The debates in the Pennsylvania Convention have never been printed since they appeared in the newspapers a century ago. What Elliot gives as the Pennsylvania debates is nothing but the remarks made by Judge Wilson, in a debate of a number of days, brought into the form of a single speech. This valuable work will be edited by Prof. John Bach McMaster. It should furnish an example to the historical societies of the other original States.

G. P. Putnam's Sons will print at once, in their series of "Questions of the Day," the recent address by Edward Atkinson before the Boston Labor Union, on the subject of 'The Margin of Profit: How it is Now Divided: What Part of the Present Hours of Labor can now be Spared. With this address will be printed the reply of Mr. E. M. Chamberlain, representing the Labor Union, and Mr. Atkinson's rejoinder to the reply. The volume will contain certain tabular representations, analyzing the sources of the product and the division of the product of labor and capital, together with a chart entitled "The Labor Spectrum," which presents the full details of the present division of profits. They also announce 'Taxation: Its Principles and Methods,' a translation of 'First Principles of the Science of Finance' by Prof. Luigi Cossa of the University of

Pavia, with an introduction by Horace White; 'Gleanings from Matinecock, and Other Studies,' sketches and stories illustrating the Dutch traditions of Long Island and the banks of the Hudson; and 'The Lost Wedding Ring,' a study of present social conditions.

Roberts Brothers have in press a new book of social studies by Mrs. Louise Chandler Moulton, entitled 'Ourselves and Our Neighbors'; 'A Week away from Time,' a Cape Cod Decameron; and 'Cracker Joe,' a story of Florida life, in the third "No Name Series."

A hymn and tune-book for congregational use is to be issued in the early autumn by Messrs. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. It is edited by Profs. Harris and Tucker of Andover, with the co-operation, as musical editor, of Mr. E. K. Glezen of Providence.

Anson D. F. Randolph & Co. will publish immediately 'The Church of the Early Fathers, External History,' by Alfred Plummer ("Epochs of Church History Series"); 'Sundays at Balmoral,' sermons by the late Principal Tulloch; 'Our Sovereign Lady and her People,' by the author of 'English Hearts and English Hands'; 'Outlines of a Gentle Life,' by Maria V. C. Havergal, 'Abide in Christ' and 'Like Christ,' by the Rev. Andrew Murray; and 'Men of the Bible,' by the Rev. Geo. Rawlinson, Archdeacon Farrar, Canon T. K. Cheyne, etc.

D. P. Lindsley, No. 817 North Forty-fifth Street, Philadelphia, sends us specimen pages of 'The Shorthand Exercise Book,' which represents his latest innovation on the older methods of phonography. It will be issued in parts.

Mr. T. Humphry Ward, the editor of 'Men of the Time,' 'Men of the Reign,' 'English Poets,' and 'British Artists,' is to edit also 'The Reign of Queen Victoria: a Survey of Fifty Years of Progress,' which seems to be similar in scope to the collection of papers published in *Harper's Magazine* during our centennial year. In Mr. Ward's book the army and navy will be treated by Lords Wolseley and Brassey; India by Sir H. S. Maine; science by Prof. Huxley; schools by Mr. Matthew Arnold; literature by Mr. Richard Garnett, and the theatre by Mr. William Archer. The editor himself, as the art critic of the London *Times*, will probably write the chapter on the art of England.

The library of the late Richard M. Hoe is to be sold at auction in this city by Bangs & Co., on May 23–25. It is a truly "extraordinary collection of works on printing and the allied arts," and one could have wished it rather transferred *en bloc* to the great New York Public Library of the near future. A few hundred works, scientific and literary, swell the total number to 2,050. To remark on these in much detail is not practicable. The buyer can choose between early and rare works in many languages, facsimiles, limited editions, large-paper editions, etc., etc. The following lots are notable: No. 240, Chatto and Jackson's 'Treatise on Wood-Engraving,' ed. 1839, extended by the insertion of more than 1,000 engravings, woodcuts, etc., to three volumes; and No. 1304, Typographical Miscellanies in 37 volumes, consisting of more than 2,000 mounted engravings on copper, wood, etc., with 1,300 printers' devices and title-pages, autograph letters, fragments of old black-letter and Gothic-type books, etc., etc. No. 1409 is an old German wood-block of thirteen lines for book printing; No. 374 is a catalogue of Elzevirian productions drawn up in 1674; No. 965 is an Index Librorum of the Plantin Press made in 1615. Other Plantiniana are Nos. 1051, 1052, 1053, bibliographical works of recent date. No. 1635 is the first American edition of Bewick's 'Quadrupeds.' No. 450 is Philippe Gautier's Latin poem, 'Alexandreis' (1558), containing the famous line—"Incidis in Scyllam cupiens vitare Charybdin."

Two more volumes of the Riverside Edition of Robert Browning's Poetic and Dramatic Works (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), leave but two to complete the tale. The third is wholly taken up with "The Ring and the Book"; the fourth embraces "Balaustion's Adventure," "Prince Hohenstiel-Schwangau," "Fifine at the Fair," and the various beads strung on threads called "Men and Women," "Dramatis Personæ," etc.; "Mr. Sludge, the Medium," falling under the latter rubric. We have already praised the manufacture of this compact and sightly edition.

Caldecott collectors will prize above its intrinsic worth 'The Owls of Olynn Belfry: a Tale for Children, Illustrated by Randolph Caldecott' (Scribner & Welford). The designs are trivial, and many of them not characteristic enough to betray the artist. The story, too, as substance, is calculated for very small children, and in style is much above them. The little book is prettily printed.

The thirty-third bound volume of the *Century* is distinguished by the beginning of Messrs. Hay and Nicolay's "Abraham Lincoln." In it, too, Mr. Howells's "Minister's Charge" is brought to a conclusion. Other features we remark are "Gettysburg," in the series of War Papers; Mr. Edward Atkinson's striking papers on the "Relative Strength and Weakness of Nations"; Mr. Stillman's "Greek Coins"; Prof. Stoddard's "Composite Photography," etc. The beautiful illustrations of the articles on modern French sculpture deserve mention. In portraits the volume is extremely rich: we can name those of Lincoln, Van Buren, Tyler, Pierce, Clay, George Bancroft, Cass, Giddings, Banks, Stanton, Lee, Hawthorne, Eli Whitney, Dr. McCosh, the actor Coquelin.

The Proceedings of the Bostonian Society, just published, is of greater interest than those which have appeared in former years. In addition to the annual address of the President and the reports of the various committees, it contains a very carefully prepared catalogue of the numerous recent additions to the Society's collection of portraits and other objects of historical or antiquarian interest relating to Boston. Among the portraits are several Copleys, that of Col. Thomas Marshall being heliotyped as a frontispiece for this number. There is also an etching of the Clark Arms formerly in the house belonging to Sir C. H. Frankland, and copies of several documents acquired by the Society.

In 'Per mare, per terras' (London: T. F. Unwin), Mr. Archibald Sutter tells in a rather entertaining way the story of his travels in Australia, New Zealand, and the United States. A little more than a third of the volume is devoted to this country, and contains some useful hints to intending emigrants. The author's opinion of Americans is unusually favorable, considering his nationality. "They are," he says, "the kindest people living, if they would not be so dreadfully gone upon making money." As this sentence shows, the book is written in a very careless style, as if wayside notes were hastily thrown together without revision.

A recent advertisement in London of Mr. John H. Ingram's 'Edgar Allan Poe: his Life, Letters, and Opinions,' is rather suggestive of sharp practice, as it contains a quotation from Mr. Lowell: "Remarkable experiences are usually confined to the inner life of imaginative men, but Poe's biography displays vicissitude and peculiarity of interest such as is rarely met with." This quotation is so used as to suggest to the unwary reader that it was Poe's biography by Mr. Ingram that Mr. Lowell was praising, than which nothing could be further from the fact.

The fifth sheet of the great Topographical Atlas of New Jersey now issuing by the State Geological Survey takes its name from Flemington, roughly assumed as the centre of the district shown. Somerville marks the extreme eastern, Trenton the extreme southern limit of this map, of which the Delaware forms for the most part the western boundary. The region lying between the Delaware, the Raritan, north of the Philadephia and Reading Road, is seldom visited and little known, and hides in its rough landscape a civilization of corresponding rudeness and primitiveness. Three more sheets remain to complete the seventeen, viz., Nos. 10, 14, and 15. These will probably be ready next year.

Science promises at an early date a map of Central Africa, with special reference to the route of Stanley's expedition for the relief of Emin Bey.

Mr. Edward Atkinson, who has for many years had cheap and wholesome cookery very much at heart, makes a practical contribution to the subject in the *American Architect* for May 14, where he pictures and describes his "Aladdin" Cooker. This contrivance is heated by a kerosene lamp, with the economy that may be imagined, yet with a waste of heat afflicting to Mr. Atkinson, who is led to calculate that our natural "net loss from bad cooking and waste" is $1,000,000,000 worth of food and fuel per annum.

The uncalculated secondary effects of legislation will probably be as richly exemplified by the Inter-State Commerce Act as by any measure of recent years. We read in the *American Bookmaker* for May some remarks by Mr. Andrew Little, the type-founder of this city, to the effect that the law in question "commanded the tariff of the railroads to be put in type not smaller than pica, and consequently every foundry has been running at its full capacity on this size." Already, by the way, the Lawyers' Coöperative Publishing Co., of Rochester, N. Y., have begun publishing a series of 'Inter-State Commerce Reports,' being decisions and proceedings of the Commission and decisions of the courts. No. 1 contains the text of the Act, with an index.

The American collection of 'Ballads of Books' was an anthology from the poets of the past and present; but in 'Les Légendes du Livre' (Paris: Lemerre; New York: F. W. Christern), M. F. Fertiault, a single poet, has gathered together nearly 200 poems of his own, all in praise of books and authors, or telling anecdotes about them.

M. Henri de Lapommeraye, who in 1871 defended the "Visite de Noces" of Alexandre Dumas in a dialogue of which the form was suggested by Molière, again presents himself as the champion of the paradoxical dramatist, in "La Critique de Francillon" (Paris: Jouaust; New York: Duprat & Co.). He adds on his title-page that his comedy is borrowed from the "Critique de l'École des Femmes," and, in fact, there are many speeches wholly reproduced from Molière, while the names of all the characters are the same. This only adds to the charm of M. de Lapommeraye's *jeu d'esprit*. But it can scarcely be said that the modern Dorante defends the morality of "Francillon" against the attacks of Lysidas and Célimène as successfully as Molière's Dorante defends "L'École des Femmes." M. Alexandre Dumas claims to be considered as a moralist in his plays. In everything he does there is an attempt to rise to the tone of a spiritual director. But it will take more serious argumentation than is to be found in "La Critique de Francillon" to raise the author of "La Dame aux Camélias" and "La Femme de Claude" to the rank of a moralist.

The infelicity that attends French writers when they attempt to meddle with anything English befell the late novelist, Féval. *Polybiblion* ends his obituary with the remark, "Some

of his works were signed with the pseudonym Sir Francis Trollopp." Now, Trollope with a final *e* is a name honored, more or less, in English; but trollop without the *e* is a word of an ill savor, which Féval certainly would not have used if he had known what he was doing.

Volumes lvi, lvii, and lviii of the Compendium of the Imperial Russian Historical Society have been issued. Volume lvi continues the publication of the protocols, journals, and ukases of the Supreme Privy Council under the Empress Catharine I., for August and December, 1726; volume lvii contains the third instalment of the political correspondence of Catharine II. for 1764–66, in which publication special attention is paid to the "autograph resolutions" of the Empress, as striking traits which must be used by biographers for her proper characterization. Volume lviii begins the new series, and contains the beginning of the very curious reports of the French Minister at the court of Catharine I. for the first nine months of the year 1725.

A conference of Moscow physicians has entered a protest against overstraining the minds of scholars in the gymnasia. The studies at which their protest is levelled are the dead languages—so far as translation from Russian into them is concerned—and Church-Slavic. The excuse for the study of the latter tongue is that there is danger of degeneration of the Russian proper. The same complaint which is current in other countries is made in this case, that the language of the day has already degenerated and is wofully slipshod. This assertion is so sweeping that it includes Turgeneff, Tolstoi, and all writers of the century, though no names are mentioned.

On March 8, Pavel Vasilievitch Annenkoff died in Dresden. He was one of the prominent representatives of the literature of the forties, and a critic whose judgment was so highly respected that Turgeneff was in the habit, towards the end of his life, of submitting his writings to him in manuscript. Some of his correspondence with Turgeneff has recently been published. He was born in Moscow in 1811. His literary activity began about 1840, when he went abroad and met Turgeneff in Berlin. He wrote letters to the great critic, Bielinsky, which were published in the *Annals of the Fatherland*. On subsequent visits abroad, he wrote other series of letters which were highly esteemed, and which appeared in the *Contemporary*. His chief publication was the edition of Pushkin's works and the 'Materials' for his life, which long ranked as the best attainable. He spent the latter part of his life abroad, but continued his critical writings, which are numerous, and concern all the most prominent Russian authors of the century.

B. Westermann & Co. send us the prospectus of a sumptuous folio edition of the painter Menzel's work ('Das Werk Adolph Menzels, vom Künstler autorisierte Ausgabe'). There will be 120 untouched reproductions after the original paintings, drawings, etc. Only 350 numbered copies of this memorial of a versatile artist will be printed.

—The legal profession and all students of legal history will be interested to know of the formation of the Selden Society in England, "mainly for the purpose of collecting and editing in a convenient form materials for . . . English legal history." Nothing is of greater promise for the promotion of the science of jurisprudence in English-speaking countries than this enterprise, and it is to be hoped that the Selden Society will have the means of prosecuting its labors with energy. In the Provisional Committee of the Society we observe the names of the Chief Justice of England, Lord Justice Fry, Mr. Justice Wills, Professors Dicey, Pollock, and Skeat, Mr. F. W. Maitland, and various distinguished persons, members of the bar and others. The mass of unpublished material which lies ready for such a society is enormous. The Society might in some form continue Palgrave's 'Rotuli Curiæ Regis,' or the 'Abbreviatio Placitorum,' or Mr. Maitland's work in reproducing the early criminal law records, or the early proceedings of the Court of Chancery, of which there is a vast unpublished collection. And there is an immense mass of material besides all this. Besides attacking in some way these unpublished records, the Society has in mind the preparation of new editions of Glanville, Bracton, Fleta, and other old treatises, and the collection of materials for a good dictionary of the law French, or what Prof. Skeat would call Anglo-French.

—A number of prominent American lawyers have already become members of the Selden Society, and it is hoped that many others may join. All persons, whether lawyers or not, who are interested in the undertaking, are invited to become members. It is evident that the publications of the Society will be of great interest and value, and also that the amount of its work will depend on the number of its members. From a copy of a "draft prospectus" which has reached us, we take the following statement: "The annual subscription to the Society is one guinea, due on the first of January of the year then commencing. Members have no further liability of any kind. Every subscriber will receive a copy of all the publications for the year. A composition of twenty guineas is accepted in lieu of all annual subscriptions, constituting life membership from the date of composition. In the case of libraries and corporate bodies, the privilege extends to a period of years. The subscription for 1887 is now due, and should be paid—in England, to the Honorary Secretary and Treasurer, Mr. P. Edward Dove, No. 23 Old Buildings, Lincoln's Inn, London; in America, to Prof. J. B. Thayer, Cambridge, Mass., who has kindly undertaken to receive all American subscriptions."

—We have received from Judge Fornander of Honolulu a long reply to our critique (*Nation*, August 26, 1886) of his third volume on the Polynesian Race. So far as it challenges our opinion of what, without disrespect, we must term his philological vagaries, we cannot, in accordance with our necessary usage, publish his rejoinder. Having, however, attributed to him the early adoption of a preconceived theory as to Polynesian origins, we give below a few autobiographical extracts, premising that Judge Fornander was forty-eight years of age when his story begins:

"In 1860 I commenced collecting the ancient legends, chants, prayers, genealogies, proverbs—in fact, the folk lore of every kind that could be gathered from the older inhabitants—those who had attained to manhood during the previous period of heathenism, or who, for special reasons, had been instructed in the ancient folk-lore by the survivors and important actors of that period. My object in so doing was simply to preserve those precious fragments from oblivion, and for scientific utilization at some future opportunity. At that time I had no set or pet 'theory' on Polynesian subjects other than that held generally by ethnologists and scientists of that day as to the racial and linguistic affinities of the Malays and Polynesians. Some time in 1863 I ceased collecting, and it was over two years more before I had an opportunity and leisure to arrange, collate, and critically examine my collection. I then found that the Polynesians had a very different account to render of themselves and their past national life to what had generally been attributed to them. I followed these revelations as mariners are said to underrun a cable to find out where the anchor lies, and step by step I followed them from the Pacific to the Indian Archipelago, from there to the western shores of Hindustan and the head of the Persian Gulf. . . . Up to this period (1866) I had no theory whatever on the subject. Their own legends gave no intimation, unless that Creation legend, mentioned in vol. i, p. 62, where the head of a man was said to have been formed of 'white clay.' In 1867 I fell in with Bopp's famously unfortunate essay, 'Ueber die Verwandtschaft,' etc., and to that work was 'indebted for the first idea of comparing the Polynesian and Aryan languages,' and, in short, to apply the test of language in order to ascertain to which of the 'Kiprat Arbat' or 'Arba Lisun' the Polynesians might lay claim as their ancestors. To me, as to every other Polynesian scholar, it became evident at a glance that Bopp could not demonstrate the problem he had set himself to solve; and I need not here go into a criticism to show the reasons why. But there was enough in Bopp's essay to encourage others, under more favorable circumstances, to make the attempt."

—From America to Wales via Germany is, our readers will doubtless say, quite roundabout. Yet we have taken this roundabout way with some profit and some pleasure, under the guidance of Schuchardt's book, 'Romanisches und Keltisches' (Berlin: Oppenheim; New York: B. Westermann & Co.). One hundred of its four hundred pages, entitled *Keltische Briefe*, deal with the Welsh Eisteddfod of 1875, and are the best exposition we know of the actual Welsh nationality, its traits and ways, its outlook—the best, at least, accessible to one not familiar with the Welsh language. They give one a fair idea of what the Welsh mean by their patriotic efforts, and the demands they make upon general sympathy. The article is anything but abstruse in its erudition. Were we to offer any criticism, it would be that the author goes scarcely deep enough, and his side-thrusts at England and English culture are, to speak mildly, flippant. This remark is applicable also to like remarks in the other essays of the book. We cannot speak of these in detail—their contents are too motley and disconnected, ranging from the Pompeiian *grafiti* to the Diez memorial. Some of them—*e. g.*, the review of Comparetti's memorable work on Virgil in the Middle Ages—are too slight to be worthy of reproduction. The essay on Goethe and Calderon abounds in just remarks, but perhaps attaches too much importance to the symbolism of Goethe's later years. The author would do well to consider whether all that is in Goethe is genuinely Goethean. In his remarks on "Rime and Rhythm in German and Romance," the author betrays a want of understanding of the finer points of English metre. Our verse has always been spontaneous, untrammelled by pedantic rules, save during the so-called "classic" period. What made Lessing's blank verse so "run-on" (see p. 224) was doubtless the influence of the later English drama.

—There is no writer in Russian literature whose very text presents so complicated a history as that of Pushkin. It is not rare for posthumous editions to contain corrections and variations, together with earlier productions which have chanced to escape notice; but even in this particular Pushkin's works have had a peculiar fate. Many of his writings were not known in his lifetime, and the edition published (1838–41) after his death, by friends and admirers, was distinguished by great inaccuracy. Annenkoff, whose edition is accompanied by the well-known "Materials" for biography (1855–57), was the first to obtain access to the poet's MSS. During Pushkin's last hours the Emperor Nicholas commissioned the poet Zhukovsky to seal up all the MSS. Three-quarters of an hour after Pushkin's death Zhukovsky affixed his seal to the poet's effects, but this proved to be an insufficient protection. The papers were overhauled by the officials of the gendarmerie; but neither the official guardians, with Zhukovsky at their head, nor the gendarmerie, did their work thoroughly. The MSS. were very carelessly numbered, and the two numerations do not correspond. The number of sheets called for in the two accounts varies;

some pages have been torn out, and, in some cases, the gendarmerie sewed loose sheets together into books in such a way that an article beginning on page 1 may be continued on page 61, etc. Pushkin, as is well known, kept his poems by him for years before printing them, and, even after they were printed, he made excisions and alterations. After the Pushkin Festival, in 1880, the poet's eldest son presented his father's papers to the Rumyantzoff Museum in Moscow, and the right to make use of them was conferred on the editor of the 'Russian Archives,' Mr. Barteneff, who had made Pushkin a study for thirty years; but a comparison of his edition founded on these documents with the documents themselves led to so unfavorable a conclusion that the necessity for another edition was perceived.

—The number of competing editions has now become so large that it will prove of interest to intending purchasers to learn the plan of Mr. P. O. Morozoff's, just issued by the Society for Assisting Literary and Learned Men, in seven volumes, octavo (St. Petersburg). It is intended first, to present, as far as possible, a full and carefully collated edition of Pushkin's text; secondly, to provide a book which may serve as an aid in the study of Pushkin's time in general. To this end, use has been made of all the papers in the Moscow and Petersburg Museums and in the Imperial Public Library, and of all works published since the author's death. Works which require explanation are supplemented by biographical, bibliographical, historical, and literary notes, both Russian and foreign, and all the facts relating to them. All pieces hitherto published with cuts and in a garbled form are reproduced in their entirety; the poems which originally occurred in prose pieces, and which are generally published outside their setting, have been replaced in their proper environment; and some fragments, which equal in beauty the choicest pieces hitherto known, are now published for the first time. This edition contains three portraits of the poet. The first is a copy of the engraving by Heitman, after the original by Briuloff (or Tchiukoff), published in 1822 with his 'Prisoner of the Caucasus'; the second is a copy of a pencil portrait sketched in 1820 by Jules Vernet, and now published for the first time; the third is a copy of Utkin's engraving.

JEBB'S INTRODUCTION TO HOMER.

Homer: An Introduction to the Iliad and Odyssey. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1887.

Prof. Jebb's Introduction to Homer is marked by his characteristic firm literary touch, and by the exquisite taste that gives all his philological work an exceptional and individual attractiveness. Much of the book is naturally assimilation of the labor of others, and those who are at all familiar with the literature will readily recognize the sources, which he has himself frankly indicated in the appendix. Among these, Prof. Seymour's contributions to the study of Homer have not been overlooked nor left unacknowledged; nor, we should add, have they been superseded by this general introductory work. But, although much is taken from others, every section is full of suggestiveness, and many points are discussed with a certainty of conviction that is due to independent thought and research. Especially interesting is Prof. Jebb's theory of the crystallization of the 'Iliad.' The 'Iliad' to Prof. Jebb is not an Achilleïs, not a merely personal episode. "It must have been from the first an 'Iliad,' including some general description of that struggle between Greek and Trojan in which a new crisis was occasioned by the temporary withdrawal of Achilles. Precisely the distinction of the poet's invention was the choice of a moment which could combine the personal interest of a feud between two heroes with the variety and splendor of large battle scenes." This primary 'Iliad' consisted of books 1, 11, and 16 to 22—"allowance being made for later interpolations, large and small." It was enlarged first between 1 and 11; 2 to 7 (with the exception of the much later Catalogue) representing the earliest series of additions made—mere detached episodes—while 12 to 15, though work worthy of a great poet, unduly separate 11 from 16. Books 8 and 9 were added by a poet conscious of rhetorical gifts, who saw what could be made of an appeal to Achilles. Books 23 and 24 form a sequel, and book 10 is a comparatively late interpolation. The primary 'Iliad' was Thessalian, the enlarged 'Iliad' Ionian.

This theory, like so much else in the book, is a dexterous reconciliation of a variety of views, and, like so many other reconstructions, must await the test of the continued examination of the Homeric text itself, as Prof. Jebb himself reminds us at the close of this book. There are no Unitarians, no Epyllia-hunters left. We are all Unitarians—if you will allow interpolations enough; we are all Epyllia-hunters—if you will allow a thread for crystallization; and, after all these years of wrangling, one begins to see a *modus vivendi*, and—which is more important, though less welcome to the æsthetic soul—a hearty consensus among scholars as to the further need of pressing those studies of the infinitely little, the recognition of the importance of which is one of the characteristics of the scholarship of to-day.

The Homeric Question is the subject of the last of the four chapters. The other three are headed in order, "General Characteristics," "The Homeric World," "Homer in Antiquity"—each rich in matter and almost provokingly suggestive. It is needless to say that, in a subject so full of details, any fresh pair of philological eyes may detect errors and omissions; and the many problems that are presented admit of so many varying points of view that it would be impossible for any one to make an impression that should satisfy every angle of vision. Hence, a minute criticism would seem unjustly to lower the tone of cordial commendation that the book deserves. And yet, the finer the work the more impatient does one become of any particle of dust that settles on it here and there; and as Prof. Jebb has shown, by his list of errata, how restless he is under the slightest infelicities of types or of expression, we will point out one or two passages in which the mistakes are puzzling or misleading:

In the note on p. 5 he says that "the *Iliad* contains nearly 15,000 lines; the *Odyssey* nearly 12,000." "Nearly" implies defect, and the 'Iliad' contains more than 15,000, the 'Odyssey' more than 12,000—the one about 15,693, the other about 12,160, according to one count. In the note on p. 82 every reader will correct one 'Chios' into 'Rhodos,' but the young student unfamiliar with Pindar would hardly of himself get the reference right in the note on p. 93, 'Schol. Pind. [Ol.] 3, 52.' The statement (p. 134) that "the style (of the *Kalewala*) has been compared to that of Longfellow's *Hiawatha*," is rather amusing in view of the fact that the 'Kalewala' suggested 'Hiawatha;' and shows, we fear, that Prof. Jebb, with all his American friendships and alliances, is not very much at home in our classical literature. But these are venial slips. Much less excusable, we must confess, is the passage, in a note on p. 87, in which the celebrated epigram (Επτὰ πόλεις), of which there are varying versions in Anthol. Plan. 4, 297-298, is said to have been placed by Varro on a bust of Homer, and the authority given is Aulus Gellius 3, 11. The epigram has long since been expelled from the critical texts of Gellius.

But one is ashamed to mention such trivialities, as if they impaired in the least the value of the book; and when we come to the chapter of omission, the awkward question suggests itself to the reviewer, whether Prof. Jebb does not wittingly leave out what would have cumbered the book without increasing its interest or its usefulness. So, having given us (p. 144) Prof. Humphreys's summary of Sittl's exceptions to the views of Hinrichs, he might have also given us a hint that Hinrichs was not slow in making a crushing rejoinder to Sittl. Such a hint would have been grateful to the shade of Hinrichs, though, of course, Prof. Jebb could not have anticipated Hinrichs's early demise. To the admirable section (chap. iv, p. 54) in which Prof. Jebb speaks of the deceptive unity of the epic style, he might have added the remarkable fact, ascertained by the painful counting of Carl Eduard Schmidt, that the sum of the repeated verses in the two poems amounts to the enormous aggregate of 16,000 verses, or more than the bulk of the 'Iliad'—figures that show distinctly how largely the uniform color is due to what may be called the mechanical element.

Difference of opinion opens an endless field into which we cannot enter here. We are not disposed to pull down the Homeric house that Mr. John Protodikos built, nor are we prepared to do battle for Hissarlik against Bunárbashi; and we can understand how a professor in a Scottish university may maintain the Homeric character of Scott's metrical romances. But in spite of all the admirable things that have been admirably put by Prof. Jebb, it does not seem to us that he has done full justice to the wonderful character-drawing of the 'Odyssey,' and the evidence which it gives of one moulding hand. However, this opens too large a question for consideration here, and we will only say that the whole matter of the typical and the individual in Greek poetic art needs readjustment. The type can only express itself in the individual; and if we lay too much stress on the typical in Greek, we lose the concreteness which is so eminently Greek. It is not because the individualization is not there, it is because the individualization is so subtle that it escapes us. But to challenge Prof. Jebb's appreciation of Hellenism at any point is to challenge the horsemen to come down into the plain, according to the Greek saying, and we end as we began by a cordial recommendation of Prof. Jebb's book to those who love Homer, and to those who have yet to learn to love him.

RECENT NOVELS.

The Merry Men. By R. L. Stevenson. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Springhaven. By R. D. Blackmore. Harper & Bros.

The Woodlanders. By Thomas Hardy. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

Jess. By H. Rider Haggard. Harper & Bros.

The Jesuit's King. By Augustus Allen Hayes. Charles Scribner's Sons.

A New England Idyl. By Belle C. Greene. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.

Miss Churchill. By Christian Reid. D. Appleton & Co.

The Bride of the Nile. By George Ebers. Translated by Clara Bell. William S. Gottsberger.

In the remarkable tales collected under the title 'The Merry Men,' Mr. Stevenson has concentrated much observation and thought on the baffling problem, why sin is sin, and why men are persistently sinful, when all would be so much happier if all were good. The narrator of

the first story lies awake one night listening to a storm howling over the Island of Aros, and to the voices of the Merry Men as they raged across the reefs and broke against the cliffs. Once in a while he hears a human cry piercing the elemental din, and he knows it to be the cry of his kinsman, Gordon Darnaway, crazed with the unconfessed sin of murder on his soul. Then, he says, "A great fear fell upon me of God's judgments and of the evil in the world."

There, in few words, is the inspiration of the tales. In not one is there any sophistical palliation or extenuation of evil, not a scoff, or a doubt of the awful, inevitable judgment of God. No time or space is given to the superficial man, the thing made up of artificial conventions, the "botched mass of tailors' and cobblers' shreds." We have souls striving consciously or unconsciously to avert damnation in eternity. The forces are tremendous, and the man who develops them in language of the utmost simplicity and vigor necessarily writes with full belief in the importance of the message which he is called to deliver to the world. Mr. Stevenson has softened and humanized the stern Calvinistic creed—as he calls it, "the damnatory creed"—but it is nevertheless the pivot of his genius. It is to the pith and marrow of his work what "deils, bogles, sea-spensters, and sic-like" are to the embellishment. He probably does not believe that the devil habitually takes shape of man or beast or fish the better to work his wicked will; but if he didn't come very near that, he couldn't make his reader afraid to look over his shoulder lest he should see the Prince of Darkness behind him.

The personal and incarnate devil is a conspicuous figure in most of the stories; he is the personage of "Thrawn Janet" and of "Markheim." His appearance in "Thrawn Janet" is for purposes of sheer deviltry, and horrible without relief. Told in broad Scotch, the tale is a complete exposition of that incongruous union of grotesque superstition with the theology of John Knox which could probably never have been arrived at by a people with less imagination and a more generally diffused sense of humor than the Scotch. In "Markheim" the devil is akin to the German *Doppelgänger*. He is Markheim's worst self, or represents in the flesh his worst possibilities, coming at a crucial moment to tempt the man who has slipped away from good to commit himself irrevocably to evil. Here, in half-a-dozen pages, is compressed the whole history of a weak mortal's gradual descent from innocent youth, highly aspiring, to most iniquitous manhood. Markheim is going, as thousands of Markheims infirm of purpose have gone, morally straight to hell. He is stayed at the lost moment by a flash of defiance, of revolt against the malignant shape that would bind him fast for ever. Only George Eliot's Tito Melema is comparable in drawing to Markheim, and Mr. Stevenson does not lose in force by brevity. For grip of the vitals of humanity he is George Eliot's successor and only peer. Untrammelled by her pedantry, perhaps because he may not have her learning, he bids fair to pass her as a teacher. He seems to feel that the modern world will really heed only the voice that says what it has to say in a breath, no word weak or superfluous; and he has so far been conscientious enough never to lift his voice till the right word is springing to his lips. A deeper appreciation of his conscientiousness and of the fact that singularity of incident and picturesqueness are with him secondary to meaning and truth in character, might arrest the flow of talk about his weird, fantastic, morbid imagination, his poetical style, his likeness to Poe and other purveyors of literary hashish dreams.

His style is the nearest imaginable approach to perfect prose narrative. A man, clever enough, would tell these tales almost exactly as they are written. His sparingly used metaphors and similes are matter-of-fact; his language is vivid and impressive, because it is accurate, acutely descriptive of his scene or character, perfectly elucidating his thought. Every word of his tells. Poets, especially poets like Poe, whose kingdom is the supernatural, work their effects by delighting or appalling the imagination to such a degree that the befogged reason forgets about accuracy and does not care a snap about truth. Even when they fascinate the intellect it is by a brilliant display of invention, of constructive ingenuity, not by sustained and acute reasoning. They rarely concern themselves with moral questions, and, when they do, their views have generally more glitter than substance. In the art that appeals to the imagination alone, Poe towers above Stevenson; in the art that stirs the soul, moving men to stretch out feeble hands to good for good's sake, Poe sinks beneath comparison with Stevenson.

In work which is largely the expression of human intellect groping for an answer to a riddle which human intellect may not read, there can be nothing very light or amusing. Those who want relief from strains of melancholy and horror must hasten to the last pages, devoted to "The Treasure of Franchard." Dr. Desprez fights his angel in a buoyant, cheerful French way. He is an engaging old humbug, whom, if the author had been familiar with the word, he must have dubbed a "blatherskite." A good angel who knew how to cook, and a succession of calamities, barely sufficed to keep him in the narrow way. Yet, for all his unworthiness, he must take hold of common affections, even as he wound himself round the heart of the loyal Jean-Marie and of his placid Anastasie. The delineation of Desprez exonerates the author from the possible charge of being hard on the sinner. The mere technical art of all these stories is so obvious that comment is superfluous. But we cannot refrain from commending the last to aspiring writers. By a thoughtful reading they may learn a bit of the secret of making characters stand on their own legs, and compelling them to lay bare the heart upon the sleeve.

"Sir," said Mr. Twemlow, the Rector in 'Springhaven,' "it is our mission from the Lord to quench Boney and to conquer the bullies of Europe." Mr. Blackmore's mission, in this novel, is evidently to revive in England some spark of that patriotic fervor which animated the Rector, which burned in every true Englishman's breast when "Boney" was the world's bobgoblin and for centuries before. In passage after passage of grave eloquence he echoes the Bastard's lines:

> "This England never did, nor never shall,
> Lie at the proud foot of a Conqueror,
> But when it first did help to wound itself."

And, with the feeling noticeably prevalent among English men of letters that England is of late chiefly occupied in wounding itself, he makes passionate appeal to the old love for their "precious stone set in the silver sea." He writes of men who kept their rudder true, who held fast, who never said die, whose very narrowness and pig-headed self sufficiency did much to make England supreme among nations. His central incident is the invasion of England contemplated by Napoleon in 1805, and the sleepy village of Springhaven is represented as the spot chosen for the French landing. Caryl Carne, but half English by descent and all French in sympathy, is selected by Napoleon to prepare the way for him and his myrmidons. Carne owns a worthless estate and ruined castle close by Springhaven, and through him general misery and particular tragedy fall upon the little town. He is as cold-blooded and ruthless a traitor as ever sold his birthright, as picturesque a villain as ever served novelist a good turn. His foil is Blythe Scudamore, the "gentle Scuddy, brave and modest, wholesome and natural, facing the cannon's mouth without flinching, and recklessly flinging down his heart for a pretty, foolish girl to trample on." Scuddy's behavior on land and at sea, in war and in love, entitles him to a place among the great heroes of fiction. His sweetheart, Dolly Darling, is a very charming maiden, and just as romantic and silly as a charming, idle maiden may be without harm or shame. No real man could escape being Dolly's slave; if Mr. Blackmore had had her alive, in his study, he would never have dared to treat her so harshly as he does. He takes a mean advantage of the fact that Dolly is either dead or old enough to be past mischief. He sneers at her little vanities, makes much ado about her little deceits, and finally throws on her shapely shoulders the whole burden of her father's death.

All but the last violence, for which there is no artistic necessity, might be excused, since his severity towards Dolly extends to all her sex. He levels a great many poisoned arrows at the vulnerable points of women. He refers to a golden age when, among other happy conditions, "women had time enough to mind their neighbors' affairs, without which they grow scandalous." He remarks of the excellent Miss Twemlow that she "was beginning to be twenty-five years old—a job which takes some years in finishing." He can't let Mrs. Twemlow and Mrs. Stubbins hobnob over their tea without telling us that their sweet friendship would "last until their interests should happen to diverge." He shows his masculine jealousy of the "best-regulated or largest feminine mind," by asserting that it "generally is the worst-regulated." Any woman with a well-regulated mind who wants material for a philippic against the spite, prejudice, and dogmatic assertiveness of the masculine mind let loose on the characteristics of women, need go no further than 'Springhaven.'

The occasional glimpse of Nelson in the home of Admiral Darling confirms the impression of gentleness, and that quality of character called "interesting," left by the records of his life. It will help those who know him only as a great fighter to understand why he is the English hero dearer than all others to the heart of the people. The characterization of Napoleon, also, is vivid and in agreement with the most reliable contemporary description, though it is difficult quite to accept the author's opinion that the Corsican's beautiful face "had helped to make his fortune more than any woman's had ever done for her."

If Mr. Blackmore is too hard on a girl sweet and fresh like the rose of June, Mr. Hardy, in 'The Woodlanders,' is over and above tender with a girl who affects us unpleasantly, like a noxious weed. We are invited chiefly to interest ourselves in a game of speculation in Grace Melbury's affections, a ticklish stock, and unscrupulously watered by that young lady. She is an Anna Karénina called to a lower state of life. She wants the earth, and takes all she can get of it, by fair means or foul. She had a worse man for a husband than was Anna Karénina's, and a better man for a lover; thus she was saved from actual infidelity, though by no virtue in herself. Tolstoi barely condones Anna's fault, and sweeps her by the judgment of conscience to a fearful end. Mr. Hardy exalts the spirituality of Grace Melbury, and doesn't seem to think that she commits an error worth the attention of conscience. He doesn't mean, either, that her husband shall appear rather less offensive than she, yet he does; for, having been off a year or so with another woman, Fitzpiers experiences a slight diffidence in inviting his wife to live with him again. The principal events and characters lead us to infer that Woodlanders are as bad as

other people, and even worse; and the lesser characters do no more than help to an average goodness. Marty South and Winterbourne are dull examples of virtue, while the people who make shrewd observations in dialect just fall short of that acuteness which may repay one for the labor to understand their jargon. We are beginning to long for a novelist bold enough to permit his people to say good things in English that we can read at sight.

'Jess' has about every quality that a novel of adventure should have. It is brisk, exciting, funny, and occasionally pathetic. The scene is in a land so generally unknown that the author's imagination is practically unfettered; yet, where truth is desirable, he tells it with apparent fidelity. He has no timidity in exposing the criminal mismanagement of recent British campaigns in South Africa, and some of his utterances compare with Mr. Blackmore's for sincere and earnest patriotism. The sarcasm implied in old Silas Croft's faith that his country is willing and able to keep her agreements and protect her subjects, is bitter but justifiable. It is probably this patriotism that leads Mr. Haggard to represent the Boers as something viler than either Hottentots or Kaffirs. His Frank Muller is a very black villain, yet he alone stands out as the cause of events. The other people are only adjuncts to the action, interesting for the remarkable things that happen to them. They are the helpless instruments of Fate on a frolic. Even of Jess, whom the author declares to be the spirit and soul of the book, this is partially true. We are absorbed in her vicissitudes, not in her individuality. Once or twice, however, her despair and passion do excite sympathy for the woman, especially when, worn by fatigue and mental stress to the verge of death, she nerves herself to do the deed which shall insure her sister's happiness. It was just before this crisis that she made the mistake to write the poem which has got Mr. Haggard into literary difficulty. The context indicates conclusively that Mr. Haggard meant to let the verses pass as his, if they could. It is equally certain that, even if he did not know their author, he, more than any one, was in full possession of the knowledge that they were not his.

In 'The Jesuit's Ring' an attempt is made to bridge the gap in time and circumstance stretching between Champlain's "Isle of the Desert Mountains" and the sea-girt paradise of summer wanderers, Mt. Desert. The medium of connection is a gold ring set with the stone Sardius, from the Temple of Solomon, with a Hebrew inscription graven thereon. The ring has the magical and embarrassing property of detecting the character of its wearer. It consents to be worn only by the worthy, and proclaims the unworthiness of any wearer by losing itself as soon as he passes by a bubbling spring, where it comfortably lies hidden till fished up by a knight without reproach. The Jesuit, Du Thet, to whom it was given with blessing by that pious lady, Mme. de Guercheville, wore it when he died at Saint Sauveur. It was stolen by a miscreant, one of Argall's English band who descended on Mt. Desert and destroyed the Jesuit's colony. At once it slipped from the blood-stained fingers into a running stream, and there for more than two centuries and a half it stayed. All this is told in the prologue, and told sympathetically, with pleasant, romantic effect, though the author seems to think that the English in Acadia were just such unmitigated ruffians as Mr. Haggard finds the Boers in Africa. The modern story turns on the search for the lost ring, affording opportunity for description of Mt. Desert's great natural beauties and of the life of the annually invading mob of pleasure-seekers.

The transition from almost mediæval romance to late, nineteenth-century commonplace is an unpleasant shock to the sensibilities. The mystic atmosphere is partially sustained in the character of Ramsay, the inheritor of Du Thet's fine spirit, and, like him, longing to look before he dies on Norumbega's walls. But the worldlings overshadow Ramsay. Most of what relates to the ring is cold, a perfunctory working out of a scheme. The author is not alone to blame for the falling off in interest and literary merit. There is something in Bar Harbor life fatal to romance of a refined and delicate kind. If a novelist touch it, he becomes vapid, hard, superficial, and the more he merits these epithets the nearer he comes to a truthful representation of what he sees and hears. When the author carries his hero, Somers, off from Bar Harbor and lets him take a hand against the strikers on a Western railroad, he writes with vigorous directness. He has something worth writing about, and these chapters, though hardly relevant to the plot, are far the best of the modern story. The walking gentlemen in flannels resembling Joseph's coat, the talking old women, and the rosebud garden of girls, are all so natural that the chapters descriptive of them are extremely dull reading. The dulness is not enlivened by the love of the gentlemen for a little easy Latin, but their proneness to display it, regardless of propriety, may heighten the naturalness. Perhaps, too, it is for truthfulness of portraiture that Seaton is made to compare his economical friend with John Gilpin. It was "Mistress Gilpin (careful soul)" who, "though on pleasure she was bent," preserved "a frugal mind." The introduction of a valet masquerading as a French Count has more boldness than novelty, a remark equally applicable to the narration of several anecdotes, noticeably that of the Englishman ambitious of shooting a buffalo in the streets of New York.

The author of 'A New England Idyl' has not justly apprehended the meaning of the word "idyl." There is nothing idyllic in the few chapters descriptive of hard poverty linked by an ordinary love episode. In the form, too, there is none of that grace and harmony which may give prose composition a right to such a title. The style is, like the people, rough, honest, and practical. The author generally knows what she writes, but her observation is hardly deep enough, or her imagination sufficiently vivifying, to make her writing attractive. The limitations of her knowledge are clearly defined by her picture of the "city gentleman" who offers himself to the country maiden in terms more insulting, if less direct, than the well-known "city gentleman" who said:

"What is your fortune, my pretty maid?"

This episode, representing a favorite dream of unsophisticated women-novelists, would stand the test of print better if the novelists would only study the forms of speech common to "city gentlemen." But perhaps the beginning of study would be the end of the dream.

In 'Miss Churchill' we are carried from the pine woods of South Carolina to the Pyramids of Egypt, taking in by the way a long visit in Florence and a London season. In the delineation of Miss Churchill the author touches several fine points in a complex character, but the whole picture is of an improbable person, more disagreeable than the author perceives. Miss Churchill's almost inhuman disregard for her own people, her capriciousness and instability, augured ill for the happiness of any man who might place his in her keeping. For this reason, the end of Lysle, who is rather finely conceived, is divested of sadness. In spite of numerous lapses into the stereotyped methods of the romancer, there is in 'Miss Churchill' more of actuality, a nearer approach to portraiture of human beings, than we are apt to look for in the work of Christian Reid.

The Egypt of Ebers's 'Bride of the Nile' is a reconstructed Egypt of the fifth century of our era. It is full of adventure, of good theatrical situations, and of local descriptions minutely detailed, but it is as hard a novel to read as ever was written. It could be scarcely more dreary to wade through the tomes elucidating the theological controversies of Melchites and Jacobites, whose contentions make the drama of the novel. Whatever the reason may be, interest in the strife between paganism and Christianity is to-day much more vivid than that in the early schisms of the Christian church. We suspect the reason to be that the former represents to us what we understand as a "live issue," while the latter seems to us mere straw-splitting. So, in spite of labor and learning, Mr. Ebers has not been able to compel us to identify ourselves with his characters, or to feel that the ideas for which they suffered ennobled the sufferers—this, too, with allowance made for diminution of vividness through translation, which, though often very significant, is here reduced to a minimum.

Final Memorials of Henry Wadsworth Longfellow. Edited by Samuel Longfellow. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 1887.

THIS supplementary volume to the Life of Longfellow by the same editor is principally devoted to further illustration of the last fifteen years of the poet's career, when he was enjoying the fruits of his fame in the formal respect of whatever persons of distinction visited our shores, and in the common appreciation of his countrymen, whose expressions of esteem were sometimes more awkward and tedious, but not of less worth. It was felt that this period of Longfellow's life had been somewhat slighted in the previous volumes, and it is in answer to that criticism, and in response to the desire for some fuller memorial of these days, that the present work has been prepared. It consists of extracts from the later journals and correspondence, with a few episodes and some new letters of the earlier time to serve as an introduction. The plan is the same as before; the good taste, the care, the scrupulous amiability, also, are the same, and the materials have the same character. It is true, as the editor asserts in his preface, that the former work "is complete in itself"; no one will find in this addition to it anything except greater fulness of knowledge upon topics already adequately known. But every refined reader will take fresh pleasure in observing anew the daily progress of a charming life, and will better judge its riches, both for Longfellow's intimate circle and those who merely touched him for a moment as they passed, by this last book. What is here published is equally good with what was given before; it is all of a piece.

In one respect the present volume offers a more favorable view even than did the Life. Here the poet is seen almost entirely in his mature manhood, or perhaps one may fairly say in his old age, since his principal original works were all completed before the period of the last fifteen years set in. The scene practically does not change, the habits of life are fixed, the character of the whole has complete harmony. This limitation of the view gives a unity of impression rarely to be derived from the entire story of an active life, and the time, fortunately, is that when Longfellow was most attractive. He was most dear to his country as an old man, and that is the character in which he is presented. His qualities, too, as a man were those which age most improves—his universal kindness, his dignity of breeding, his reposeful nature, could have full effect only with ripe years; and one so given to

permanent friendships as he was, could not fail to grow happier in their exercise, and more noble through them in proportion as they lasted out time and tide. The story of Longfellow's care for his friend Greene is, in these new illustrations of it, one of the delightful episodes of literary biography.

In the way of literature, Longfellow was employed in these years upon the drama, and the simplicity of his remarks upon it are instructive, though they provoke a smile. He was not efficient as a dramatist, and perhaps no competent critic would now claim for him dramatic genius. He illustrates how far drama has drifted from literature. Evidently he had not thought much upon the general subject, and was but little skilled in knowledge of its conditions or in criticism of its aims, methods, or effects. One finds him saying, after reading Victor Hugo: "Perhaps exaggeration is necessary for the stage; I am inclined to think it is. A play, like a bust or statue destined for a large room, must be a little larger than life." He speaks of Fechter's *Hamlet* thus: "It is pleasant to see anything so like nature on the stage; not the everlasting mouthing and ranting." He contemplated having the "New England Tragedies" acted, and wrote to Fields: "As to anybody's 'adapting' these Tragedies for the stage, I do not like the idea of it at all. Prevent this, if possible. I should, however, like to have the opinion of some good actor—not a sensational actor—on the point. I should like to have Booth look at them." He actually consulted Bandmann with regard to the matter, and sets down the answer: "Bandmann writes me a nice letter about the Tragedies, but says they are not adapted for the stage." That Longfellow should have dreamed of having them acted, shows how far out of his element he was in composing them. The drama was to him a book, not an art.

Elsewhere he makes some admirable remarks that spring out of his practice of the art, always wise and sometimes profound, as is this which we find among his *pensées* at the end: "It is a great mystery to many people that an author should reveal to the public secrets that he shrinks from telling to his most intimate friends." The profound thing in this, if any one should not at once understand our application of the word, is that he does not stop to explain the "great mystery": to him it is simple enough. But one does not often meet with the humor shown in another sentence, in a letter to Greene: "You cannot improve a sonnet by making it more than fourteen lines long." It is strange that, with such playfulness as he exhibits here and there, and seems to have indulged in more easily in conversation, so little expression of it is to be found in his works. For this quality one must go to these volumes, though there are scenes in 'The Golden Legend' in which it has colored the language and occasionally touched a character. The absence of the classical influences in his career is as noticeable as before. He finds in the Greek anthology only "dead garlands." Of self-criticism there is as little here as in the previous volumes. He remarks how much learning Sumner brought back from Italy, where he himself had gained only impressions; and the joy of the sentimentalist in remaining unconvinced is happily expressed when he says, "I let the waves of argument roll on; but all the lilies rise again, and are beautiful as before." The poet writing in prose is often to be observed in similar figures and sentiments, and once or twice there is a brief letter—the one of consolation "To ——," for example—which is "an entire and perfect chrysolite."

There are others besides Longfellow in these pages. As we have remarked before, his life is a memorial of a distinguished circle as well as of a man. This impression is the stronger because the view of his domestic life has been practically suppressed, and he has been shown to us only in his relations with his books and his friends. Fortune favored him in both. Sumner, as before, gains by all that is told of him or by him. One is tempted to think that only Longfellow knew him as a man. The letters from other sources are also excellent, and contain a few plums, such as Sam Ward's quotation from Jean Paul in illustration of the German dealings with France in 1870: "Eternity sat upon chaos, and gnawed it and spat it out again." The letters of "Tom Appleton" afford, as ever, much that is delectable. The description of Mrs. Browning, in 1856, as "a little concentrated nightingale living in a bower of curls," has the old touch; but best of all is his quoting "an expression of Mr. T. Lyman to me years ago: 'The bother of the Yankee,' said he, 'is that he rubs badly at the junction of soul and body'—as true a thing as ever was said, and he not much of a sayer of such things."

Somewhat more than the last third of the book is filled with reminiscences, reprinted from other sources, and not of remarkable excellence, together with table-talk and few fragments of poetry, among which the lines on Egypt rank high in color and power, though without finish; and the volume concludes with various papers on the Study, the Westminster Memorial, Genealogy, Bibliography, etc., etc. Two new portraits, both excellent, embellish the work, and several other sketches of interest are interfused in the pages.

History of Woman Suffrage. Edited by Elizabeth Cady Stanton, Susan B. Anthony, and Matilda Joslyn Gage. In 3 vols. Vol. iii. 1876-1885. Rochester, N. Y.: Charles Mann. 1887. 8vo, pp. 1,013.

THE literary quality of this history has not improved, or, indeed, changed, in its progress to completion. The third volume, like the first, is the unedited work of many hands, a disorderly repository of facts, to which a rough geographical subdivision and a meagre index furnish a precarious clue. Nominally the chronicle of a recent decade, its chapters on the several States go back of this period *ad libitum*. Mrs. Robinson's Massachusetts opens with the civil war; the case of Prudence Crandall (1833) introduces Connecticut; New Hampshire leads off with Nathaniel P. Rogers (1846); the Pennsylvania retrospect begins at 1768, etc. In fact, these chapters would be mere repetitions of what has appeared in the preceding volumes except that they take a general range, and, not confining themselves to woman suffrage, depict the progress of the sex in all directions—under the law, in schools and colleges, in the learned professions, in business, in invention, etc., etc. They are remarkable for a pretty uniform deficiency in constructive skill, in order, in coherency. In strong contrast to all the American contributions is the chapter on Great Britain, by Caroline Ashurst Biggs, evidently the product of a disciplined mind. There is also a chapter on Continental Europe and another on Canada, where for more than thirty years, as we learn, women have had the suffrage and eligibility to office, in school matters, but have shown themselves rather indifferent to it.

During the period under review the thirtieth anniversary of the first Woman's Rights Convention has been celebrated (1878), and there have been numerous conventions at Washington, during the session of Congress, with the result of securing the appointment of select committees in House (1882) and Senate (1881), for the reception of all memorials relating to woman suffrage. In the Senate Mr. Hoar in 1879 presented a minority report favoring a constitutional amendment to that end. The year before, at a hearing before the Senate Committee on Privileges and Elections in behalf of such an amendment (offered by Senator Sargent of California), Mrs. Stanton made an argument, here given at length. In a foot-note she speaks of the "studied inattention and contempt of the Chairman, Senator Wadleigh of New Hampshire," who

"took special pains to show that he did not intend to listen. He alternately looked over some manuscripts and newspapers before him, then jumped up to open or close a door or window. He stretched, yawned, gazed at the ceiling, cut his nails, sharpened his pencil, changing his occupation and position every two minutes, effectually preventing the establishment of the faintest magnetic current between the speakers and the committee. It was with difficulty," adds Mrs. Stanton, "I restrained the impulse more than once to hurl my manuscript at his head."

There was the usual coquetting with the national party conventions in 1880, with small comfort in the case of the Republican and Democratic, whereas the Prohibition platform yielded this for its eleventh plank:

"We also demand that women, having privileges as citizens in other respects, shall be clothed with the ballot for their own protection, and as a rightful means for a proper settlement of the liquor question."

The earliest presage we get in this volume of the now powerful alliance between prohibition and woman suffrage, which have no necessary logical connection, is in the speech of Mrs. Z. G. Wallace of Indiana, in January, 1880, before the Senate Judiciary Committee—still on the question of an amendment to the Federal Constitution. "I wish," said this lady, "to make just one remark in reference to what Senator Thurman said as to the popular vote being against woman suffrage. The popular vote is against it, but not the popular voice. Owing to the temperance agitation in the last six years, the growth of the suffrage sentiment among the wives and mothers of this nation has largely increased."

It was in Nebraska that the first triumph was confidently expected, for a constitutional amendment had been procured to be submitted to the people in the fall of 1882. The vote was adverse, however. In Kansas a similar amendment had been lost in 1867, after a most exciting campaign. Meantime, a flourishing Women's Christian Temperance Union, in open accord with the suffragists, had sprung up, and the Republican State Convention of 1882 fell into line; but its recommendation was disregarded by the party in the State Senate the year following, when a bill to submit the question to the people was introduced only to be summarily rejected. In 1883, too, the Republican Convention—perhaps throwing off its impedimenta in view of the approaching Presidential contest—ignored woman's suffrage; and the Kansas chapter closes with vague if cheerful prophecy of the "good time coming" which has since arrived in that State—municipal suffrage having been allowed twenty years after the fuller liberty had been denied. That complete suffrage will shortly be achieved in Kansas, there can be little doubt.

All this is very instructive reading. Particularly interesting are the chapters on the Southern States. Slavery had so effectually barred the door of that section to all "isms" that one is surprised to learn that women have had school suffrage in Kentucky for thirty years; but they have very sparingly availed themselves of it. The legislation of Missouri towards women has been exceptionally liberal and equitable. In Louisiana the Constitution of 1879 provided that "women twenty-one years of age and upwards shall be eligible to any office of control or management under the school laws of the State." As regards the general attitude of Southerners

towards suffrage, we have this testimony from Mrs. Mary Bayard Clarke of Newbern, N. C.:

"The Southern man does not wish his 'women folks' to be self-supporting, not because he is jealous of their rivalling him, but because he feels it is his duty to be the bread-winner. . . . There are fewer large centres in the South than in the North, and much less attrition of mind against mind; the people are homogeneous and slower to change, and public opinion is much less fluctuating. But once let the tide of woman suffrage fairly turn, and I believe it will be irresistible and advance far more steadily and rapidly in the South than in the North. Let the Southern women be won over, and the cause will have nothing to fear from the opposition of the men. But . . . until the Southern women can be made to feel the pecuniary advantages to them of suffrage, they will not lift a finger or speak a word to obtain it."

"As a general thing," says another Southern writer, "the young women of Kentucky are better educated than the men, the latter being early put to business, while most parents desire above all things to secure to their daughters a liberal education." And this statement is confirmed for the South at large by Mrs. Clarke, whom we have just cited. The suffrage alliance with the Women's Christian Temperance Union is not so assured in the South as at the North. The branch at Birmingham, Ala., felt obliged to repel suffrage advances in 1885, adding, however, "whenever suffrage is granted to the women of the United States, those of Alabama will be found on the right side." The prodigious advance in the temperance movement at the South in the meanwhile must be regarded as paving the way for the suffrage agitation.

In the Territories, Wyoming still maintains equal suffrage, and alone of all our communities admits women to the jury-box—an unquestionable gain to civilization. Suffrage in Washington Territory has been suppressed on a technicality by a judicial decision. This is the only setback recorded in this volume.

Miss Anthony hopes to publish an annual pamphlet report of progress, in continuation of the 'History.'

Impressions on Painting. By Alfred Stevens, translated by Charlotte Adams. Geo. J. Coombes. 1886.

THERE is no doubt that the painter of most limited range and powers can say many valuable things of subjects coming within that range, and may make observations which are even of technical value to the less advanced student; but it does not follow that they needs must be written in a book. The Impressions of Mr. Alfred Stevens, for example, are very poor stuff. Stevens is a painter of the most vicious, shallow, meretricious school of modern art—a painter of millinery and stuffs and fashion-plates for fashionable women; a painter for the *nouveaux riches*, and a master for those to whom *chic* is the highest executive power. If his opinions on art were no better than his art, there would be nothing to be said about them; and as it is, what is best said is a protest against filling the book market with such rubbish as they are. The Introduction, by Mr. Stevens, is a dexterous bid for popularity in America, and has the facile and frivolous tone of one of his pictures; and the notice of him by the American editor is an attempt to proclaim him a great artist, which only shows that the editor knows very little of true art, and is absolutely unqualified to edit art books. What is true is no recommendation of the painter: "He is, and has always been, in feeling, a modern of the moderns. He has always had this fondness for his own time, this 'love of modernity,' as he himself expresses it." This, instead of being a compliment, is a recognition of the superficiality of the painter, for true art is neither modern nor ancient, but universal. Millet is no more modern than Michael Angelo, and Alma-Tadema is no more antique than David. The only "modernity" which art is capable of is the materialistic motive, the superficial form, which *per se* is not art, and only becomes such when treated in the spirit of which Greek art is the greatest expression in one direction, Titian in another, and Raphael in a third. The dictum of the editor, "The 'Impressions on Painting' not only form a complete exposition of the artistic creed of Alfred Stevens, but they represent the most modern and advanced side of French art, *free from its diseases and exaggerations*," only proves, if the first be true, that Alfred Stevens has a very poor creed, and, if the second be sincerely said, that the opinion we have already expressed of the editor's capacity for such work is not inadequate to the occasion. The dedication of Mr. Stevens to Corot as "the most modern of nineteenth-century painters," proves that he himself has no conception of that "modernity" with which he states himself to be in love, for Corot is no more modern than Claude.

In fact, the commonplace character of the apothegms, epigrams, maxims, or whatever Stevens intended them to be regarded, is proclamation of his object in putting forth a book as simple *réclame*. Here are a few samples: "Once the painter has a great artist's soul, the tortoise becomes as interesting as the horse, much more difficult to execute, the soul of the painter giving its imprint to everything." "The painter who, in the matter of art, believes himself a god, displays his weakness." "Géricault was strongly influenced by his time, and only related what he saw. He therefore spoke before Courbet." "The faculties are not artistic qualities." "Flies do not restrain themselves with regard to bad painting; they respect good. Strange!" "The physique has its predestinations. A badly constructed being has never arrived at mastery in the plastic arts." Where the oracular quality is lacking, the commonplace generally comes in, and perhaps nothing more trite and trivial was ever printed as art instruction than such sentences as, "Of what use is it for a young artist to wish to exhibit too soon and in spite of everything?" "Since the war of 1870 more soldiers have been painted than ever" (*sic*). "Everything here below is the product of study. One does not play the piano except by exerting one's self to play scales, just as one does not become an accomplished fencer until one has used the plastron for a long time. It would be truly strange if, by exception, the art of painting did not require study." "Studies that are too small produce petty work." "One should not give in a picture an accessory useless to the composition of the subject that one is treating." "How many pictures do well in an exhibition and ill in a drawing-room, and *vice versa*." Then we are treated to some declarations of contestable truth, taken in any sense, as: "Grace does not exist without strength." "Oil painting is far above water-color and pastels; time destroys these last and ennobles the first"—which is so untrue that we can see no oil work older than the Van Eycks, while we have well-preserved water-color of the eighth and ninth centuries. "The historical subject was invented the day that people were no longer interested in painting itself," is not only untrue, but absurd, for historical painting has always existed since painting was discovered. In fact, taking the 'Impressions' as a whole, one sees that their author either knew very little of the literature of art, or trusted that his public knew nothing of it, to have the courage to put forward such a mass of triviality as magisterial dicta. Perhaps in some cases the poor translation may have heightened the obscurity, but what is surprising is that anybody should think the book worth translating.

The Huguenots and Henry of Navarre. By Henry M. Baird, Professor in the University of the City of New York. With maps. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1886. 2 vols., 8vo.

PROF. BAIRD has established for himself a high and secure position among American historians. His place is not the highest. He cannot rank with Prescott in breadth and calmness of judgment; with Motley in graphic power; with Parkman in masculine grasp and vigor of narration; with Bancroft in comprehension of international relations. But if his narrative never reaches the greatest excellence, so on the other hand it never falls below a very high standard. His style is very clear and correct; his preparation is conscientious and thorough; he possesses great skill in the selection and arrangement of his material, and he has given us a thoroughly interesting and valuable work.

It is perhaps hardly fair to criticise the limitations which an author deliberately and of set purpose fixes for his work; and yet it is precisely in these limitations that the defects of 'The Huguenots' as a work of historical literature largely consist. Mr. Baird has undertaken to write a history of the Huguenots as a religious body. This history is so closely connected with the general history of France at the time that it is of necessity largely and indeed principally political and military. But these relations are really secondary in his mind; he never goes far away from what is absolutely essential to his main subject, and when he reaches the Abjuration, he says plainly that his interest in Henry of Navarre is, for the purposes of this book, at an end, and the rest of his reign shall receive only cursory treatment. We find no fault with this. It is a perfectly admissible point of view and a perfectly legitimate treatment. Only, the subject is capable of a broader and more profound treatment, which would have resulted in a work ranking higher as a literary production. The man who writes well the history of a movement or a sect does a good and useful work. But the movement or the sect is, after all, only a fragment of the life of a people or the intellectual record of a period. The Huguenots were not merely a religious body, they were also a political party—they had as their aim not merely to secure religious liberty, but to maintain feudal independence. The Huguenots of France were not an isolated body, they were the champions of a great intellectual and moral movement which had swept over all the north of Europe, and was now contending for the possession of the west. This detached division of the Protestant army had a career well deserving to be chronicled on its own account, but the importance and interest of which are not fully appreciated until they are brought into relation with the events which were occurring in other parts of Europe.

We do not mean to say that Mr. Baird wholly neglects the two points of view to which we have here directed attention, but that they do not receive as much consideration as they deserve. He would say, no doubt, that the political side of the Huguenot movement did not concern him, did not interest him, and that it could be no part of his plan to tell the story of the contemporaneous religious contests in the Netherlands, Scotland, and wherever else. This is a sufficient justification for his mode of treatment; but it gives his work a narrower scope, and thus lessens the circle of his appreciative readers. In regard to the inadequacy of his treatment of contemporary events in other countries, we have only to point to Motley's history of the struggle in the

Netherlands at this very time, as an illustration of what Mr. Baird might have accomplished. Mr. Motley's task, like his, was to describe one portion of this great contest of the age, in a field more central but somewhat narrower than that occupied by the volumes before us. Mr. Motley does not neglect his own theme, nor does he attempt to enter into the details of the contemporaneous contests; but the reader becomes familiar with them all—with the Huguenot wars, the foreign policy of Elizabeth, and the dreary intrigues and wranglings of the Protestant courts of Germany and the North. The reader of Mr. Baird's volumes knows that there was a war in the Netherlands, that there was a Protestant queen on the English throne, that there were Calvinistic princes in Germany; and that is about all.

With regard to the other aspect of the Huguenot contest—its political character, as an attempt of the great princes of the south of France to resist the centralizing tendency of the royal policy—it is more difficult to speak. Certainly this is not an indifferent consideration, but a very vital aspect of the Huguenot movement, and the movement cannot be understood without its being taken into account. At the same time it must be confessed that Mr. Baird, whose interest in the subject is primarily a religious one, may justly be indifferent to what is upon its face a political and a purely selfish aim, or may even be strongly repelled by it. This is not the place to consider the rights and wrongs of the question. It is customary to consider this feudal reaction as wholly wrong, and Richelieu, who finally crushed it, as one of the great statesmen of the world, the preserver of the integrity of his country. But he preserved its integrity at the expense of its truest life, by a centralization which crushed out all elements of local self-government. It is true that these elements were very imperfect and unpromising—consisting in the privileges of the nobles rather than the autonomy of the people. But, after all, it was all the elements there were; and when we lament the excessive centralization which has been the bane of France in these last centuries, we may perhaps wonder whether the Huguenots might not have accomplished something for their country in this respect also, as well as in the field of religious liberty and moral life.

It is not impossible that Henry of Navarre had something of the feeling that the royal authority depended closely upon the Catholic faith, in making his abjuration. Protestantism would do very well for a great nobleman; but it was disintegrative, and when he became king he must identify himself with the centralizing policy of his predecessors. However this may be, the causes and the bearing of this important act form a leading subject of consideration in these volumes—in both of them, for the author thinks he sees it already foreshadowed in Henry's words and acts even before he became king. This treatment of the subject is carefully studied, and on the whole recommends itself to the reader. Prof. Baird quotes with approval Sir James Stephen's language, that this "impious, because pretended conversion, was among the *dies nefasti* of his country." With this judgment we fully agree; and yet it is hard to visit the act, *as an isolated act*, with very severe censure. It was wholly in keeping with the character of the man and of the times. Mr. Baird is not especially good in the delineation of character, but the character of Henry of Navarre, as depicted on page 491 of vol. ii., is an admirable piece of portraiture. Yet who could believe, after reading this carefully weighed, impartial, and not unfriendly sketch, that the man there described—the man who could say, or who could be reported to have said, that "Paris was well worth a mass"—would hesitate to sacrifice his convictions for what appeared to be so clear an advantage? His convictions sat very easy upon his conscience; the advantage in question was not a selfish advantage alone, but the restoration of peace to his country and toleration to his co-religionists. It required a much higher degree of moral earnestness than he possessed to understand that peace bought at that price was no real peace, or rather that war, even civil war, was not the greatest of misfortunes for a nation, but rather the loss of moral earnestness.

The abjuration of Henry IV. was not so much his individual act as the act of his nation. It was one of the series of events by which France announced its decision that material enjoyment was more to be desired than sincerity of purpose and religious faith. It was followed by a century of toleration in religion, but a century—two centuries—in which public spirit seemed utterly dead; in which one hardly meets with a public character who seems to care for anything but personal enjoyment and personal ambition. We do not attribute the moral decay of France in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries to Henry the Fourth's abjuration of his religion: but rather hold that that abjuration was made necessary by the moral degeneracy of the nation, which chose an insincere conformity rather than liberty of conscience. It is idle to ask what might have been the result had Henry refused to tamper with his convictions. He was not the man to do this; but one cannot help feeling that a man like Coligny, or one such as Henry of Condé appears to have been, if in the place of Henry of Navarre, would have brought the religious wars to a very different conclusion—to a true peace and a toleration that was permanent. For we are too much in the habit of saying that toleration was a principle unknown and impossible in that age. The toleration of the nineteenth century was, it is true, a principle which was beyond the conceptions of the sixteenth; but a *religious peace*, such as the Treaty of Augsburg established measurably in Germany, such as the Edict of Nantes established in France—such a toleration as this would not have been impossible at an earlier date but for the pitiful littleness of the rulers of France, the vindictiveness and ambition of the Guises, and the evil counsels of Philip II.

The book is accompanied with an excellent map of France in two parts—the southern half in volume i, the northern half in volume ii.

Perley's Reminiscences of Sixty Years in the National Metropolis. By Ben: Perley Poore. Philadelphia: Hubbard Bros. 2 vols.

ALL the faults of the typical subscription book are to be found in these volumes. Of literary merit in the 'Reminiscences' there is none: they are formless, rambling, heterogeneous in an extraordinary degree. A chronological progress from Administration to Administration is observed, but there is no other limitation upon the veteran correspondent's "selection from the masses of material accumulated in diaries, autograph letters, and scrap-books containing published literary matter." There is no attempt to group the memorabilia relating to any of the public characters from 1823 to 1885; there is no order or method in the nominal summaries which occasionally occur. Here, for example, is the very mixed "reminiscence" of the elder Booth (i, 125):

"He was a short, dumpy man, with features resembling those of the Roman Emperors, before his nose was broken in a quarrel, and his deportment on the stage was imperially grand. He had a farm in Maryland, and at one time he undertook to supply a Washington hotel with eggs, milk, and chickens, but he soon gave it up. His instant and tremendous concentration of passion in his delineations overwhelmed his audience," etc.

The account of this actor's personal appearance leads us to remark that similar descriptions of one and another of the throng passed in review by Mr. Poore are probably the most authentic part of his narrative. On a par with his reporting the looks of men he has seen, and seen familiarly, is his recalling the primitive modes of transportation, the dress, the social manners and customs, the political demonstrations of the second quarter of the century. All this makes entertaining reading, in which the reader can put his trust. It is otherwise with what lies below the surface. Gossip like the following about Van Buren—that on his leaving the Senate and selling his household furniture, "it was noticed that the carpet before a large looking-glass in his study was worn threadbare. It was there that he had rehearsed his speeches"—may be true; but has it any better authority than the maudlin after-dinner speech of Mr. Webster, of which we are told (i, 288) "an amusing account has been given"? So, in matters of history, when our famous collector of bric-à-brac tells us that he has the MS. of Sumner's speech on Alaska, we at once join him in discrediting the story that the speech was prepared for the Massachusetts Senator at the State Department. Or, again, when he relates what took place at Sumner's house between himself and Gen. Grant, Mr. Poore and Col. Forney both being present, we have no ground for disbelieving the incidents recorded. But in default of such vouchers, it is safe to be sceptical of what Mr. Poore has to tell, for obvious blunders are not few, and we may suspect more. He makes (i, 210) the English abolitionists the immediate progenitors of the American, and after 1836; and (i, 323) the "Democratic managers" the organizers of the Liberty party, and after 1843. He says (i, 285) that the Ashburton Treaty "established the right of property in slaves on an American vessel driven by stress of weather into a British port."

We have delayed too long over a strange medley of experience, hearsay, truth, and error, thrown together by the friend of Sumner and of Caleb Cushing, the admirer of Franklin Pierce and of Boss Shepherd. To complain of the misuse of his opportunities would be to imply the possession of qualities which he certainly lacks. Personal and party attachments have always tinged his observation of men and events, and he has evidently never indulged in fixed and independent principles. We will only add that the illustrations are very numerous, some from rare prints, some good, some atrociously bad—especially the portraits. There is an index, but it is very inadequate.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Browne—Behnke, Voice, Song, and Speech: a Practical Guide for Singers and Speakers. 7th ed. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.

Browning, R. Christmas Eve and Easter Day; Men and Women; in a Balcony; Dramatis Personæ; Balaustion's Adventure; Prince Hohenstiel-Schwangau; Fifine at the Fair. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 75.

Browning, R. The Ring and the Book. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Flaubert, Gustave. Correspondance, 1re série (1830-1850). Paris: Charpentier; Boston: Schoenhof.

Fuller, A. S. The Propagation of Plants; their Development and Growth, their Botanical Affinities, &c. O. Judd Co.

Ginisty, Paul. L'année littéraire 2me année, 1886. Paris: Charpentier; Boston: Schoenhof.

Green, Anna Katharine. 7 to 12: A Detective Story. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 25 cents.

Health in Our Homes. Boston: Cupples & Co. 75 cents.

Johnston, Prof. A. Connecticut: A Study of a Commonwealth Democracy. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Knox, T. W. How to Travel: Hints, Advice, and Suggestions. Revised ed. G P Putnam's Sons. $1.

Le Plongeon, Alice D. Here and There in Yucatan: Miscellanies. J. W. Bouton. $1.25.

Longfellow, S. Final Memorials of H. W. Longfellow. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

Loubat, J. F. A Yachtsman's Scrap-Book, or, the Ups and Downs of Yacht Racing. Brentano Brothers.

Lowe, W. H. A Hebrew Grammar. Thomas Whittaker. 75 cents.

Macgibbon—Ross. The Castellated and Domestic Architecture of Scotland, from the 12th to the 18th Century. Vol. II. Edinburgh: David Douglas.

Mahaffy, Prof. J. P. The Story of Alexander's Empire. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Miller, Rev. J. Commentary on Paul's Epistle to Romans. With an Excursus on the famous Passage in James (II. 14-26). Princeton: Evangelical Reform Publication Co. $1.60.
Miller, Rev. J. Theology. Princeton: Evangelical Reform Co. $1.
Minor, T. C. Athothis: A Satire on Modern Medicine. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.
Miss Bayle's Romance: A Story of To-day. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Munroe, K. The Flamingo Feather. Harper & Brothers.
Patmore, C. The Angel in the House. Cassell & Co.
Payn, J. Glow-Worm Tales. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Phillips, M. The Lavvil's Hat: A Sketch in Oil. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.
Pond, J. P. A Summer in England with Henry Ward Beecher. Fords, Howard & Hulbert.
Pontmartin, A. de. Souvenirs d'un vieux critique. 8me série. Paris: Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof.
Robertson, E. American Home Rule; A Sketch of the Political System in the United States. Edinburgh: Adam & Charles Black.
Rorer, Mrs. S. T. Canning and Preserving. Philadelphia: Arnold & Co. 25 cents.
Rossetti, D. G. Dante and his Circle: With the Italian poets preceding him. A Collection of Lyrics. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $2.
Roux, l'abbé Joseph. Nouvelles Pensées. Paris: Lemerre; Boston: Schoenhof.
Simon, Jules. Nos Hommes d'Etat. Paris: Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof.
Stansfeld-Hicks, C. Yachts, Boats, and Canoes. *Forest and Stream* Publishing Co.
Taylor, B. F. Theophilus Trent; Old Times in the Oak Openings. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. $1.
The Century. Illustrated Monthly Magazine. November, 1886, to April, 1887. The Century Co. $3.
The Commemoration by King's Chapel, Boston, of the Completion of 200 Years since its Foundation, on Dec. 15, 1886. Also Three Historical Discourses. Illustrated. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
The People's Year Book and Traveller's Companion. 1887. Brentano Brothers.
The Vacation Journal: A Diary of Outings from May until November. With Hints and Information for Tourists. A. D. F. Randolph. $1.25.
Unfair Distribution of Earnings. Santa Fé: W. V. Marshall. 75 cents.
Vallée, L. Bibliographie des Bibliographies. In 2 Parts, with Supplement. Paris: Em. Terquem.
Walworth, Mrs. J. H. Without Blemish. To-Day's Problem. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Ward, May Alden. Dante: A Sketch of his Life and Works. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $1.25.
Warfield, Prof. B. B. An Introduction to the Textual Criticism of the New Testament. Thomas Whittaker. 75 cents.
Washburn, C. A. From Poverty to Competence: Graduated Taxation. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Wicliff: An Historical Drama. Oxford: James Thornton.
Wilde, Lady. Ancient Legends, Mystic Charms, and Superstitions of Ireland. 2 vols. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $5.
Wilson, H. R. The Russian Refugee: A Tale of the Blue Ridge. Thomas R. Knox & Co.
Winchester, Prof. C. T. Selected Essays of Joseph Addison. Boston: Chautauqua Press.
Woolf, P. Who is Guilty? Cassell & Co. 25 cents.
Worthington, A. M. A First Course of Physical Laboratory Practice. Illustrated. Boston: John Allyn. $1.20.
Yachts and Yachting. Illustrated. Cassell & Co. $1.50.
Younghusband, F. The Story of Our Lord. Longmans, Green & Co.

Fine Arts.

SOCIETY OF AMERICAN ARTISTS.—II.

THERE is a fine collection of landscapes in the present exhibition of the Society. A flat meadow, a rivulet winding through it with rushes growing on its banks, a group of trees, and a broad expanse of sky, are the simple elements out of which Mr. J. Francis Murphy has made his excellent picture, "Brook and Fields," No. 101. The color scheme is as simple as the composition; the greens of the meadow and the trees are contrasted with the warm, grayish white of the great masses of noonday clouds which cover the sky. This picture is both truthful in effect and decoratively beautiful. The composition is agreeable, and it is freely and broadly painted.

"Cape Ann Sands," No. 24, by Emil Carlsen, is purely a study of nature. It evinces the most careful observation and a plain, straightforward way of painting, and, like most of Mr. Carlsen's work, it is especially strong in color. The painting of middle distance, where the high ground lies, with ledges of rock cropping out in the greensward, and of the foreground of sandy beach, is very commendable. The sky, though lacking somewhat in atmospheric quality, is good in tone and keeps its place well, its dull grayish blue playing an important part in the effective color scheme of the picture. Especially deserving of praise is the feeling for form which is shown throughout, for this important element in landscape painting is too often neglected nowadays.

An effect of warm sunlight on a strip of headland is shown in "Late Afternoon, Massachusetts Coast," No. 135, by R. W. Van Boskerck—a truthfully painted piece of nature, very effective in the simple lines of the composition and the complete way in which the subject is treated. The reality of the sunlight is remarkable. It is real sunlight, obtained without exaggeration. This picture is, moreover, strikingly pleasing in color.

A quieter effect of sunlight, in which the hazy atmosphere of autumn subdues and softens the hotter glow of midsummer days, is shown in "September Sunshine," No. 36, by Kenyon Cox. A flat meadow in the foreground, stretching away to rising ground in the middle distance, with a strip of sea and some white sails beyond, is the motive, and simplicity of method characterizes the painting of it. Like Mr. Carlsen's picture, it is a study of nature without any apparent attempt at composition other than that naturally existing. It is a good study, and so truthfully observed and so tenderly painted as to make a charming picture.

"The Harvest," No. 38, by Bruce Crane, is frank and vigorous, as Mr. Crane's best work generally is. In this scene in the grain field, with its long rows of shocks and freshly cut stubble, its clumps of green trees clustering about the white farm-house in the distance, and the flock of blackbirds rising from the ground, we have a familiar picture of country life. It is freshly painted withal, and full of light. "An Early Snow," No. 105, by Walter L. Palmer; "Nightfall," No. 126, by D. W. Tryon, and "Winter," No. 132, by J. H. Twachtman, are three snow scenes—Mr. Palmer's picture being an effect of sunshine, in which there is a delightful bit of painting in the pinkish light on the distant hillsides in the background; Mr. Tryon's, of twilight, remarkable for beauty of color and unity of effect; and Mr. Twachtman's, that of a cloudy winter's day, in which the heavy atmosphere seems full of snow, and the muffled look of nature in its heavy white mantle is admirably depicted. "First Snow," No. 41, by Charles H. Davis, a larger canvas than any of these, is a sunset effect and is agreeable in color, but somewhat conventional. It is seriously deficient in drawing and feeling for form. Much better is "A November Morning," No. 42, by the same artist, a small picture with a misty atmosphere, which is refined and truthful. "Afternoon—September," No. 99, and "Moonlight," No. 98, by R. C. Minor, both remarkable for fine qualities of color; "A Virginia Landscape," No. 76, by Arthur Hoeber, a quiet little picture of flat plain and sky, painted with a delicate appreciation of values; "The Vicinity of Stratford, Conn.," No. 148, by A. H. Wyant, a sober, gray-toned landscape with excellent quality of atmosphere; "Canal Boats on the Seine," No. 57, by C. H. Eaton, a pretty bit of French greens and grays; and "Cottage Garden," No. 65, by J. Evans, a study of fruit trees precisely and delicately drawn, are yet other notable landscapes. "The Seine near Paris," No. 14, by George H. Bogert, is a small picture of early moonrise over the river in the outskirts of Paris, which is a most truthful impression and possesses fine qualities of color. A picture of genuine poetic feeling is "Early Moonrise," No. 145, by Carleton Wiggins. Cattle are seen standing listlessly at evening, in a meadow, with a group of trees in the foreground, while the full moon appears in the sky, just above a distant line of purple-tinted hills. "Moonlight," No. 116, by Otto Stark, is a strikingly truthful effect of moonlight in a narrow street of some French village, through which a man leading a horse, and a boy with a lantern, are passing. The light falls directly from above the middle of the picture, as the moon is too high to be seen, casting dark shadows towards the spectator. The impression of a bright moonlight night is rendered with admirable fidelity.

A picture which deservedly attracts much attention is "Five o'Clock," No. 2, by W. S. Allen. There is a sufficient resemblance in it to some of the work of the French impressionists for the hasty critic, at first sight, to class it in that group of modern work, but it will be found on closer acquaintance to be quite different in intention from that of pure impressionism. Mr. Allen has chosen for his subject a spacious room, in which, at the hour of the afternoon tea, a small company of seven or eight people are enjoying a sort of improvised concert. A young man and a young lady, the former in morning attire, and the latter dressed in an evening costume, are seated in the immediate foreground at the left of the picture. Other little groups are placed on the same side further back, seated about a piano and a harp. At the extreme right, in the furthest corner of the room, a little girl in a white frock is standing playing the violin. A painter impelled only by impressionistic motives would have attempted to seize the scene comprehensively and represent it as concisely as possible on his canvas, giving prominence to the things of the greatest importance and eliminating any details which by being insisted on might injure the general effect. In Mr. Allen's picture nothing is omitted; even the bronze figure of Delaplanche's "Music," which stands on a pedestal at the back of the room beside the little girl, who, by a quaint conceit of the artist, is shown unconsciously imitating the movement of the statue, is carefully painted. There is an evident purpose in this picture to give an air of reality, and to obtain it simply by giving to everything in the room its proper importance and preserve harmony in the ensemble at the same time. This is no easy task of itself, and, when combined with another consideration which has plainly been held by the painter as of primary importance, namely, fulness and beauty of color, success in it constitutes a real artistic achievement. This success belongs to Mr. Allen's "Five o'Clock," and, except for some eccentric drawing in the figure of the young man in the foreground, there is little to find fault with. The picture is rich and distinguished in color and original in style. Its individuality is noticeable even in this exhibition, in which there is such a large proportion of unconventional work.

"An Aztec Sculptor," No. 19, by George De F. Brush, a picture of an Indian seated on a rug beside a marble slab, which forms part of a wall, on which he is intently cutting with chisel and mallet, is well drawn and painted with much quiet beauty of tone. "In Holland," No. 93, by J. Gari Melchers, a small picture of a Dutch interior with a woman ironing clothes on a table, marked by exact drawing and truth of values; "The Little Cook," No. 88, by H. A. Levy, also a Dutch interior with a single figure, but a canvas of considerable size, simple and artistic in subject and treatment, good in effect and well executed, notably in the painting of the still life; and "A Ride through the Wood," No. 26, by Lyell Carr, a horseman riding along a road at the brink of a ravine, with the sunlight falling upon him through the bare branches of the trees, in which the landscape is typically American, and the effect of a sharp, dry day in early winter is excellently given; are some other works by figure painters whose good qualities commend them to favorable notice. Along with these, also, should be mentioned "A Pompeiian Slave," No. 97, by F. D. Millet; "Alma Mater," No. 75, by G. W. Hitchcock; "Proteus," No. 137, by Henry Walker; "May Roses," No. 47, by Herbert F. Denman; "A Window Seat," No. 46, by Percival De Luce; "Tea Rose," No. 12, by E. H. Blashfield; and "A Song," No. 142, by J. Louis Webb.

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 437

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS 440

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:
- Parties and the Supreme Court 442
- Fisheries Fallacies 443
- The French Crisis 444
- Home Rule and English Journalism 444

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:
- The Marriage of Louis XV 445

CORRESPONDENCE:
- Western Mortgages 446
- The Beverly Incident 447
- Another View of Alfred Stevens 447
- The Cranston Arms 447
- "Is Being Built," etc. 447
- The Senatorial Situation in West Virginia 448
- Something New on Metempsychosis 448

NOTES 449

REVIEWS:
- A French Constitutionalist on the English Constitution 451
- Recent Novels 453
- A Handbook to Dante 454
- Charles Reade 455
- The Evangelical Revival in the Eighteenth Century 455
- Some Chinese Ghosts 456
- New York 456
- The Game of Logic 456

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 457

FINE ARTS:
- The American Art Association 457

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 26, 1887.

The Week.

THE Democratic party is under obligations to the Administration of President Cleveland for removing another of the arguments that have done such effectual service against it during the last twenty years. Thousands of voters have been influenced in different campaigns to continue voting an anti-Democratic ticket because of the fear that, if the Democrats once got into power after their long banishment from the table at which the official loaves and fishes are served, they would prove the accusation that their party was only an "organized appetite," and begin an era of extravagance that would be perilous to the country. There could be no more effectual answer to this than such an order as was issued by the President on Saturday, making a reorganization of internal-revenue districts which wipes out of existence with one stroke of the pen twenty-two entire districts, with their official corps, saving to the taxpayers at least $100,000 a year. An act like this leaves the Opposition no chance to quibble over its motive. It is honest economy at the cost of a great many offices which, a few years ago, would have contributed largely to the managers of political campaigns and to the campaign treasuries. This order is so sweeping in its effect that it deprives six States—Nevada, Rhode Island, Delaware, Mississippi, Maine, Vermont—and one Territory, Utah, of their internal-revenue collectors entirely, merging these offices with those of other States. Moreover, as the despatches show, every one of the officers whose place is thus cut from under him is a Democrat. When the campaign of 1888 comes to be fought before the people, this order, as an illustration of President Cleveland's sincerity as a civil-service reformer, will knock to pieces a thousand Republican arguments directed against his fidelity to his pledges, and founded on cases of individual removals of Republicans from official positions. Yet there are persons who think Cleveland will not be renominated!

Mr. Geo. Wm. Curtis acquired some celebrity at the hands of an interviewer a few weeks ago by means of the paradox put into his mouth that Mr. Cleveland would inevitably be renominated by the Democrats, and that Mr. Blaine would inevitably be renominated by the Republicans, and that neither of them would be elected. In his speech at the Commonwealth Club on Monday Mr. Curtis alluded to this droll saying, as an introduction to a very clear definition of the attitude of the Independents toward the two political parties which divide the country. Their main purpose is to promote the cause of civil-service reform, believing that in this way only can the true expression of the popular will, untrammelled by the pecuniary interests and the corrupting interference of office holders and their immediate adherents, be obtained in the recurring popular elections. An election should be the means of recording the preference and desires of the people as between opposing policies, and not the means of getting a living out of the Government. The Independents would carry this distinct aim into the campaign of 1888. They were well aware that neither the Republican party nor the Democratic party had any such aim at the present time. They were moved by the desire to get as many votes as possible from all the unattached groups—the Independents, the Prohibitionists, the Labor party, and the Irish party. It was proper for the Independents to take every advantage of this desire to promote the cause which they had espoused. If this were called "sitting on the fence," he could say that the position was not an uncomfortable one to those who had no personal ambitions to gratify. But he warned the ingenuous youth who were coming upon the stage of action filled with the desire to promote the public welfare, that they must first cast out personal ambition, and with it the fear of being ostracized by a political party. If there lingers in any man's breast the desire for political preferment, he is not capable of giving his full strength and his best service to the cause of reform.

We observe from an interview published in the *Commercial Advertiser* that Henry George has repudiated all connection with James G. Blaine, and all intention of supporting him for the Presidency, or, we judge, any other office. We cannot help thinking that this is a mistake on Mr. George's part. He would find Mr. Blaine an invaluable assistant in his efforts to abolish Poverty. There is, in fact, no more determined enemy of Poverty on this continent. All his life long he has waged unrelenting war on it, and has, as far as his own poverty is concerned, abolished it whenever it raised its head, with any weapon within his reach. In fact, Poverty knows so well the kind of man he is that it keeps out of his way carefully. We must add, too, that we think Mr. Blaine's help would be very important in bringing about that just distribution of property which, Mr. George says, the Creator originally intended, but was never able to carry out, owing to the opposition of the capitalists. With George, McGlynn, and Blaine and the Anti-Poverty Association at his back, we cannot help thinking the Almighty would at last be able to arrange human society on what George says was His original plan, which, however, until now He has never been able to carry out.

The Anti-Poverty Society seems to us in danger of wasting its strength through want of a definite legislative programme. We would suggest, therefore, that instead of passing the time in denunciation of capitalists, they should work for an amendment to the State Constitution abolishing poverty in the State of New York, simply as an experiment. This amendment would doubtless be approved by the present and next Legislature, and would be ready for submission to the people in 1889, when it would be sure of unanimous adoption. We would suggest the following as a suitable form:

> Art. 17. Neither poverty nor involuntary shortness of money, except as a punishment for crime, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the State of New York after the first day of January, 1890.

Doubtless other States, after witnessing the working of the new system in this one, would be willing to follow the example of New York, and in this way poverty would be gradually banished from the country without causing any serious social or political disturbance, such as might ensue if the whole Union abolished it at once.

Mr. Benjamin Butterworth of Ohio, as good a tariff man as Senator Sherman or Mr. Wharton Barker, delivered an address at Association Hall in this city on Thursday evening in favor of reciprocity with Canada by wholesale, as distinguished from the retail reciprocity of 1854. Mr. Hitt of Illinois, the Republican leader in foreign affairs in the House, has been writing on the same lines as Mr. Butterworth in the columns of the Philadelphia *American*, and both have a strong ally in Prof. Goldwin Smith. We have to express our high approval of Mr. Butterworth's address. He tells us that "protection to the industries of the United States against Canada means no more and no less than taking the money out of the pocket of one citizen and putting it into the pocket of another, the latter belonging to the protected and favored class." This is an ower true statement, and it seems to derive new point and force coming from the protectionist side of the house, even though qualified by the explanation that a protective tariff may be justified when the conditions of production in two countries are unequal. We are not inclined to taunt Mr. Butterworth with the borrowing of an old free-trade maxim. We think that free trade with Canada would be a good thing for both countries, and that it would lead to freer trade with other countries.

An examination of the immigration returns points to a remarkable conclusion contrary to the generally accepted opinion concerning the attractions of this country for agricultural populations. At no time in our history have opportunities for acquiring land abounded as in the last twenty years, during which the pre-emption and homestead laws have been in full force, and of themselves constituted a factor of great moment, while the opening of the West has been conducted with unwonted energy. Yet not for fifty years has the percentage of immigrating farmers been so small as in the ten years 1873–83, as the following comparison will show:

	Percentage of farmers.
1820-30	8.5
1831-40	13
1841-50	14.5
1851-60	14
1861-68	11.9
1873 83	8.3

The decreased immigration of farmers might be accepted without criticism were there not

also a change in the character of immigrating farmers, and a change for the worse. The proportion of farmers coming to the United States from countries where the lowest grades of farming are the rule is becoming larger each year, while that coming from countries which possess agricultural skill and intelligence is becoming less, or remains unchanged. In 1873 14.7 per cent. of the immigrating farmers came from the United Kingdom; in 1886 the percentage was about the same (14.4), though it had fallen to 8.8 per cent. in 1882, a fall due chiefly to a decrease in the movement of farmers from Ireland. Denmark and France furnished nearly the same percentage in 1886 as in 1873. On the other hand, the share of Austria-Hungary rose from 1.2 per cent. in 1873 to 3 per cent. in 1886; of Italy, from less than 1 per cent. in 1873 to 7.3 per cent. in 1886; of Russia, from .5 per cent. in 1873 to 2.5 per cent. in 1886; and of Sweden from 2.3 per cent. in 1873 to 7 per cent. in 1886. These are all very heavy increases, and clearly point to an abnormal development of this class of immigration in the most unwholesome lines. The percentage of farmers coming from Germany fell from 48.6 in 1873 to 27.9 in 1886, and from Norway from 10.5 in the former year to 2.9 in the latter.

There are several interesting points in the testimony of Mr. Jay Gould before the Pacific Railroad Commission. They all centre upon the consolidation of the Union Pacific with the Kansas Pacific, the Denver Pacific, and various other "cats and dogs" that were going cheap about that time. Before the consolidation was effected, Gould controlled the Union Pacific by the ownership of a majority of its stock. He suggested the formation of the "Kansas Pacific pool," by which all the securities of this company except the first-mortgage bonds should be grouped together for the purpose of making a consolidation with the Union Pacific on the basis of the relative values of the two properties, each class of securities in the pool being reckoned at its own value in the order of precedence. Kansas Pacific stock was taken as an "index number" at 12½ cents to the dollar. The bulk of this stock was held by St. Louis people, and they were quite willing to put it in at that figure, since it was rather more than the selling price in the market. After they had put it in, Gould offered them cash for their stock at that figure, which they gladly accepted, since their highest anticipations were to get Union Pacific stock in place of it at the same ratio of 12½. Having got the Kansas Pacific stock, he controlled the pool as completely as he controlled the Union Pacific Company. Accordingly, he withdrew the stock from the pool, and worked things so that Union Pacific stock was exchanged for it at par, resigning his position as a director of the Union Pacific while the transaction was taking place. Of course, such a swindle on the other stockholders of the Union Pacific could not be consummated without the concurrence of the Board of Directors, and it remains to be seen how this was brought about, whether by giving them a share of the spoils, or by alarming them with the prospect of paralleling them by an extension of the Missouri Pacific, or by both. When asked how it happened that he (Gould) was paid for his pool stock in new stock at par instead of other securities according to the original pool programme, he said that "perhaps it was more convenient to the company." This was a fine touch, artistic and sardonic, but not more so than another incident in which Gould pictures "Ames and others" as saddling on him the Central Branch Railway at a high price by inviting him to go over the road, and then holding back the freight trains for a week in order to give the appearance of a large business to his inexperienced eyes when he arrived. Mr. Gould is so much in the habit of judging of the value of a railway by mere surface indications, ignoring earnings and expenses, that "Ames and others" would naturally resort to some simple device of this kind to take him in.

A rather remarkable exhibit has been made in the annual report of the Illinois Central Railroad, showing cost of locomotive service for each year of the past thirty years. The cost per mile run has fallen from 26.52 cents in 1857 to 13.93 cents in 1886. This reduction has been effected wholly by inventions and improvements in machinery. But the figures show that the progress of invention has been even more remarkable than these figures imply, because the wages of engineers and firemen have risen in the same period from 4.51 cents to 5.52 cents per mile run. In 1857 the engineers and firemen received as wages 17 per cent. of the entire cost of locomotive service. In 1886 they received 39 per cent. of the total cost. The table is as follows:

I. C. R. R. CO.

Performance of locomotives. Relation of wages to total cost per mile run:

Years.		Cost of wages of engineers and firemen per mile run.	Total cost per mile run.	Years.		Cost of wages of engineers and firemen per mile run.	Total cost per mile run.
		Cents.	Cents.			Cents.	Cents
1857	Gold.	4.51	26.22	1872	Currency.	5.77	21.76
1858		3.97	19.81	1873		5.84	21.10
1859		3.81	20.78	1874		6.02	19.57
1860		3.96	20.17	1875		6.03	19.57
1861		3.84	18.92	1876		5.79	18.81
1862	Currency.	3.85	17.42	1877	Gold.	5.54	17.21
1863		3.93	22.28	1878		5.46	15.29
1864		5.56	33.52	1879		5.41	14.15
1865		5.65	37.44	1880		5.41	14.95
1866		5.78	32.67	1881		5.54	16.58
1867		6.18	29.62	1882		5 09	15.82
1868		6.11	27.57	1883		5.35	15.57
1869		5.88	25.49	1884		5.28	14.45
1870		5.95	25.15	1885		5.49	15.02
1871		5.72	21.50	1886		5.52	13 93

In 1857 the engineers and firemen received 17 201-1000 per cent. of total cost.
In 1865 the engineers and firemen received 15 691-1000 per cent. of total cost.
In 1867 the engineers and firemen received 20 865-1000 per cent. of total cost.
In 1886 the engineers and firemen received 39 627-1000 per cent. of total cost.

Gov. Ames of Massachusetts has heeded the warning of the Boston *Journal* that "a change of 4,732 votes would give the State to the Democrats," and that "THE BILL [for the division of Beverly] OUGHT NOT TO BECOME A LAW" (to use the *Journal's* typography), since his veto undoubtedly defeats the measure. The Governor bases his action upon the ground that "very large sums of money, altogether disproportionate to the honest necessities of the case, have been raised and expended in the promotion and passage of the bill," as "some $20,000 have been spent to indirectly influence the action of the Legislature." He points out that "the abuse has been investigated, exposed, and rebuked in scathing terms by the committees of both houses," one of the reports closing with these words: "Legislation cannot be pure unless free and untrammelled by insidious influences. These influences, however, wherever, or by whomsoever exercised, should be and must be emphatically and sternly condemned." He thus disposes of the plea that the anti-divisionists have also spent money: "Two wrongs do not make a right. It is a just as well as an equitable maxim that those on whom is the burden of making out a case shall come with clean hands, and not seek to excuse the lack of them on the ground that an opponent's are soiled." He quotes the Senate Committee's report that the methods pursued "deserve the strongest condemnation and the most effective remedy," and concludes that "the strongest condemnation and the most effective remedy I can apply is a veto." We have received letters from advocates of the division, one of which is elsewhere published, protesting against the view taken of the incident in these columns last week, urging that the division scheme was not, as it has been represented by Boston papers, a tax-dodging move, and disputing other minor points in our article, but laying most stress upon the plea that the old Beverly people had also used money. Waiving discussion of these particulars, it still remains true that it would have been most scandalous if a measure pushed by such methods had become a law, and Gov. Ames deserves praise for interposing his veto.

Whether Texas votes prohibition into the Constitution next August or not—and the anti-party appears to be really alarmed lest the amendment may carry—the State is going to have a law which will largely prohibit the sale of liquor after the 4th of July. On that day an act goes into operation which forbids the use of a screen or any other device to obstruct the view into a saloon, and prohibits pool tables or any other tables used for games of chance in such places. Sales are forbidden to minors, students, and habitual drunkards, and to any person whose wife, mother, daughter, or sister gives notice to the dealer through the sheriff or other peace officer not to sell to such person. A bond of $5,000 that he will strictly comply with the law must be furnished by every dealer. This is about as severe a law as could be framed and stop short of prohibition.

The dedication of a monument to the unknown Confederate dead at Hopkinsville, Ky., last week, illustrated how wide is the difference between the South of slavery and the South of freedom. The spirit of the occasion was that which Senator Sherman expressed in his Nashville speech, when he said that "the courage, bravery, and fortitude of both sides

are now the pride and heritage of us all." Mr. John C. Latham, jr., a Kentuckian, who was a Confederate soldier during the war and is now a banker in this city, contributed the money for the monument, and he originally hoped to make it a joint monument to unknown Federals and Confederates, though this purpose was defeated by the removal of the remains of the dead Federals to the National Cemetery at Fort Donelson. Letters of sympathy were read from various prominent Federal officers, and many old soldiers of both armies were present. The oration was delivered by Mr. W. C. P. Breckinridge, who, like his famous uncle, was a Confederate soldier, and is now a leading member of the Kentucky delegation. It was noteworthy for its frank confession of the differences between the old and the new, and of the advantage of the new. "This new generation now coming into power, this *post-bellum* generation who will soon be dominant," he said, "has been trained North and South under auspices, influences, surroundings wholly unlike those by which we were trained. In the North the youth are not trained to overthrow slavery; in the South the youth are not trained to defend slavery. In the admission of new States, in the settlement of new Territories, there is no 'balance of power' to be maintained or overcome. No longer must the surplus of Southern enterprise be invested in new lands to be tilled by owned labor; and this surplus will seek, is seeking, new enterprises; and diversified industries are supplanting the old-fashioned way of raising a single product. This will cause new rivalries, new combinations, new adjustments, which will in time cause new political alliances."

The *Christian Union* for this week makes public a new phase of the trouble of the A. B. C. F. M. with its missionaries. Two applicants from Andover, Messrs. W. H. Noyes and D. T. Torrey, sons of missionaries, and very highly recommended, were set aside by the Prudential Committee of the American Board. These rejected, or "deferred," applicants "deemed it advisable to submit to the Committee a more ample statement than previously had been given of their motives in seeking appointment, the spirit in which they desire to labor, and their doctrinal beliefs," with the hope "that a full explanation of the manner in which they held opinions which had excited opposition to their appointment, and especially that a careful indication of the proportion and emphasis which they attached to these opinions, would open the way to a happy and peaceful adjustment of the issue which had been raised." Accordingly, they prepared an elaborate statement of their purposes and desires as missionaries, and of their religious belief, wherein they say: "We believe, therefore, that the heathen without Christ are lost; we believe also that, unless found by Him, or if rejecting Him when offered to them, they are lost for ever." But they do not say that they believe that the heathen cannot be "found" by Christ after the end of earthly life—they say the "now" of repentance is "the time of hearing the Gospel message" (*whenever* that may be). It is reported that the Foreign Secretary of the Board warmly advocated the acceptance by the Committee of this proffered basis, and was supported by members of the Committee. But the Home Secretary practically ignored the new overture, adhered to and emphasized the old issue, and was followed by a majority of the Committee. The Home Secretary wrote that "while recognizing the ability of the revised and carefully prepared statement," yet, in view of non-withdrawal of previous statements in relation to "the belief in a continued probation" for "those who die without the knowledge of Christ," regarded as "in harmony with Scripture" and "a necessary corollary" of a belief in "the universality of the atonement"; and "the hypothesis of a future probation for those who have not the Gospel," held as "not without support in Scripture"; the Committee has "no option but to decline to appoint the candidate so long as he holds these views." The incident will probably have its use in bringing matters to a crisis. As the *Christian Union* says: "The question presses for decision whether the churches who sustain the Board are willing that men of the character, ability, Christian spirit, and evangelical faith evinced in this correspondence shall be excluded from its employ."

It appears that the mob which attacked O'Brien in the streets of Toronto on Wednesday week as a "loyalist" demonstration was composed of "some of our best people," in that resembling the mob which fifty years ago dragged Garrison through the streets of Boston with a rope round his body. We are sure Mr. Goldwin Smith was not among them, but we greatly fear some of his disciples were. We have no great sympathy with O'Brien's mission, and do not think that a man who carries a domestic row into a foreign community can fairly complain if he finds himself surrounded by rioters. But on the other hand, the way in which the English majority has fallen back on brute force in dealing with the Irish question, the way in which so many leading Englishmen frankly avow that they do not care how the bulk of the Irish people feel or think on any subject—that they are to live in the English way or go to jail or be shot—seems to justify the Irish party in resorting to any sort of agitation or protest within their reach. Lord Lansdowne would have more of the sympathy of intelligent men if his friends at home were not legislating to enable him to clap into prison with hard labor anybody on his estate who combines with his fellow-tenants to bring about a reduction of rents by any means, however peaceable in themselves.

The labor troubles which have broken out again in Belgium are the natural and inevitable consequence of the competition with which Belgian industry has to contend in every market. Some of the late coal strikes were directed against companies which have not paid a dividend for eight or ten years. But behind the labor problem there is grave political discontent with the smallness of the voting population, or of the "legal country," as it is called. The property qualification for the exercise of the franchise is so high that not over 2 per cent. of the population can vote. The Liberal Associations have taken this up as the great question of the day, and are preparing for a Congress in which an effort will be made to bring about some sort of agreement with regard to it between the Moderates and the Radicals. The latter demand universal suffrage, which the former oppose on the ground that the ignorance of the masses is still so great as to make it dangerous, and suggest as the first step towards an extension of the suffrage the introduction of an educational qualification, in addition to, or rather in lieu of, the property qualification, where this is wanting.

A Berlin despatch in the *Politische Zeitung* of Vienna, touching Gen. Boulanger's retention as War Minister, says that Germany desires rather than fears his retention, as she thinks "his experiments with the army will prevent France from regaining the strong official position she formerly held, while his vanity, which leads him to publish all he has done or intends to do, will afford security against military enterprises." His vanity is an unknown quantity, and nobody can tell what it may lead to; but the cost of his experiments with the army is only too well known, and there is not the smallest doubt that they are fastening a millstone round the French neck. In other words, the preparations for war are costing so much that the country will not be able to afford a war.

The collision of the *Celtic* and the *Britannic* last Thursday shows how little value is to be attached to the blowing of fog whistles if the commanders of the ships give no more attention to the signals than the straining of eyes and ears to make out the direction from which the warning comes. The only importance of the whistle is to convey the information that there is danger close at hand. The whistle does not locate the danger, it only announces its existence. What is required in such a case is not half speed nor quarter speed, but the slowest motion that the ship is capable of until the faintness of the sound proclaims that the danger is past. The motion should be so slight that the accidental meeting of the two at any angle whatever would not break a hole in either. It is seldom that a fog is so dense that the approach of one steamer towards another cannot be made out within a distance sufficient to stop both if they are going under low steerage way. A few years ago the *City of Rome* and the *Belgenland* came within a few feet of each other in a fog off Sandy Hook. Being in shoal water as well as in a fog, the *Belgenland* was moving with extra caution, having just sufficient speed to stop within sight of any solid object in front of her. The *City of Rome* was not moving at all, being fast aground. Both were blowing their whistles. The former came bow on towards the midship section of the latter, but was able to control herself within a yard or two of the *City of Rome's* hull. If both had been out at sea in deep water and following the practice of ocean steamers as illustrated by the coming together of the *Celtic* and the *Britannic*, the *Rome* would probably have gone to the bottom as the *Oregon* went last year.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, May 18, to TUESDAY, May 24, 1887, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE President issued an order on May 21 changing a number of the internal-revenue districts so that the following districts will be abolished and the collectors thereof retired from the service: The District of Nevada, of Rhode Island, Second and the Fourth of Illinois, Eleventh of Indiana, Fourth of Iowa, of Delaware, Tenth of Massachusetts, of Mississippi, Fourth of Missouri, of Maine, of Vermont, Third of New Jersey, Fifteenth of New York, Sixth of North Carolina, Sixth of Ohio, Nineteenth and Twenty-second of Pennsylvania, First of Texas, Fourth of Virginia, Third and Sixth of Wisconsin, in all 22 districts. The saving to the Government in salaries and expenses will not be less than $100,000 a year.

A Grand Army post at Wilmington, Del., sent a resolution of thanks to President Cleveland for vetoing the Dependent Pension Bill. In his reply he wrote: "Those of our citizens not holding office, and thus entirely free from the solemn obligation of protecting the interests of the people, often fail to realize that their public servants are to a large extent debarred in official action from the indulgence of those charitable impulses which in private life is not only harmless but commendable." The citizens of St. Louis have invited the President to visit that city late in September, while the Grand Army of the Republic will be in camp there, and he has accepted the invitation.

The President has appointed Major J. L. Rathbone of California to be Consul-General of the United States at Paris. He is a native of Albany, N. Y., was educated at West Point, and served for several years on the staff of Maj-Gen. Schofield.

Secretary Fairchild on May 20 issued a call for all the outstanding 3 per cent. bonds, amounting to about $17,000,000. The call will mature July 1. The circulars offering to redeem uncalled bonds of the 3 per cent. loan on presentation have been revoked, and no more bonds will be redeemed before maturity.

Lieut. Charles T. Hutchins of the navy, who is now stationed at the Naval Academy, is the winner of the prize given this year for the best essay on "The Naval Brigade, its Organization, Equipment, and Tactics." Ensigns Hewes and Copps, who were sent to Glasgow last year to take the advanced course in construction and marine architecture, have finished the first term and won prizes. Secretary Whitney thinks the way is now clear, with such men, to make the construction corps of our navy second to none.

The Inter-State Commerce Commission has caused a letter to be published which sets forth that the Commissioners do not consider that they have the power permanently to suspend the operation of the long-and-short-haul section of the law, which they believe to be its vital point; that the letter and the spirit of the law are just as binding upon the Commissioners as they are upon the public; and that the Commission, in the exercise of the limited discretion given it to suspend the operation of this section in certain cases, will be governed by the letter of the law, and will order no suspensions except for special reasons and after an examination as to the facts in each case. On May 23 the receiver of the Texas and Pacific Railway Company filed a petition in the United States Circuit Court at New Orleans to secure an interpretation of this clause of the law. The petition sets forth that the receiver is an officer of the court, that duty requires him to keep the court informed of facts affecting the interest and revenues of the road, and that the execution of this clause has been hurtful.

The Supreme Court of the United States on May 23 handed down two decisions which uphold the validity of the patent on driven wells. This brings to an end a legal fight of fourteen years, and will result in causing the holders of the patent to receive millions of dollars for royalties and infringements. These wells are used to supply several cities with water, among which are Brooklyn, N. Y., and Newark, N. J.

After seven months the Federal Grand Jury has returned thirteen indictments against prominent politicians and election officers at Indianapolis, for forging or mutilating the election returns last fall—eleven Democrats and two Republicans.

On May 19, Samuel Pasco (Dem.) was elected United States Senator from Florida. Mr. Pasco, an Englishman by birth, was graduated from Harvard College in 1858, but he has spent most of his life in Florida. He is Speaker of the House of the present Legislature.

The special session of the Legislature of Virginia adjourned May 23, with the State debt as far from a settlement as when it was convened for the special purpose of settling it. The political campaign will begin early in the summer, and the debt will again be a controlling and vexed issue.

The Legislature of Connecticut adjourned on May 19. The failure to pass the High-License and Grade-Crossing Bills is cause of disappointment to a large proportion of the citizens of the State.

The Governor of Massachusetts has signed the Employers' Liability Bill, which will go into effect on September 1. An employee who is injured by the negligence of a fellow-employee exercising superintending authority as part of his duty, may recover of the employer or corporation just as if the injured person had not been in the service of such employer or corporation, damages not greater than $5,000.

The Saturday-Half-Holiday Law in this State went into effect last Saturday. The offices of the municipal government in this city and in most of the other cities of the State were closed at noon. Most of the commercial exchanges shortened the day's work, and the banks closed as early in the afternoon as they could. The tendency was for wholesale commercial houses to shut up, and a very few retail merchants took a half holiday. The factories and the workers in the country did not, on the first day of the law's operation, show that they were aware of it.

At Morristown, N. J., C. B. Reynolds, who was tried for blasphemy under an old statute and defended by Col. R. G. Ingersoll, was convicted on May 20, and fined $25 and costs.

On account of the ill-feeling provoked by Mr. G. W. Cable's criticisms of the Southern race prejudice, his engagement to deliver a lecture in the Columbia (S. C.) Opera-house this week, for the benefit of the public-school library fund, has been cancelled.

A scientific expedition from Princeton College will go to Russia to observe the total eclipse of the sun on August 19, made up of Profs. Young, Libbey, and McNeill. They will sail on June 25, and on the way back will attend the meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science at Manchester. Mr. Charles Green of Trenton, an alumnus of Princeton, will furnish most of the funds for the expedition.

Archbishop Corrigan of this city has received a letter from the Pope, dated May 4, in which the Pope approves the "firmness, joined with signal charity," of his course in regard to "the contumacious disobedience of a priest" (Dr. McGlynn), and "the false doctrines concerning the right of property disseminated by him among the people in newspapers and public assemblies."

The strike and lockout of workmen of the building trades at Chicago are not yet formally ended, but not only are the employees beaten, but the employers have perfected an organization with a determination to exclude from employment all who will not pledge themselves not to force other men to quit work. At a meeting of one organization of employees on Sunday a resolution was adopted asking men out of employment not to go to Chicago. At Haverhill, Mass., 3,500 operatives in the shoe shops were locked out forty-eight hours. They returned to work May 19, when an agreement was made by committees representing both sides. At Everson, Pa., a mob of 300 striking miners on May 20 attacked a few men who were at work at the coke ovens, and beat them severely. The mob did injury also to property.

Nearly the whole town of Lake Linden, in the Keweenaw Peninsula, Mich., where the Calumet and Hecla's stamp mills are situated, has been burned, causing a loss of perhaps $2,000,000. The forest fires which have been burning in nearly every county in the State have destroyed much other property, and endangered many towns.

Two persons, a man and his wife, have died of yellow fever at Key West, Fla., and a sister of the dead woman was stricken with it May 23. The disease has been traced to bedding which was brought from Havana. The Board of Health at Key West and the Marine Hospital service are expected to deal successfully with the disease. Although these cases have caused great local alarm, there is little reason to fear that the fever will spread.

The transatlantic steamship *Britannic* of the White Star Line, which sailed from this port May 18, on the afternoon of the next day, in a dense fog 350 miles out at sea, came into collision with the *Celtic* of the same line. Several steerage passengers on the *Britannic* were killed and a number badly hurt. The White Star vessels were accompanied to this port by the *Marengo* and the *British Queen*, which fell in with them on the next day, and kept near so as to render assistance if needed. Both steamships were considerably damaged.

A monument to Schuyler Colfax set up by the Odd Fellows was unveiled at Indianapolis May 18.

Among the noteworthy persons who have died since the last number of the *Nation* was issued are ex-Gov. William Smith of Virginia, in his ninetieth year, who had twice been Governor and had filled many other public positions; Charles E. Stuart, once United States Senator from Michigan, who was one of Stephen A. Douglas's ablest supporters; Timothy Coop, a rich Englishman, who had identified himself with educational advancement in Kansas, and endowed the University at Wichita, which he named Garfield University because of his admiration of the ex-President; William H. Macy, President of the Seamen's Bank for Savings in this city; Albert Palmer, formerly Mayor of Boston.

FOREIGN.

Since the resignation of the Goblet Cabinet President Grévy has summoned MM. Clémenceau, Ferry, Devès, Freycinet, Raynal, Rouvier, and other prominent party leaders, and had interviews with them in relation to the formation of a new Cabinet. M. Freycinet declined to undertake the task after consulting his friends, and Rouvier undertook it and gave it up. The centre of interest and of disturbance is Gen. Boulanger, in favor of whose retention in the War Office a considerable demonstration has been made. An election was held on Sunday for a Deputy for the Seine. M. Mesurier, who is a Socialist, received 198,297 votes, and Gen. Boulanger 33,038. Gen. Boulanger's candidacy was illegal, and his friends voted for him simply to show his popularity.

The French State Council has rejected the appeals of the Orleans Princes for a reversal of the decree expelling them from the army, but the appeal of Prince Murat for restoration has been admitted,

The total amount realized from the sale of the French crown jewels is 6,864,000 francs. More than one-third of this was paid by Tiffany & Co. of New York, who were the largest purchasers.

Dr Edme Félix Alfred Vulpian, Dean of the Faculty of the French Academy of Medicine, died May 18, aged sixty-one; on May 21 Francisque Xavier Michel, the French archæologist and translator, died in his seventy-ninth year; and on May 23 died Sir Horace Jones, the English architect who designed Caversham Hall, the Royal Surrey Music Hall, the oak roof of the Guildhall, London, and the principal modern London markets.

The work of Germanizing Alsace-Lorraine continues. An official census has been published showing that during the five years since 1880, 37,000 Germans have displaced 49,254 natives. It is estimated that if the native emigration continues in the same ratio, the provinces will be completely German within a quarter of a century.

Crown Prince Frederick William of Germany on May 23 underwent a serious operation for cancer in the throat.

Prince Bismarck is said to desire the appointment of a Papal Nuncio at Berlin so that Dr. Windthorst may be deposed from the dictatorship of the Centre party.

It is reported that Prince Luitpold, the Regent of Bavaria, will receive Emperor Francis Joseph's sanction to assume the Bavarian throne, and that Emperor William's consent has already been obtained.

In the Reichstag May 21 the Supplementary Budget and Loan Bill passed the third reading.

The Westphalian Manufacturing Company has closed its works in Russia, because of the heavy duties imposed by the new tariff on the material used.

The Tzesarevitch was on May 18 installed with great ceremony at Novo-Tcherkask as Hetman of the Don Cossacks. The reception of the Russian royal family is reported to have been enthusiastic. There were processions and exchanges of presents and compliments. Although the whole route of more than 1,000 miles from St. Petersburg was guarded with soldiers, an effort was made to kill the Czar.

Five more persons were executed at St. Petersburg on May 20 for complicity in one of the recent efforts to kill the Czar. During their trial the details of a well-laid plan were made known. It has been reported that another effort was made to kill him before he returned from the Don Cossack country.

The Porte has asked the consent of the Powers to the issue of a loan of £5,000,000, to be guaranteed by the Egypt and Cyprus tributes.

The convention between England and Turkey provides that the British shall evacuate Egypt three years hence. If, after that time, internal troubles arise in Egypt, British and Turkish troops shall reoccupy the country jointly or separately, as the two Governments may agree. No other Power shall be allowed to intervene in Egyptian affairs.

A representative of Lord Salisbury's Government has begun negotiations with the Vatican, in a semi-official capacity, for the resumption of official relations between the Vatican and England.

The House of Commons in committee on May 18 began the consideration of the second clause of the Irish Coercion Bill. This clause proposes to extend summary jurisdiction to conspiracy, boycotting, resistance to eviction, and the offences designated in the Whiteboy acts. An amendment limiting the operation of the clause to the offences committed after the passage of the act was rejected on the first evening. After the rejection of many other amendments and the limiting of the debate by frequent application of the closure rule, the second clause of the bill was adopted May 23 by a vote of 235 to 103.

Among the noteworthy political incidents of the week in England were a discussion in the Commons of the causes of emigration from Ireland, when Mr. Macdonald (Parnellite) asked: "Isn't the increase of emigration partly due to the introduction by the Government of the Crimes Bill and the desire of the Irish people to escape its tyranny?" and the Speaker called for order; an amendment offered by Mr. Chance (Nationalist), altering the title of the Crimes Bill to "A bill for the suppression of free speech and trial by jury"; an appeal by Sir George O. Trevelyan, in a speech at Manchester to the Unionists, to refuse to support a Government which struck at its Liberal rivals through the reputation of the Parnellites; and the votes of 143 members of the Eighty Club in approval of home rule and against coercion, against the votes of 55 in favor of coercion and against home rule.

Father Keller, the Irish priest who was imprisoned in Dublin several months ago for refusing to tell what he knew about the plan of campaign and the part he took in furthering it, was released on Saturday. When he arrived at Youghal he was met by a great crowd, which cheered and blessed him.

By an election in the St. Austell division of Cornwall, May 19, to fill a vacant Parliamentary seat, Mr. MacArthur, the Gladstonian candidate, was elected by a majority of 211.

Four hundred members of the House of Commons attended a jubilee service at St. Margaret's Church, Westminster, on Sunday. At the head of the procession were the Speaker, Mr. Gladstone, Mr. W. H. Smith, Lord Hartington, and Mr. Goschen, who were given the seats of honor. The service was conducted by the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Archbishop of York, the Dean of Westminster, and Archdeacon Farrar, the hymns being composed especially for the occasion. The Bishop of Ripon preached the sermon.

The London *Times* continues to publish articles on "Parnellism and Crime," which relate to the work of Irishmen in America. The article of May 20 was about the League Conventions in Chicago and Philadelphia, and the Clan-na-Gael Society's share therein.

A committee of English iron manufacturers have asked Sir Henry Holland, Colonial Secretary, to urge the Government to protest against the proposed increase of Canadian import duties on metals.

After September 30 all protective customs duties will be abolished in New South Wales, and the new duties will all be specific, and they will be levied on twenty-three classes of articles. There is an increase in the excise on tobacco, and an imposition of an excise duty of 4d. per gallon on all kinds of ale and beer and porter manufactured in the colony.

The committee appointed some time ago by the House of Commons to inquire into the charges of misconduct against the London Corporation has reported that there has been much reckless expenditure, but that there is not sufficient evidence to establish the charge of corruption.

Thirteen thousand workmen have struck in Belgium. The strikers in the district of Borinage have intimidated the employees of factories where there was no strike and stopped their work. The houses of a number of workmen who would not strike have been blown up with dynamite. In consequence of nightly Socialist demonstrations in Brussels, processions and gatherings in the public streets have been prohibited, and a number of persons have been arrested.

The first anniversary of the birth of Alfonso XIII., King of Spain, was celebrated at Madrid May 17, with elaborate ceremonies. The Queen Regent remitted one-half the sentence of every soldier imprisoned for participation in the revolt of last September.

A rather violent shock of earthquake was felt at Monte Carlo on the morning of May 20.

When Mr. William O'Brien, carrying on his agitation in Canada against Lord Lansdowne for evicting tenants from his Irish estates, spoke at Toronto he was mobbed. While he was walking on the street with several companions, a mob formed around him groaning and hissing, and shouting "Away, traitor!" "Down with the dynamiter!" and "God save the Queen!" The policemen were overpowered, and the mob pursued him, throwing stones and eggs. Mr. O'Brien made his escape, with a few bruises, by entering a bicycle shop, and returned to the hotel by another street. When he went to Kingston, he began a speech in the evening without the least hostile demonstration. But a mob gathered on the outside of the building, and responded with groans to every cheer from the inside. When he came out of the hall the mob shouted, "There he is!" "Kill him!" and threw stones and bricks. Mr. O'Brien escaped, with wounds, into the residence of an Irish citizen. The mob broke the windows of the hotel where they supposed he had found shelter, and they wrecked the office of the *Canadian Freeman*, an Irish paper. The mob was made up of men who were aroused to a murderous pitch, and Mr. O'Brien no doubt saved his life by eluding them. He went to Niagara Falls and spent Sunday, and he was so badly bruised that a physician advised him not to travel or to exert himself for a time. But on Monday he went to Hamilton, where he had an engagement to speak. While he was returning at night from the hall where he spoke, several shots were fired from a disorderly crowd, one of which wounded the driver of the cab next the one Mr. O'Brien occupied. At Toronto and Kingston two of the correspondents of New York newspapers who were with Mr. O'Brien were hurt. The conduct of the mobs has been condemned by the Canadian papers of all parties.

The Toronto Board of Trade on May 19 engaged in an animated debate on reciprocity with the United States. The dominant sentiment is expressed in the following clauses of the resolution adopted: "That this Board believes that a commercial treaty creditable and advantageous alike to both parties can be framed in such a spirit of fairness as will afford the best guarantee for its perpetuity"; but "that it disapproves of any proposal to discriminate against Great Britain, whose protection we enjoy." On the same evening Mr. Butterworth of Ohio, the author of a measure introduced in the last Congress looking towards the removal of customs duties by each country on goods imported from the other, addressed the Canadian Club of this city on that proposition. Talking on the same subject in this city on May 23, Sir Charles Tupper, Canadian Minister of Finance, said: "It would be impossible for the United States to consent to a customs union or free trade between Canada and the United States, as that would really mean free trade between the United States and England. A complete customs union is simply impracticable. It would be quite impossible for Canada to adopt a tariff so hostile to the mother country."

The Mayor of Nanaimo, B. C., has sent an appeal to the Mayors of several of the larger cities in the United States for money to relieve the suffering caused by the recent mining disaster. Thirty-nine widows and more than 100 children are destitute.

Mr. Manning, United States Minister to Mexico, has presented to President Diaz the request of the American Government for the remission of the death sentence of the three Mexican officers condemned by court-martial to be shot for their violation of American territory and judicial jurisdiction at Nogales.

A Chinese railway, from Taku to Tien-tsin, was opened May 20. The first railway in China was a short line from Woosung to Shanghai, forty miles, half of which was finished and opened for traffic in 1876. It was purchased by the Chinese Government and closed in 1877.

PARTIES AND THE SUPREME COURT.

A REPUBLICAN organ in Chicago, commenting upon the vacancy in the Supreme Court and the suggestion that a Southern man will be appointed to fill it, says: "The South looks to the ultimate reconstruction of the Supreme Court as the means of unsettling all the results, and destroying all the fruits, of the loyal victory in the war. With five rebel jurists on the bench of that court this could easily be accomplished. It is no wonder that they demand the first vacancy. If it is filled as they desire, it will require but three more such appointments, including Justice Field, to give them a majority of the bench." The organ is of the opinion that "the honest people and the loyal people of the country will hold their breath, metaphorically speaking, until President Cleveland shall make an appointment to fill this vacancy," and it declares that "if a rebel successor to Judge Woods should be appointed, it would be a cause for both dismay and shame."

We have already pointed out that the time for talking about the danger of appointing a "rebel" on the Federal bench has passed, since there has sat for several years upon such a bench, as United States District Judge in Tennessee by the appointment of a Republican President, David M. Key, who "entered the Confederate Army in 1861, and served through the entire war as Lieutenant-Colonel of the Forty-third Tennessee Infantry," and who in 1868 supported Seymour and Blair upon a platform declaring that "we regard the reconstruction acts, so called, of Congress as a usurpation, and unconstitutional, revolutionary, and void."

The criticism of the Chicago paper, however, goes beyond this question of appointing a man who fought for four years, like Mr. Key, to overthrow the Government. It involves the theory that there is a sharp line of division between Republican jurists and "rebel jurists"—meaning by the latter term Southern Democrats appointed to the bench—and that a bench containing a majority of Southern men would interpret the Constitutional amendments and the reconstruction legislation in such a way as to "unsettle all the results, and destroy all the fruits, of the loyal victory in the war."

It ought to be sufficient answer to this antiquated sort of rant that, outside of a few hopeless Bourbons, nobody in the South has any desire to unsettle all the results of the war. Except by such Bourbons, it is frankly confessed by everybody that it is most fortunate for the South that the war resulted as it did. But the Chicago paper doubtless means that a Supreme Court with several Southern members would reverse the attitude of that tribunal toward the legislation of Congress regarding the South, and especially regarding the negroes, and toward the relation of the States to the Federal Government. Only the most cursory acquaintance with the recent tendency of the Supreme Court while all of its nine members but one were Republicans (and he, too, a Republican when Lincoln appointed him) is required to show that this old theory of the Republican party has already been largely overthrown.

One of the reconstruction acts which Judge Key, like other "rebels," regarded as "unconstitutional, revolutionary, and void," was the act "to enforce the right of citizens of the United States to vote in the several States of the Union and for other purposes," popularly known as "the Kuklux Act." Four years ago the Republican Supreme Court, without a dissenting voice, pronounced this act unconstitutional. Another law, which was regarded as the cap-sheaf of reconstruction legislation, was the Civil-Rights Act passed in 1875. In 1883 the Republican Supreme Court, with but a single dissenting voice, decided that the vital sections of this act were "unconstitutional and void." The theory upon which that famous act was based, the Court held, "would make Congress take the place of the State Legislatures and supersede them," and it characterized as "absurd" the pretence that, under the Constitution, such a theory could be maintained.

The relation of the States to the Federal Government is a question upon which it might be expected that partisan lines would be drawn upon the Supreme bench, and especially in the interpretation of a provision like the Eleventh Amendment to the Constitution, which declares that "the judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by citizens of another State, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign State." But when the question of the right of the holders of Virginia coupons receivable for taxes to pay them in as such, and compel the State to receive them, was brought before the Supreme Court, the eight Republican judges divided evenly on the point whether the eleventh amendment protected the State from being sued; and, oddly enough, Judge Field, the Democratic member, who thus held the casting vote, threw it against the States-rights doctrine.

It is thus evident that there is no "rebel" or Democratic interpretation of the Constitution, in contradistinction to a "loyal" or Republican interpretation. The decision of the Supreme Court on such a fundamental issue as that involved in the Civil-Rights Act would not have been different if every judge had been a Democrat, like Judge Field, or a "rebel," like Judge Key. Moreover, when one considers questions of constitutional interpretation liable to arise in the future, it becomes still more manifest that there is no dividing line between parties. Take the broad issue of paternalism in government, which underlies the question of Federal aid to education in the States, for example. The stoutest opponent of this scheme on constitutional grounds has been Senator Morgan of Alabama, a "rebel." But nobody more vigorously sustains the Southern Democrat in this stand than Senator Hawley, the Union soldier and possible Republican candidate for President in 1888, who holds that propositions like the Blair bill are "fatal to the very fundamental theory of the Government," and declares that "the tendency towards a consolidation of the entire powers of government is one of the strongest to-day, and one of those most dangerous to the republican experiment, as our fathers understood it." There can be no doubt that, if any measure based upon this paternal theory of government were to become a law, and to be submitted to a Supreme Court of which Morgan and Hawley were members, the "loyal" man and the "rebel" would unite in declaring it unconstitutional. And while there are many Northern Republicans who do not agree with Senator Hawley, just as there are many Southern Democrats who do not agree with Senator Morgan, there are so many who agree with him in the hearty praise which he has bestowed upon Mr. Cleveland for resisting the tendency to paternalism by the Texas Seed Bill veto, that his party standing and his availability as a Presidential candidate are not injured by his agreement upon this vital point with "a copperhead President" and a "rebel" Senator.

It is fortunate for the country that neither in the legislative, nor in the judicial department of the Government, nor among the voters themselves, is there any longer a dividing line between "rebels" and "loyal" men. In the Louisiana slaughter-house cases, which involved the question of the scope of the Thirteenth and Fourteenth Amendments, Justice Miller, in concluding the unanimous decision of the court against the broad interpretation which had been asked, in 1871, used this striking language:

> "In the early history of the organization of the Government, its statesmen seem to have divided on the line which should separate the powers of the national Government from those of the State Governments; and though this line has never been very well defined in public opinion, such a division has continued from that day to this.
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> "The adoption of the first eleven amendments to the Constitution so soon after the original instrument was accepted shows a prevailing sense of danger at that time from the Federal power. And it cannot be denied that such a jealousy continued to exist with many patriotic men until the breaking out of the late civil war. It was then discovered that the true danger to the perpetuity of the Union was in the capacity of the State organizations to combine and concentrate all the powers of the State, and of contiguous States, for a determined resistance to the general Government.
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> "Unquestionably this has given great force to the argument, and added largely to the number of those who believe in the necessity of a strong national Government.
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> "But, however pervading this sentiment, and however it may have contributed to the adoption of the amendments we have been considering, we do not see in those amendments any purpose to destroy the main features of the general system. Under the pressure of all the excited feeling growing out of the war, our statesmen have still believed that the existence of the States with powers for domestic and local government, including the regulation of civil rights—the rights of person and of property—was essential to the perfect working of our complex form of government, though they have thought proper to impose additional limitations on the States, and to confer additional power on that of the nation.
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> "But whatever fluctuations may be seen in the history of public opinion on this subject during the period of our national existence, we think it will be found that this court, so far as its functions required, has always held with a steady and an even hand the balance between State and Federal power; and we trust that such may continue to be the history of its relation to that subject so long as it shall have duties to perform which demand of it a construction of the Constitution or any of its parts."

The course of the court since this decision was rendered fifteen years ago has justified the confidence which Judge Miller expressed, and the same hope for the future may now be entertained, whether Mr. Cleveland follows the example of Mr. Hayes in appointing a "rebel," like Mr. Key, or a "loyal" man who holds to the Hawley creed.

FISHERIES FALLACIES.

It was stated not long since in the London *Times* that the Earl of Rosebery declared, when resigning office, that the most serious question he left behind him was the dispute between the United States and Great Britain respecting the fisheries. Lord Iddlesleigh is reported to have made, shortly before his death, a similar declaration as to the gravity of the controversy. Both these statesmen betrayed, by these expressions of opinion, an intelligent apprehension of the character of the dispute, and of the consequences not unlikely to result from its continuance. A prolonged controversy between nations, while always fraught with danger, is peculiarly liable to end in hostilities when waged, as the fisheries dispute actually is, between contiguous countries and in a spirit of exasperation on both sides. The history of the oyster fisheries in the Chesapeake Bay is a strong domestic illustration of the difficulty of maintaining good relations between the hardy champions of rival fishing interests, even when they belong to friendly communities under one central government, with no questions of tariff or of rival nurseries for seamen to excite cupidity or inflame national pride and resentment.

Three modes of settling the fisheries dispute have been suggested. One is that recently made by Lord Salisbury, as at least a temporary expedient, of an exchange of free fishing in Canadian waters—with the same privileges and regulations for American as for British fishing vessels—for a free market for Canadian fish in the United States. Another mode is that proposed by Mr. Bayard, of a permanent settlement on the lines of the Treaty of 1818, by a definition of the limits of the exclusive and common fishing grounds under that convention, a joint system of police by the two Governments, and the admission of American fishing vessels into Canadian ports for the purchase of bait and other supplies, etc. A third mode of settlement which has been proposed, is to abrogate the Treaty of 1818 and fall back on the Treaty of 1783.

It is to the last mode that we wish to direct attention, for, while it is not a new idea, it has lately been accepted in certain quarters with not a little favor, and has received at the hands of Mr. John Jay, late Minister to Vienna, a very thorough and deliberate exposition, published in the form of a letter to Mr. Evarts. An examination of Mr. Jay's pamphlet will lead to the disclosure of fundamental fallacies in his position, and throw not a little light on the general aspects of the dispute.

Under the Treaty of Peace of 1783, between the United States and Great Britain the fishermen of the United States had, as is generally known, the right to take, dry, and cure fish in the territorial waters and on the coasts of British North America. The enjoyment of this right was suspended by the war of 1812; and when, after the close of that conflict, the American fishermen sought to resume their rights under the Treaty of 1783, the British Government objected, on the ground that the war had put an end to the treaty. This was denied by the United States, which contended that the Treaty of 1783, being a treaty of separation and settlement, for the division of common property, and not a grant of rights and privileges by the mother country to the United States, was permanent in its character and not affected by war.

The Treaty of Ghent, concluded December 23, 1814, for the purpose of ending the war of 1812, contains no mention of the fisheries. It is known, however, that they formed a frequent topic of discussion between the negotiators of that convention, and that the British Commissioners unequivocally declared that they would not thereafter "grant" the liberty of fishing, and drying and curing fish, within exclusive British jurisdiction without an equivalent. (Memoirs of J. Q. Adams, vol. iii., p. 119 *et seq.*, December 22, 1814.) The American Commissioners maintained the position that the rights of the American fishermen were not affected by the war, and thus the issue was made. The disagreement was complete.

The controversy thus begun continued until the conclusion of the Treaty of 1818. The intervening period was one of great irritation, and the two countries were continually on the verge of a hostile outbreak. Mr. Adams gives in vol. iii. (p. 265 *et seq.*) of his Diary an account of an interview with Lord Bathurst, in London, in September, 1815, in which his Lordship declared that American vessels could not be permitted to fish in British territorial waters; to which Mr. Adams replied, maintaining the American position, and promising soon to address his Lordship a note on the subject. In volume iv. of the Diary we find an account of a conversation between Mr. Adams and the British Minister at Washington, on the 18th of March, 1818, in which the latter stated that Admiral Milne, commanding the Jamaica station, had issued orders, like those of the preceding year, to seize all American vessels which might be found fishing within the British jurisdiction. Mr. Adams replied at length, and closed by saying that the United States would probably have to fight for the matter in the end. The Minister replied that Great Britain had gone as far in the direction of accommodation as she could go,

The orders issued by the British Admiralty from 1815 to 1818 to seize American vessels found fishing in British waters were not continuously enforced, but were at various times, and for various periods, generally with a view to negotiations, suspended. But the Diary of Mr. Adams, as well as other contemporaneous records, shows that many seizures were actually made.

Such was the condition of things when, on the 20th of October, Messrs. Gallatin and Rush concluded the Treaty of 1818. By that convention the United States "renounced for ever any liberty heretofore enjoyed by the inhabitants thereof" to fish within three marine miles of any of the "coasts, bays, creeks, or harbors" of his Britannic Majesty's dominions in America not included within certain limits, in which the right of fishing was expressly reserved to American fishermen by the treaty. This in terms constituted a permanent settlement of the boundaries between the common and exclusive fishing grounds.

We are now prepared to consider the proposition, as advocated by Mr. Jay, to settle the present dispute by abrogating the convention of 1818, and resting on that of 1783. In support of the right of the United States to abrogate the Treaty of 1818, he cites the annulment by Congress in 1798 of the treaties of 1778 with France, for the reason, among others, that those treaties had been repeatedly violated by the French Government. He also cites the opinions of several publicists to show that the violation of a treaty by one contracting party releases the other. This proposition no one will controvert.

But when he comes to apply this doctrine, Mr. Jay is not so fortunate. After saying that the violation of the Treaty of 1818 by the Canadians has given us a right to abrogate it, he declares "that its abrogation would restore to force article 3 of the Treaty of Peace in 1783, the operation of which was suspended by the Treaty of 1818, but which would revive in its original force were the Treaty of 1818 abrogated; precisely as the latter treaty, after being suspended by the adoption of the Reciprocity Treaty of 1854, was revived by its termination in 1866; and, after being again suspended by the Treaty of 1871, was again restored by its termination in 1885."

The fundamental fallacy of this deduction is the singularly erroneous assumption that the Treaties of 1854 and 1871 "suspended" the Treaty of 1818. The Treaty of 1818 has, in fact, remained in force from the moment of its ratification to the present time. Both the Treaty of 1854 and that of 1871 provided, in terms, that "in addition to the liberty secured to the United States fishermen" by the convention of 1818, they should enjoy for a certain time a common right of fishing with her Britannic Majesty's subjects on certain other coasts than those to which such right was confined by that convention. In a word the Treaties of 1854 and 1871 temporarily restored what the Treaty of 1818 had renounced. They did not supplant nor suspend a single right enjoyed under it. The Treaty of 1818 was made as a permanent settlement of the whole subject; and if its abrogation, instead of restoring to American fishermen the enjoyment of the rights and liberties defined in the Treaty of 1783, merely remitted us to the disputes of 1815-1818, the practical side of the suggestion advocated by Mr. Jay could not be regarded as of more value than its argumentative basis.

Another prevalent fallacy is the criticism of the negotiators of the Treaty of 1818 for having yielded without cause the rights of the United States in the fisheries. However sound may have been the American position as to the permanency of the fishing articles of the Treaty of 1783, we have seen, from the review of the situation between 1815 and 1818, how little the argument availed the American fishermen in practice. Nevertheless, Mr. Blaine declares, in his 'Twenty Years of Congress' (p. 617, vol. ii.), and his view has been widely spread, that the Treaty of 1818 was "altogether the most inexplicable in our diplomatic history." He says that "neither in the minute and important Diary of Mr. Adams, nor in the private letters, as published, of Mr. Gallatin and Mr. Rush, is there the slightest indication of

any reason for recommending, or any necessity for conceding, the treaty." And, to complete the case against the negotiators, he finally states (p. 619, vol. ii.) that "of this extraordinary renunciation Mr. Rush wrote many years after: 'We [Mr. Gallatin and himself] inserted the clause of renunciation; the British plenipotentiaries did not desire it.'"

We have already seen what the Diary of Mr. Adams has to say on the subject, and that in March, 1818, he expressed to the British Minister the opinion that the matter would probably have to be settled by war. Such was doubtless the apprehension of Messrs. Gallatin and Rush; and the latter, in an appendix to his 'Residence at the Court of London,' giving an account of the negotiations, expressly so declares. "Neither side," says Mr. Rush, "yielded its convictions to the reasoning of the other. This being exhausted, there was no resource left with nations disposed to peace but a compromise. Great Britain grew willing to give up something. The United States consented to take less than the whole." The compromise having been agreed upon, the question of phraseology arose. The American plenipotentiaries inserted and insisted upon the word *renounce*, not, as Mr. Blaine would lead us to suppose, for the purpose of giving up something the British plenipotentiaries did not wish them to yield, but for the following reasons, stated by Mr. Rush in the appendix above quoted: "(1) To exclude the implication of the fisheries secured to us being a new grant; (2) to place the rights secured and renounced on the same footing of permanence; (3) that it might expressly appear that our renunciation was limited to three miles from the coasts." It thus appears that the *renunciation* was a final reassertion by the American plenipotentiaries of the permanency of the fishing articles of the Treaty of 1783. Compelled, as they believed, to yield something for the sake of peace, they *renounced* what they gave up, so as to preclude the supposition that in making the compromise they had abandoned the principle.

THE FRENCH CRISIS.

THE way in which what was called the "Pagny incident," or, in plainer English, the dispute over the arrest of Schnaebelé, the French Commissary, between France and Germany, has ended, has had a reassuring effect in France touching Prince Bismarck's state of mind, and Prince Bismarck's state of mind is to-day, for Frenchmen, the most important thing in the world. When Schnaebelé was arrested, after being enticed on German soil, under a charge of high treason against the German Government, it was feared, and not without reason, that it was simply a device to tempt the French Government or press into some extravagance of behavior which would justify the men of war at Berlin in taking offence and putting in motion once more that "flail of destiny," as it was called in 1870—the German Army.

The conduct of all parties on this occasion showed how great is on all sides the dislike of war. The French press and politicians were extraordinarily patient and moderate, and though the German press was less so, Bismarck was never calmer or more judicial-minded. After due consideration, he wrote a dry and almost technical despatch to the French Ambassador, saying that Schnaebelé would have been justifiably arrested if he had come on German soil of his own accord; but that it was clearly proved that he had crossed the line on the invitation of his German colleague, Gautsch, to arrange some administrative business, and that this invitation ought to have operated as a safe-conduct. This said plainly enough that if there was to be another quarrel with France, it would not begin about a trifle.

But this does not entirely clear the sky. It is felt all over Europe that, although Bismarck will not fight France about a trifle, nevertheless there are limits to his patience, which are well settled in his own mind, but which he has only revealed very vaguely and indefinitely. He has intimated that he assumes the existence of a determination on the part of France to attack Germany some time or other, as one of the fixed facts of the political situation. His policy, therefore, is to be regulated by the modes and degrees in which the French give expression to this determination. So people watch France eagerly in order to form an opinion as to what he will do. They are now asking what effect the importance attached by popular sentiment to Boulanger's remaining in the Ministry will have on him, and how he will take Boulanger's plan of "mobilizing a corps d'armée," as a test of the efficiency of the new organization, at a cost of 3,600,000 francs.

Boulanger has done wonders in preparing the French for war, and he has done it in such a way as in some degree to restore the old French military pride and self-confidence. But he has done it at enormous cost in money. The French budget is now a subject with which no French Ministry has found itself capable of dealing. Deficit follows deficit year after year with unfaltering regularity, and each deficit is met by temporary loans which have ended in creating a floating debt, the amount of which the Government shrinks from revealing in its entirety. The shrewdest financial heads in France, in fact, such men as Léon Say and Leroy Beaulieu, believe that a Treasury collapse of some kind is not far away. In this terrible problem Boulanger is undoubtedly the worst element, and by Boulanger we do not mean simply the man, but the popular sentiment which he represents—the determination to put a large part of the national resources, both mental, moral, and material, into preparations for war. He weighs on the budget with tremendous force, and in fact makes it unmanageable. It is the budget which has driven the Goblet Ministry from office, and no one is willing to succeed him, and take it up, as long as Boulanger is securely ensconced in it. All the cool heads in the Chambers, known under the general name of "Opportunists," or rational politicians, as we should call them, see this clearly, but there is not one of them, probably, who is willing to assume the task of forming a Cabinet with Boulanger a necessary member of it; and yet that Boulanger should be a necessary member of every Cabinet is apparently what popular sentiment demands.

This is now the situation, but it can hardly be called immediately alarming. To provoke a German irruption, in the present condition of the army and the finances, would be a calamity so awful that every man in France over forty probably shudders at the thought of it, and the country is still governed by men over forty. For a similar reason it seems very unlikely that Bismarck will take offence at the carrying out of the plan of mobilizing a corps d'armée. Not only would it cost over a million dollars in hard cash, besides causing an immense derangement of industry, but probably nobody knows better than Bismarck that it would reveal defects in the French organization which it would take years to cure. On the matter of military preparation no people is so liable to fall into immense delusions as the French. They have never yet, except under the first Empire, begun a great war in a state of complete readiness, and never began one without supposing that their readiness was complete. It has been well said that they are a warlike and not a military nation. The very ardor which carries them readily to the battle-field makes them shrink from the indomitable pains-taking in details which, on the part of the Germans, enabled Moltke, as the story goes, when the news of the declaration of war was brought to him on the night of the 15th of July, 1870 and found him fast asleep, to turn over and go to sleep again after telling the messenger that the proper portfolio "was in the second drawer on the left." Even if the story be not true, it is emblematic of the infinite labor with which the Germans prepare to fight.

HOME RULE AND ENGLISH JOURNALISM.

ONE of the interesting but in many ways deplorable results of the bitter political contest now raging in England, is the disappearance of what may be called the independent press, the two foremost representatives of which were the *Spectator* and the *Economist*. There has probably been no foreign or remote observer of British politics who has not, during the past forty years, been placed under deep obligations to both of these journals for the extent to which they furnished him with cool and impartial judgments of men and things, even at, or perhaps we should rather say, especially at, times of great party excitement. We doubt, indeed, whether any financial journal has ever played the part which all financial journals ought to play in politics—that of a perfectly disinterested looker-on—so faithfully as the *Economist* in Mr. Bagehot's day. Political criticism reached in its columns, when he was its editor and principal writer, a point of excellence to which perhaps no other periodical has ever attained. He saw with remarkable clearness that not only must a financial journal bring judicial-mindedness to the discussion of purely financial questions, but to the discussion of all questions. Nobody ever long relies, in pecuniary matters, on an adviser who takes passionate views of financial enterprises, or allows his forecast as to the results to be colored by his likes or dislikes of persons engaged in them. Not only is this true, but it is also true that nobody relies long in pecuniary matters on an adviser whose judgment in any of the affairs of life is greatly clouded by his prejudices, or whose temperament drives him into hasty or ill con-

sidered action. In other words, to be listened to respectfully by people who have money to invest, or who are making plans for the remote future, a man must be habitually cool, and cultivate what we may call the scientific way of looking at human activities of all kinds.

In Mr. Bagehot's day the *Economist* played this part in an eminent degree. He brought to the analysis of the political phenomena of the day precisely the same sort of acumen which he brought to the analysis of the last bank report or a new funding bill. Reading his articles was very like having a private and confidential talk with a shrewd and experienced man of the world, who had special means of information, but was perfectly indifferent to the bearings of the phenomena which he explained for your benefit. In fact, he brought to modern politics the same spirit of disinterested inquiry and minute observation which he brought to the examination of the history of national growth in his remarkable book on 'Physics and Politics.' He knew that his influence in the commercial world was dependent on his constantly cultivating in all things a spirit of philosophical detachment; that it would not do for him to rail about Disraeli, or grow enthusiastic over John Bright, if he wished to be listened to with respect about the bank rate or the trustworthiness of a foreign loan.

The London *Spectator* never could boast the judicial temper of the *Economist*, but it placed its readers under somewhat similar obligations by its steady application of moral standards to politics, and its constant habit of examining both political men and measures from the moral point of view. Its love of analysis, the manifestations of which in some fields—that of theology, for instance—were excessive, always found instructive and interesting expression in its treatment of politicians and pending questions of legislation. One might not agree with it; one might often grow wearied of its sublety or over-refinement, and often accuse it of fancifulness, and of too much prophetic spirit, and too great eagerness for signs and wonders; but its columns were always edifying to any one who was watching English politics simply as an observer, for the simple reason that he might always feel sure that the editor did not hold a party brief, and was not bound to extenuate or defend anything for party reasons, or to consider the effects of his utterances on party fortunes, and that he was treating every public man on his merits without regard to his political antecedents or surroundings.

We are sorry to say that the home-rule discussion has changed all this. There are no more violent party papers in England to-day than the *Economist* and *Spectator*. We do not mean by this simply that they argue against home rule, and are deeply impressed by its inconveniences or dangers. We mean that they attack it in precisely the same spirit and with the same weapons as the *Times* or the *Standard*, and are as worthless to a disinterested observer desirous of seeing the situation exactly as it is. For instance, there is nothing so tiresome and often disgusting, as all American newspaper readers know, as the way party journals have of dividing the voting population into two groups, one composed of ignorant and reckless people, blinded by their passions and hostile to, or careless about, property or order; the other composed of sober, thoughtful, industrious, patriotic, and God-fearing people, whose supremacy in national affairs is necessary, not only to peace and security, but to the very preservation of the social fabric. The division of the leading politicians is of somewhat the same sort. On one side are a band composed of reckless demagogues, without conscience or honor, seeking the ruin of their country for purely personal profit, through falsehood and perversion, and utterly indifferent to the consequences of their policy as long as it keeps them in power or enables them to win it; on the other, a band composed of calm, wise, moderate men, speaking and acting in politics with a single eye to the national prosperity and glory, eschewing all sophistry or misrepresentation, and constantly uttering pregnant truths, without caring for the effect on their own personal or political fortunes.

In England there has hitherto been less of this sort of classification than here, owing to the transfers of power from one party to another, which take place more frequently under the Parliamentary system than under ours. Every Englishman who has reached the age of forty has seen probably two or three of these transfers, so that it is impossible for the party press or orators to work him into that state of fear and suspicion about his political opponents in which Republicans, for instance, lived with regard to the Democrats during the twenty years before 1884. Nobody has hitherto been able to persuade the Liberals that if Salisbury came into power he would probably betray the Government to its enemies, and plunder the Treasury; or persuade the Tories that Gladstone would surely propose an equal division of goods and knock down the price of all securities 50 per cent. But just now the *Economist* and *Spectator* even, to say nothing of the rest of the Conservative press, talk in this to us very familiar strain. The *Economist* has got so hot in its fury against the Irish that it actually commends military courts-martial as the best tribunals for the punishment of crime—military officers, it says, making excellent jurors—and objectionable only on account of the prejudice against them among philanthropists and Americans. Chamberlain, who was its *bête noire* two years ago, when he was denouncing inequality of taxation, is now its model statesman.

But the *Spectator* far outdoes the *Economist*, as might have been expected, in the fervor with which it surrenders its soul to Liberal Unionism. It is impossible to read without a smile its accounts of the way in which not only common sense and common honesty, but mental capacity, has deserted that immense body of the British people who follow Mr. Gladstone. Not only are the Irish representatives all thoroughly dishonest and unscrupulous, and elected by 4,000,000 of rogues and assassins—this was to have been expected—but the Gladstonian leaders have become ignorant, absurd, sophistical, and stupid. Gladstone, John Morley, Harcourt, Bryce, Rosebery, Childers, Russell, and Trevelyan now never open their mouths without falling into obvious blunders or misrepresentations or fallacies. Eloquence and knowledge have both deserted them. They have lost either the desire or capacity to present any question in a right light. Not only are they wrong occasionally, in the old human way, but they are always wrong, in the diabolical way. On the other hand, Salisbury, Chamberlain, Hartington, Selborne, James, Holland, Goschen, nay, even Smith, Balfour, and Churchill, never speak without hitting the nail on the head. Their reasoning is always perfect; their illustrations apt; their forecasts timely and correct. In fact, the state of mind just now of the quondam independent journalist in England is enough to give a pessimist an illustration in which he would delight, of the flimsiness of the human mind and the weakness of the human character.

THE MARRIAGE OF LOUIS XV.

PARIS, May 7, 1887.

THE marriage of Louis XV. and a Polish Princess, Marie Leczinska, is one of the most romantic incidents of French history in the eighteenth century. M. Paul de Raynal, a French magistrate, has lately studied the circumstances which brought about this extraordinary union between the sovereign of the most powerful country of Europe and a poor and exiled Princess. I knew, in my youth, a gentleman who was old enough to remember Louis XV. He spoke almost with emotion of the fascination which was exercised by this sovereign in his youth. Louis XV. was like a prince of fairy land. He was as handsome as the day, to use a familiar expression of our ancestors; his manners were charming; he had been brought up with the greatest care. He had been promised, since his earliest infancy, to the daughter of the Duke of Anjou, the Infanta of Spain. Why was the Infanta suddenly dismissed, and why did the young King marry the daughter of a Polish nobleman, who had been kept on the throne of Poland for a few years by the protection of Charles XII. of Sweden, and who afterwards had become an exile and a pensioner of the French Government?

When Louis XIV. died, the Duke of Orleans was proclaimed Regent of the kingdom, and assumed an almost absolute power. He asked in 1721 the hand of the Infanta, Anna Maria Victoria, who was then three years old, for the young King of France. Philip V. gave his consent at once. The Regent obtained at the same time the hand of the Prince of the Asturias for his own daughter, Mlle. de Montpensier. Louis XV. was then eleven years old, and entirely under the influence of his preceptor, Fleury, Bishop of Fréjus. When the matter was brought before the Council of the Regency, Saint-Simon tells us that the eyes of the King were red, but that he said "Yes" in a low voice when he was asked to give his consent to the marriage, which was in consequence declared.

Saint-Simon was sent as Ambassador to Spain, and he gives in his memoirs full details of his mission. He paints with his usual vigor Philip V., who had become so different from the handsome Duke of Anjou; the Queen, who was his second wife, who had exiled the Princesse des Ursins, and completely enslaved the King and condemned him to a solitary and monotonous life. The Infanta was exchanged at the frontier for Mlle. de Montpensier; one of them was intended to wear the crown of France, the other the crown of Spain. The exchange took place on January 9, 1722, on the Bidassoa River. Soon afterwards the marriage of Mlle. de Montpensier was solemnized in Madrid. The Infanta, a mere

child, was brought to Paris, and, on her arrival, Louis XV. gave her a doll worth 18,000 livres. "Tout le monde," says Barbier in his Journal, "trouve le mariage original." The King lived at the Tuileries; the Infanta was lodged at the Louvre. When Louis XV. attained his majority, he was left almost immediately without a guide, though he was only entering his fourteenth year. Cardinal Dubois died suddenly, and the Duke of Orleans was struck by apoplexy on the 2d of September, 1723, at the age of forty-nine years.

The Duke of Bourbon, the first Prince of the House of Condé, took the office of Prime Minister, as Fleury, who was the real master of the mind of Louis XV., did not yet dare to take it for himself. Monsieur le Duc, as he was called, was only thirty-one years old. He had lost an eye, and his contemporaries called him the *sinistre* or the *borgne*. He lived at Chantilly in great style. He had lost his wife, and was entirely under the sway of the celebrated Marquise de Prie. Mme. de Prie was the daughter of a wealthy contractor for the army; she was handsome, witty, ambitious, and affected an infidelity which was then the fashion with some members of the aristocracy. She was the declared mistress of the Duke of Bourbon.

The Ambassador appointed to Spain by the Duke of Bourbon was the Comte de Tessé, who was Marshal of France. Tessé had served with great distinction in the French armies, and had already filled many diplomatic missions. He accepted his new post notwithstanding his old age, and he was on his way to Spain when the news arrived of the sudden abdication of King Philip. The Prince of the Asturias was proclaimed King under the name of Louis I., and it was known that all his friends were enemies of the French alliance and partisans of the alliance with Austria. Louis did not like his French wife, who, says M. de Tessé, in one of his despatches, "had learned many things at the Palais Royal which she had not forgotten in his palace." The union of Louis XV. and the Infanta had been solemnly promised, but the Duke of Bourbon was very adverse to it. The Infanta was only six years old, and she could not become the wife of the King before the age of ten. The prolonged celibacy of Louis XV. was a danger for the succession and a danger for the King himself. Louis XV. took no pleasure in the Infanta; on the contrary, he could but feel for her a sort of aversion. If Louis XV. died without a son, the crown would pass to the Duke of Orleans, the son of the Regent, a virtuous prince who hardly concealed his contempt for M. le Duc and for Mme. de Prie.

Mme. de Prie kept her lover in a state of constant inquietude, and prepared him by degrees for a rupture with Spain and for the dismissal of the Infanta. It did not hinder her from asking for a *grandesse* for her husband and for her children; this request recurs often in the correspondence of Marshal de Tessé under the name of *l'affaire des charbons*. The Marshal does not seem to have been very anxious to procure this favor for Mme. de Prie. The King of Spain fell ill suddenly, and, at the age of seventeen years, died after a very short attack. The crown passed to the head of the second son of Philip V., the Infant Don Ferdinand, who was only eleven years old. The Duke of Bourbon was very much alarmed at the consequences of this change. It was clear that the young King would be completely in the hands of the grandees of Spain, that the kingdom would fall into complete anarchy. He wrote to Philip V., who was the only true friend of France in the peninsula, and begged him to come out of his retreat and assume the power himself. Philip consented, with some reluctance; and M. le Duc, confiding in his sentiments, in his love of quietness and peace, in his affection for his nephew, Louis XV., thought that he could now, without any danger of war, send the Infanta back to Spain and find another wife for the King of France. Mme. de Prie knew that she would never obtain the *grandesse* from the pious and scrupulous old King of Spain; it was thought by her as well as by her lover that the time for action had come.

Secret councils were held at the Duke of Bourbon's a few weeks after the death of the young King of Spain. They were composed of M. de Fréjus, of Marshals Villars and Uxelles, of the Comte de la Marck, the Comte de Morville, and M. Pecquet. The Duke of Bourbon explained the reasons for a prompt marriage of Louis XV. with another Princess than the Infanta, and the reasons that would prevent Philip V. from declaring war on France. M. de Morville is said to have exclaimed: "Certainly, the Infanta must be dismissed, and *par le coche*, so that it may be done sooner." The question at once arose, What Princess would be chosen in place of the Infanta? Seventeen names were pronounced in a special report made by Morville, among the others, "Marie, daughter of King Stanislas Leczinski of Poland, aged twenty-one." There were objections to all the names: some were promised, some were ill, some were of another religion. The Duke of Bourbon, however, gave his preference to Princess Anna, the eldest daughter of the Prince of Wales, and asked the French Ambassador to inquire of the Ministers of George I. if they would give her to the King of France, on condition that she should become a Catholic.

Time pressed; at the age of seven, the Infanta was to be solemnly affianced to the King of France. The Spanish Minister in Paris had no suspicion of any change in the intentions of the French court. Marshal Tessé was suddenly recalled and replaced by the Abbé de Livry, chargé d'affaires in Portugal. Louis XV. was made to write a letter to the Pope announcing that he could not marry the Infanta, and begging him to soothe the irritation of Philip V. Livry had to deliver at the same time a letter to the King of Spain announcing the change. Philip V., who had been previously made aware of its contents, refused to receive it; he showed calmness and dignity, but his wife, Elizabeth, was furious, as were all the Spaniards. The Abbé de Livry was ordered to leave the Spanish territory, and Mlle. de Beaujolais, who had been promised to Don Carlos, was sent back to France.

Mme. de Prie did not much approve of a marriage with an English or a Russian princess; she wished for some modest, poor, plain princess, whom gratitude would always tie to her. She found all she desired in the Polish Princess, who had neither wealth, nor pride, nor fortune. She espoused her cause with much warmth, and what she desired was soon after the wish of the Duke of Bourbon. She was helped by the English Government. The proposal which had been made by the Comte de Broglie for the young English Princess had been thought very flattering; the Count had shown the King a picture of Louis XV., who was at that time most beautiful. The religion, however, had been thought an insurmountable difficulty, and a negative answer was finally returned.

The disappointment of the Duke of Bourbon was great. He thought for a moment of one of his sisters, Mlle. de Vermandois, who had been brought up in the Convent of Fontevrault and wished to become a nun. President Hénault and some other writers of the time say that Mme. de Prie went to Fontevrault under an assumed name, and saw Mlle. de Vermandois. She spoke to her of her brother and mentioned Mme. de Prie. At the mention of this name, Mlle. de Vermandois interrupted her with vehemence, and manifested the greatest contempt for the person who had enslaved her brother. Mme. de Prie changed the conversation; her mind was made up—it was not for her to put the crown of France on the head of Mlle. de Vermandois.

From that moment the Polish Princess became the most eligible candidate. The humility of her position was an advantage, as it tended to soothe the irritation of Philip and of the Spaniards; the Infanta was not sacrificed to a great princess or to a powerful country. The marriage ceased to be a political affair. The offer was made, but not before Louis XV. had seen a portrait of the young Marie. She was not handsome, but she was agreeable and had a very pleasing countenance. Marie Leczinska was six years older than the King, but every objection was put aside. It is easy to judge of the emotion of the poor exiled King of Poland when he was informed of the project of the King of France; after having received the letter of Louis XV. at Wissembourg in Alsace, he entered the room where his daughter was sitting with her mother:

"My daughter," said he, "let us kneel and thank God." "My father, are you recalled to the throne of Poland?" "No, my daughter, God is more merciful—you are Queen of France."

The marriage was for a long time a happy one. The Queen had a very amiable disposition. When she made her presents to her ladies she said modestly: "This is the first time in my life I have been able to make presents." She did not, however, accept the tyrannical friendship of Mme. de Prie. Fleury, the Bishop of Fréjus, found in her an ally, and she became an unconscious instrument in the disgrace of the Duke of Bourbon. The victory of Fleury became complete. The Duke was dismissed from the Council, and Mme. de Prie was exiled to one of her estates. She fell into a state of despair, and the memoirs of the Marquis d'Argenson tell us that she lost her beauty, and that in 1727 she poisoned herself.

By a strange concatenation of circumstances, which completes the romance of the life of Marie Leczinska, this Princess, who was so poor that her father, when the offer of the King of France was made to him, had just pawned her jewelry, had, in fact, brought to France a magnificent dower: her marriage had for one of its consequences the reunion of Lorraine to the kingdom.

Correspondence.

WESTERN MORTGAGES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Allow me a reply to "L." Western development has always been the profitable opportunity of Eastern capital. The older always lend to the younger States. Europe did it fifty years ago; now we do it from our own profits in Western growth and trade. Western mortgages are no experiment. System and experience have simplified the matter in both convenience and safety for the investor. The incident of *loss* by foreclosure has actually been eliminated. While foreclosure itself has been reduced to a fraction of 1 per cent., the profit of foreclosure is absolutely assured. A Western corporation of tried, prudent, and wealthy men, who themselves supervise the loans, and examine titles and values, and select their mortgages, can and does actually produce the choicest 6 per cent. security which the experience of insurance companies, savings banks, and private investors has been able to find during the past fifteen years. Of this there is ample evidence in the reports. We cite one—the Bank Commissioners of New Hampshire, 1886, page 419. There was no foreclosure in Western loans; all foreclosure was in Eastern mortgages.—Yours, H. W. Hall.

THE BEVERLY INCIDENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: That the "Beverly Incident" should be of sufficient importance to deserve an editorial certainly makes it worth while to correct, from the record, certain unintentional misstatements of fact which have found place in your article:

(1.) The move for separation is not an outgrowth of the summer population. In the Boston *Globe* of May 19 you will find the testimony of old inhabitants of the Farms who have been familiar with the plan for separation for more than twenty-five years.

(2.) It is not a tax-dodging move. The Farms are to take one-half of the town debt. The interest on this, the payment to the common sinking fund, and the Farms' share of other common fixed charges, make a rate of 8.95 on a thousand, upon the valuation of the Farms for 1886, or 14.89 on a thousand, upon the valuation for 1885. Adding the lowest possible tax for the expenses of the Farms themselves, the rate could not be less than $13 on the valuation of 1886, or $21 on the valuation of 1885. The heavy valuation of 1886 (said to be by way of punishment for the attempt to separate) was one of the chief grounds of complaint made by the Farms at the hearing this year. There is no hope of a tax rate below $15 at the Farms for many years to come. The rate in Boston last year was $12 70.

(3.) It is not true that the question was tried last year "on its merits" and this year not on its merits. Precisely the contrary is true. Last year there was so little interest taken that it was impossible to induce the Legislature to go t Beverly and see for themselves. This year nearly all the members of both houses, in bodies of thirty or less, went to old Beverly and to the Farms, and examined the ground and the people in the presence of representatives of both sides.

(4.) There was no material difference in the amount of money raised and spent by the Farms people last year and this. This year it was $18,000, last year it was $14,500.

(5.) In both years money was raised and lobbies were employed by both parties alike, and both parties used precisely the same methods. This is stated in as many words in the findings of the committee in their report.

(6.) Substantially the same counsel acted for the parties on both sides in both years.

While agreeing with you in your comment on the use of lobbyists, it must be borne in mind that the chief fault lies with the legislators themselves. If each member would kick a lobbyist instead of listening to him, the lobby would melt away in a week.—Very truly, Observer.

ANOTHER VIEW OF ALFRED STEVENS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your critic (*Nation*, No. 1142) handles M. Alfred Stevens's 'Impressions on Paintng' without gloves. I have not read the book and do not care to defend it—certainly the extracts your critic gives are not profound; but when he speaks of Stevens the painter with such contempt as "a painter of millinery and stuffs and fashion-plates," and as "a painter for the *nouveaux riches*," I feel impelled to protest.

I think I speak for the whole body of painters—certainly for all the painters I know—in saying that we find M. Stevens a painter for painters as well as for the *nouveaux riches*. I know many painters of the highest aims and of high achievement, and I know none of them that would deny to M. Stevens an exceedingly high rank in his profession, or that has not the heartiest admiration for his work. Would this be so if the work were as "vicious," as "shallow," and as "meretricious" as your critic thinks it? When painters of the most varied aims and methods agree in admiration of a brother painter's work, is it not safe to assume that there is something admirable in it?

M. Stevens is a born painter, of marvellous gifts. He has doubtless done much work which is unworthy of him, but it is not by that that he must be judged. His best work is marked by exquisite harmony of color, by an astonishing power of rendition, and by a *mondaine* grace and charm in his female figures not at all dependent on the "millinery" which they wear. M. Stevens chooses to paint well-dressed ladies presumably because he likes well-dressed ladies better than peasant women, and because the "stuffs" they wear give him the material for his delightful color-schemes; but ladies are human beings, and a man may paint them without making "fashion plates." I think even Titian had a fancy for painting ladies now and then, and dressed in the height of the fashion, too.

Kenyon Cox.

New York, May 19.

THE CRANSTON ARMS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: My attention has been called to a review of 'America Heraldica' in the *Nation* of May 5. I quite agree with the writer of the article in his estimate of the value of coats-of-arms in this country, but as the assertion of a right to their use involves a question of honesty, will you kindly permit me to give, in as few words as possible, the authority for the use of the Cranston arms, even though there "be wrong somewhere" in the Cranston pedigree?

The *authority*, both for the pedigree and arms, is a certificate given to Samuel Cranston, Governor of Rhode Island, under date of June 29, 1724, by Sir Alex. Areskine, Lyon King of Arms, Edinburgh. A second application was made to the Lyon office in 1881 with special reference to an error in the pedigree. The reply, signed Geo. Burnett, Lyon, states that "as regards the arms in question, it [the certificate of Sir A. Areskine] is *absolutely authoritative*, and not to be gainsaid by the dicta of Peerage or other works"; and he goes on to say: "There was a period in the first half of last century when the pedigrees, as detailed in the armorial certificates granted from the Lyon office, were not so carefully got up, or so absolutely free from error, as at other times." A little investigation has led me to conclude that the error in question was caused by a mistake of similar names in two branches of the *same* family.—Respectfully,

G. E. C.

[In regard to the Cranston case, the only information open to the public was the epitaph printed in the *Heraldic Journal*, page 59. It seems that at Newport, R. I., is a stone, inscribed as follows, over the grave of Gov. Samuel Cranston, who died in 1727: "He was son of Gov. John C., grandson of Rev. James C., chaplain to King Charles I., who was son of John C. of Pool, who was son of James, son of William, Lord Cranston." This is the most favorable view to take of the inscription as to generations. William, first Lord Cranston, died in 1627. By this pedigree, Gov. John C., who was born in 1626, was great-great-grandson of this lord, and yet born in his life-time. If not impossible, it was at least almost incredible. Now, Mr. G. E. Cranston gives us the authority of the present Lyon King at Arms, as endorsing the arms, though the pedigree is wrong somewhere. Our complaint against Mr. Vermont's plan was, that he puts this coat among well-authenticated examples without giving any authority, and very possibly without being acquainted with the private letter cited by "G. E. C." Until that letter is printed, no critic can be blamed for pointing out the very unsatisfactory state of the matter as it stands in the *Heraldic Journal*.—Ed. Nation.]

"IS BEING BUILT," ETC.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: On this form of expression a reviewer remarks, in your issue for March 17: "Dr. Hall gives it a respectable age: he has found it as early as 1769. A look for it in [Mr. T. L. Kington] Oliphant shows examples in 1447-48." If the reviewer had turned to Mr. Oliphant's alleged authority, he would have seen something noticeably different there.

Naming Shillingford's 'Letters,' Mr. Oliphant writes, in i, 273: "In p. 92 there is a startling change of idiom, which did not become common until 300 years later; *being* is prefixed to a past participle; *wyn is being y put to sale*; this idiom is repeated in p. 100."

Now, in Shillingford, pp. 91, 92, there occurs: "Wyn by his officers ofte tymes *being* ther y put to sale," etc. And at p. 100: "And so thei, being seised of the saide nywe tenements, made oute," etc. The interpolation by which Mr. Oliphant alters the first quotation to what he wishes it to be is *not* "startling" to any one who has scrutinized the peculiarities of his doings as a philologist. That here and elsewhere I am not unduly severe will probably be acknowledged by those who read to the end of this letter.

Referring to my quotations for "is . . . being acted," etc., Mr. Oliphant says of me, in ii, 188: "He seems unaware of the fact that the idiom was anything but new; see my book, i, 273; ii, 58."

It is obvious to ask why he did not cite something of the second passage from Shillingford, as he cited something of the first. Did his evil courage fail him, after scheming so as to foist in "is" once? Be this how it may, it is bad enough that, even on a single occasion, he has distinctly sophisticated an old text, apparently in order to make a point against me.

Again, he delivers himself very uncritically as regards the idiom under consideration: "*Being* is prefixed to a past participle." This is his definition of it; and it thus seems to be indifferent to him whether *being built*, for example, is preceded or is not preceded by *is*, *was*, or the like. Of phrases like those which, as given above, are met with in Shillingford, I do not claim to know the antiquity; but it has not been proved that they had not been long established before developments corresponding to Mr. Oliphant's spurious "wyn is being y put to sale" became at all current.

The expression "was being seducyd" is, perhaps, found in a translation, published in 1844, which is said to have been executed late in the reign of Henry VIII. If at any time I have an opportunity of consulting the manuscript of that translation, I shall return to the expression.

A letter written in the first quarter of the seventeenth century contains the locution, "Italy is being held dangerous," if we may believe Mr. Oliphant, who, building on his adulteration already spoken of, styles it "an idiom of the fifteenth century." Of what there really is in that letter I have, at present, no reasonable assurance.

Among the quotations connected with the construction before us which Dr. Murray gives in

his Dictionary—all of which I had given previously—the first, as I have lately ascertained, should be dated 1572, not 1596; the second edition of the translation of Lavater, used by me, having nothing in it from which one would infer that it was not the first edition.

Further, since Dr. Murray treats only the quotations beginning with that of 1795 as unexceptionally exemplifying that construction, it is interesting to be able to adduce a similar one, which I have very recently chanced on, earlier by three years. William Roberts, in No. 26 of the *Looker-on*, published November 3, 1792, has the words, "while the *Looker-on* was being read."

Let me now touch briefly on the manner in which Mr. Oliphant has noticed the examination of his 'Sources of Standard English,' contributed by me to the *North American Review* for October, 1874. In the preface to his 'Old and Middle English' he says that he "cannot understand why an author need whimper under the rod of reviewers." Whimpering is unmanly enough, doubtless; but he has done much worse than whimper. Others may decide whether I am wrong in imputing to him, with respect to me, fictitious representations and breaches of veracity in the passages, taken from his work last mentioned, which I shall now produce and annotate. Very significantly, neither am I named by him, nor is any of my writings indicated, in connection with those passages. Clue there is therefore none, of his furnishing, for testing the fidelity with which he exhibits the matters that he animadverts on. As in every case here brought forward he has strayed into the region of downright fable, his rule regarding me is determined by the solitary instance where, exceptionally, he has satisfied himself with gratuitous carping only; for there he discloses my personality. This is at page 52.

I once spoke of "helpless slaves of what a metaphysician might call the sequacious diathesis" (see my 'English Adjectives in -able,' etc., p. 173). Just before thus expressing myself, I had come upon two pompous old acquaintances, "sequacious" and "diathesis," in the pages of the *Saturday Review*, Mr. Oliphant's ardent panegyrist; and these I jocularly fancied brought together, introducing them, as is seen, much as one would introduce a quotation. It was my imaginary metaphysician that married the formidable couple.

Adverting to my palpable jest, Mr. Oliphant informs us in his preface: "I have let off no fireworks like 'Asyndetic Coördination' or 'Sequacious Diathesis.'" But he could not rest there. On page 84 he classes me among "professors of fine writing"; and he likewise describes me as "one of them, who writes about sequacious diathesis." He knows full well that his gibe would have lacked all color of justification, and would never have been ventured, if he had been ingenuous enough to transcribe my context. For when and where did I ever profess to uphold "fine writing," or to do anything for which I should be ranked with "professors" of it? The English which I advocate for general use is precisely such as the common sense and the needs of our age account expedient, and not the piebald, jejune, vague, nerveless, and affected jargon which he champions; and of this he is perfectly sensible.

The remark of mine, "*lesser* enjoys his sanction," certainly affords no evidence of passion; and yet, crookedly avoiding citation of the remark, he does not shrink from saying, at page 268, "One critic was very angry with me for using this classic Old English form." The ineptitude of this falsehood does not require to be dwelt on.

Once more he writes, at p. 220: "One critic is much disgusted at my using *overlord;* in this I simply follow my betters. He would probably prefer *superior dominator*, or *hyper-despot*. He stands up for *sociology* as a neat compound; so he would, of all things, I suppose, prefer *hyper-dominator*."

Let us now look at the facts. Constructing a sentence "made up entirely of his own pet archaisms," as I accurately characterized it, I embodied in it the word "overlord"; and there an end. To assert that I was "much disgusted" at his using it is pure invention. As to "sociology," I merely asked, "who would prefer a circumlocution" to it? Shortly before I had observed that, "as to real verbal hybrids," such as "mineralogy," "terminology," "murderous," and "righteous," "we readily learn to tolerate them, if handy"; this observation following a comment on Mr. Oliphant, who had discovered, in "the wondrous word *penology*," a mixture of "Latin with Greek."

There is no ground, then, for taxing me with holding "sociology" to be "a neat compound." I applied no epithet to it, laudatory or otherwise. Moreover, where Mr. Oliphant says that I "would, probably, prefer" one thing, and, as he supposes, "would, of all things, prefer" another, since he supposes nothing of the kind, he consciously deviates from the truth, and that from sinister motives, indubitably. A wholesale and unscrupulous pseudologist, forsooth, is my Oxford-bred critic, if I may use a compound which, besides being strictly descriptive of him, one cannot deny to be sufficiently "neat."

For what I say touching "penology," "sociology," "lesser," etc., see the *North American Review*, as above, pages 317, 318, 325. In spite of my corrections, by the by, we read, in Mr. Oliphant's last work, 'New English,' ii, 217: "In a letter on prison discipline, printed in the *Times* of September 5, 1872, we find the wondrous word *penology;* the writer compounds Latin with Greek, and knows not how to spell the Latin he has compounded." Accordingly, idle as it is to gainsay the position, Mr. Oliphant is still unconvinced that, as of *horology*, so of *penology*, both the elements are Greek; and, in all consistency, he ought to deem it unscholarly to put *penal* instead of *pœnal*.

Here I drop my frontless defamer for the present. That I have vindicated myself against him in the *Nation* has its explanation in the fact that, in the country where I am writing, no journal, I believe, would permit the malpractices of an Englishman to be exposed in its columns by an American. Such, as long experience has instructed me, is British comity.—Your obedient servant,

FITZEDWARD HALL.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, May 14, 1887.

THE SENATORIAL SITUATION IN WEST VIRGINIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The two branches of the West Virginia Legislature having met in joint assembly, and having cast a majority of their votes for Charles James Faulkner, it now remains for the United States Senate to determine whether he, or the Governor's appointee, Daniel B. Lucas, will be seated. The construction which is placed by that body upon the clause of the United States Constitution which declares in mandatory terms that "the Executive may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the Legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies" (art. i., sec. 3), must decide the point at issue. This would be conclusive in favor of Mr. Faulkner's claim, were it not for that provision of the Constitution of West Virginia which provides as follows: "The Governor may, on extraordinary occasions, convene at his own instance the Legislature; but when so convened it shall enter upon no business except that stated in the proclamation by which it was called together" (art. vii., sec. 7), from consideration of which it appears that in no just and proper sense of the term has the Legislature yet convened. Beyond the expressly and specifically enumerated purposes for which the Governor called together in extraordinary session the component members of the Legislature of West Virginia, of which the election of a Senator was not one, there has been no "next meeting" of the Legislature; and the result of their balloting for Senator is as absolutely null and void of force and effect as it was violative of their oaths to support the United States Constitution, and defiant of the organic law of their own State. Suppose, on the day following the expiration by constitutional limitation of the last regular session, the members of that about-to-become historic body had met in joint assembly and chosen a Senator, without awaiting the call of the Governor, merely dispensing with that purely formal ceremony; does any one claim that their action would have been valid, or entitled to the respect of the Senate? Yet, would any greater violence have been done the State Constitution than it suffered in the attempted election of Judge Faulkner? On the other hand, as far as the transaction of any other business than that stated in Gov. Wilson's proclamation is concerned, would it not have been as truly and as validly constituted a meeting of the Legislature within the meaning of the United States Constitution? Wherein consists the difference so far forth as relates to the election of a Senator? In other words, if the last-mentioned instrument, as "the supreme law of the land," can and does so override the Constitution in that particular which shears the Legislature of all power except within the express terms of the grant of the Executive, can any reason be given why it should not wholly dispense with the necessity for the Governor's proclamation, and validate any action of the assembled members which resulted in the expression of a choice of a Senator, though such meeting were wholly fortuitous? These facts, considered in the light of that broad principle of law and common sense which declares that two instruments, or two statutes, or two clauses of the same instrument, shall be so construed as to give effect, if possible, to both, offer an easy solution of the question by which the sanctity of the United States Constitution may be preserved inviolate, not having its revered provisions distorted and stretched to cover cases it was never intended to embrace, and the Constitution of West Virginia escape desecration by her own sons. D. L. B.

WASHINGTON, D. C., May 18, 1887.

SOMETHING NEW ON METEMPSYCHOSIS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the New York *Independent* for April 28 Mr. Henry F. Reddall discourses concerning "Unnatural Natural History," and exposes several popular and, we trust, also, unpopular fallacies. Speaking of the impression which some have, that pelicans feed their young from flesh of the mother's breast, Mr. Reddall says:

"The fact that the pelican is provided with a large bag under her neck, into which she thrusts her finny prey, and, digging therein with her gory beak, feeds her young and dabbles her plumage with bloody fragments of fish, has given rise to the mistake concerning her habits."

With such a caption as "Unnatural Natural History," it is impossible to criticise this item; but inasmuch as the ordinary pelican has the "large bag" upon the under mandible of her beak, and not upon her neck, might it not be that, in some occult manner, Mr. Reddall's peli-

can has received the soul of that amiable old gentleman in 'Oliver Twist' who was continually offering to eat his head, but was ever diverted by some passing thought from accomplishing his purpose? It seems reasonable.

CONWAY M. MILLAR.
MINNESOTA UNIVERSITY, MINNEAPOLIS.

Notes.

WE regret to learn that the three-volume 'Life of Darwin' by his son Francis will not be brought out this summer, but next autumn—doubtless a more favorable time for its proper consideration by a public now absorbed in the contest over Irish home rule.

Ticknor & Co. publish immediately 'The Sunny Side of Shadow; Reveries of a Convalescent,' by Mrs. S. G. W. Benjamin; 'Letters of Horatio Greenough to his Brother, Henry Greenough'; and 'The Nigritians' and 'The Melanesians' in Mr. A. Feathermann's laborious series called "The Social History of the Races of Mankind."

We learn from the last number of the Harvard University Bulletin that the Corporation have authorized the publication, through Charles Scribner's Sons, of a memorial edition of the late Prof. E. A. Sophocles's 'Greek Lexicon of the Roman and Byzantine Periods,' under the oversight of Prof. Joseph Henry Thayer. In this number of the Bulletin, by the way, is bound up a list of works on North American Fungi, published before 1887, by W. G. Farlow and Wm. Trelease. Works on Schizomycetes are intentionally omitted.

Lee & Shepard announce 'Life Notes; or, Fifty Years of Outlook,' by the Rev. William Hague, a prominent member of the Baptist denomination; and 'The Obelisk and its Voices,' by Gen. Henry B. Carrington, a poem inspired by the Washington Monument.

Judge Wilbur F. Bryant's 'The Blood of Abel,' which the author will publish at Lincoln, Nebraska, appears to be an apotheosis of Louis Riel, and a campaign document directed against President Cleveland, "whose judgment," the Judge says, "none of us would accept as to the value of forty acres of wild prairie land." This opens up a new vista of tests of Presidential candidates.

Subscriptions are solicited for 'New Papers on Canadian History, Art, Science, Literature, and Commerce,' gathered from those read before the Canadian Club of this city. The volume will be edited by G. M. Fairchild, jr., and illustrated by Thompson Willing, R. C. A. Profs. Goldwin Smith and Chas. G. D. Roberts, Principal Grant, and George Stewart, jr., are among the contributors. Mr. J. S. Ross, Canadian Club, No. 12 East Twenty-ninth Street, has the book in charge.

Maisonneuve ("Librairie Orientale et Américaine") has in press volume v. of the "Mémoires et documents pour servir à l'histoire des origines françaises des pays d'outre-mer," edited by M. P. Margry. The fifth volume of this collection has recently appeared. It has for a special title: 'Première formation d'une chaîne de postes entre le fleuve Saint-Laurent et le golfe du Mexique, 1685-1724.'

The publication of a valuable work for the study of French history and literature is announced. It is an 'Album paléographique,' a collection of important documents relating to the history and literature of France, reproduced in heliogravure from the originals in the national libraries and archives, with explanatory notices by the Société de l'École des Chartes; and an introduction of twelve pages by M. L. Delisle. It is a large folio, containing fifty plates of facsimiles. Three hundred and fifty copies have been printed at 150 francs each.

A great deal of enterprise has been shown by the West Publishing Company in completing what it calls the "National Reporter System," by which the legal profession is furnished weekly with "all the current decisions of the Federal Courts and the courts of last resort of all the States and Territories"; and also monthly with a Digest of all these cases. There are nine series of these *Reporters*, viz., two of the National Courts, the "Supreme Court" and the "Federal," and seven of the State and Territorial Courts, the Atlantic, Pacific, Northeastern, Northwestern, Southwestern, Southeastern, and Southern. The type is good. The chief drawback to these reports is the absence of a statement of the facts, or the slight statement of them. But, taken just as they are, the quick furnishing of them at a price under $50 a year for the whole of them, including the Digest, is an immense advantage to the lawyer. Indeed, by rendering easily accessible to judges and others these current decisions of all our American courts, it is probable that this enterprise will have a considerable influence in developing and unifying our law.

We have received a prospectus of the *Modern Muse*, "a quarterly review of poetry," to be launched at Buffalo in January next by C. W. Moulton & Co. Poetasters need not take heart; the scheme offers no place for "original verse." It involves the reprint of standard poems by living and dead poets, and selections from the current poetry of magazines on both sides of the water. Biography and critical and explanatory annotation will go hand in hand with bibliography and liberal indexing. "With number two will be published a bibliographical list of all the verse, English and American, issued in book form during 1887." Scrupulous editing is promised.

Another novelty in periodicals is the weekly *Public Service Review*, already in its third or fourth number (New York, Broadway and Thirty-third Street). Its range takes in the military and naval service, and the civil service of municipality, State, and nation. The backing of this enterprise is chiefly from the army, and one feature of the *Review* is a monthly showing of the stations of the land and naval forces of the United States.

The Illustrated News Company, of this city, is printing, "from duplicate plates, by special arrangements with the proprietors," the *Illustrated London News* and other foreign pictorials.

Notes and Queries for May 7 speaks of "George Eliot (*née* Mary Ann Cross)."

Some vigorous and intelligent art criticism is contributed to the May *Portfolio* (Macmillan) by Mr. F. G. Stephens, whose theme is William Mulready—a first paper. He strikes impartially in a sentence that will displease the English as much as the American public, when he classifies the existing "schools of artistic motives," naming the third "the sentimental school, as exhibited in the works of Ary Schefer [*sic*], certain Germans, and numerous Englishmen, who have affected the twaddle and whine of Longfellow and such-like falsities." But there is much to respect in his judgments, and on Mulready he is an authority. A clever etching after this artist's homely "Choosing the Wedding Gown" forms a frontispiece to the present number of the magazine. David Wilkie is the principal subject of Mr. Walter Armstrong's third illustrated paper on Scottish painters.

The *Studio* for May mingles with its independent criticism of the late exhibition at the National Academy of Design, and of George Fuller's work as a painter, six full-page photographic illustrations representing as many pictures of the Wolfe collection, now the property of the Metropolitan Museum. It announces for the July number a portrait of Mrs. Cleveland, etched by Paul Rajon, of which, as usual, proofs on Japanese paper will also be made, to the number of 500, for such as desire to procure them, and proofs on large paper.

The *Pall Mall Gazette* "*Extra*" No. 34 is an illustrated catalogue of "The Pictures of 1887" to be seen in London, as, at the Royal Academy, the Grosvenor Gallery, the two Water-Color Exhibitions, that of the British Artists, etc. In a certain number of cases the preliminary sketches are also reproduced, and now and again information is given as to engravings to be made after the paintings here sketched.

Mr. Christern sends us the illustrated catalogue of the Salon of 1887, in which we remark the increased number of memorandum sketches, owing to the greatly diminished scale admitted. There is the usual range of subjects—the thousand and one excuses for the nude; war scenes, but these equally distributed in time and not promotive of *revanche;* portraits in the greatest abundance, but few striking—one, Boulanger on horseback, besides a portrait bust in which the most is done for his common physiognomy; literary topics, like Musset's 'Namouna' at one extreme, and Renan's 'Abbesse de Jouarre' at the other; and such repulsive delineations as a clinic at the Salpêtrière, or cholera morbus. We notice the work of one American painter, "St. Genevieve," by C. S. Pearce, and there may be others. The English rendering of the titles exhibits its customary infelicities. Two snake-charmers, "Charmeuses," become "Bewitching Women," while "Une Charmeuse" is "A Charmeress." The types are responsible for "The Soul Deperling to Heavens."

The article of greatest popular interest in the last number of *Petermann's Mitteilungen* is on the Yakuts, by Prof. Ed. Petri, who controverts the assertions made by Vámbéry and others that this most northern representative of the Turcoman race is dying out, though he describes their condition as extremely wretched and a disgrace to the Russian Government, which has done little or nothing for them. He also vigorously defends them from the accusation of a lack of poetic feeling, and gives an interesting analysis of one of their popular tales, "The Bride-Quest [*Brautfahrt*] of Jurung-Uolans." It contains many religious and mythological allusions. Other articles are by J. Menges, on the caravan route between Suakin and Kassala; and by Dr. Th. Posewitz, on the island of Blitong.

The May Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society opens with a paper on the "Alpine Regions of Alaska," by Lieut. Seton-Karr, who dwells especially upon the admirable field for research into glacial action which Alaska presents. This is followed by an account of the explorations of Dr. Junker in the country to the west of the upper Nile, by Mr. J. T. Wills, who indicates to some extent the character of the country and the people through which the Emin Pasha Relief Expedition may pass.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for May contains an article on the "Landslopes Separating Continents," with especial reference to the West African coast, by Mr. J. Y. Buchanan. Among other peculiarities of the ocean bed, he describes an immense submarine cañon extending from the mouth of the Congo some thirty-five miles into the ocean. Here it is six miles wide and 3,000 feet in depth below the surrounding ocean bed. Its origin he attributes, not to erosion, but to the upbuilding of its sides by the river silt. Mr. Carmichael contributes another article on the "Place-Names of Iona."

The extracts from the journal of Benjamin Constant, which have been the most attractive

feature of the *Revue Internationale* during the first three months of the present year, are now brought to a close, but a new series, also from the family papers of his relatives, is offered to us in its pages. In the number for April 10 are the first eighteen of the "Letters of Benjamin Constant to his Family," which a note of the editors of the *Revue* informs us are published through the kindness of Mme. de Loys de Chandieu, and of her son, the Marquis de Chandieu, a descendant of one of Benjamin Constant's maternal aunts. The recipient of the greater part of the letters was another of the Chandieu sisters, the Countess of Nassau, to whom Constant wrote faithfully and untiringly until her death in 1814. All but three of the letters in the present number are addressed to her, most of them during the early months of the year 1794, the last two being written immediately after his arrival in Paris in May of that year. The first of the series is one to his aunt, Mme. de Loys, when he was between twelve and thirteen years old. It is one of the astonishingly precocious productions of the young Constant, who never appears older or more worldly than in his very youthful letters.

The *Nouvelle Revue* announces a new series of papers by the anonymous and composite personage who signs, with the name of Comte Paul Vasili, the gossiping and at times indiscreet revelations concerning society in the various European capitals which have appeared in the pages of the *Revue* during the past two years, under the titles "La Société de Londres—de Berlin—de Saint Pétersbourg," etc. The new series, to be called "La Société de Paris," will make several volumes when completed. The first of these is to be 'Le Grand Monde.' While 'La Société de Rome' was appearing, M. Henri des Houx was seriously suspected of at least furnishing materials for the ubiquitous Comte Paul Vasili, as other literary and political persons had been before suspected of doing for the preceding works of the series. The present opinion, however, seems to be that various persons supply the material, which some one, probably Mme. Adam (Juliette Lamber), works over into a systematic account.

The late O. H. Marshall's 'Historical Writings relating to the Early History of the West' (Albany, N. Y.: Joel Munsell's Sons) is a volume possessing great merit in its way. Marshall was a careful, industrious, and conscientious investigator; and though all his work was of a local and special nature, it is of very considerable value. His papers on the expedition of Denonville against the Senecas, and that of Champlain against the Onondagas, are favorable examples, as is also his account of the expedition of Céloron de Bienville down the Ohio. He generally combines a personal examination of localities with a close study of original documents, partly from originals in the Archives of Paris, which he visited a few years ago. He had a good knowledge of French and a well-grounded distrust of translations.

Had we any title to be counted among the "many friends" of Mrs. Amos R. Little, we fear we should not have joined in their urgent solicitation that she should describe her tour of the globe in 1883-4 in a quarto volume of 476 pages ('The World as We Saw It.' Boston: Cupples & Co.). However, let us be thankful for the handsome manner in which the volume is got up, and for the illustrations — some kind of phototype — which are excellent and unhackneyed. Persistent readers of books of travel will have little to learn from this lady's journals. Her route to the East was by way of New Zealand, Tasmania, Sydney, and Port Darwin. The great earthquake has, since Mrs. Little was in New Zealand, made havoc of the Hot Lake region and of the terraces that she visited. It is reported, however, that a new White Terrace has been discovered not far from those destroyed. It is not yet very large, nor has it the glittering fretwork and lovely coral-lipped basins that characterized the old terraces, but, as it is in process of formation, these will probably in time make their appearance.

A philological curiosity has been published in Russia for the use of Russians—a pocket glossary in 100 languages. Of these 70 are spoken in the Russian Empire itself, 10 in Central Asia, 10 in various Slavic States, and 10 in other European countries.

—The *Atlantic* for June contains two articles of special interest to students of the relation of political theories to history. Mr. A. L. Lowell traces the rise and transformations of the "Theory of the Social Compact" as the source of civil government. He finds it first in old ecclesiastical Hooker, and follows it through Hobbes, Locke, Rousseau, the Constitution of Massachusetts, and Kant, with brief abstracts of their doctrines and a strong grasp on the course of history. He shows that a different disposition of mind in the thinker and the particular set of political circumstances in his horizon made the theory a ready servant of absolutism, democracy, revolution, or transcendental ethics, as the case might be; and one ends the article with a very strong sense of how much easier it is for men of the best brain to decide rightly on the practical problem of their time than to give a reason for so doing that shall be of general application. In a day when knowledge is running so much into detail as now, such an article as this, with its broad views held simple and whole by means of strict definitions, and touching solidly whatever it touches at all, is a very notable paper. The second instance of the relation of political theory to history is given in Mr. John Fiske's discussion of the debate on the Executive Power in the Federal Convention. It is a commonplace that the mode of election of our President is not at all that contemplated by the Constitution. On the general question Mr. Fiske emphasizes the fact that Sherman made a suggestion which, if followed out, would have framed the Presidency on the modern ministerial idea instead of on the ancient monarchical idea; and he ascribes the error, as he thinks it, to the absence of definite political facts to govern and direct the argument, and to lack of an understanding of the ministerial development of the English Constitution, which had been obscured by the accident of George III.'s personal rule. He declares plainly against our system and in favor of the English. The executive might have been made, he says, "what it ought to be, the arm of the legislature, instead of a separate and coördinate power." He seems to hold the same view as to the judiciary, likewise; he accepts the popular will expressed by a parliament immediately responsible as the whole of authority. This has no more weight than a private view; but the history of the theory of the fathers about the executive, and the way events dealt with their schemes and arguments, make an instructive lesson in politics.

—In *Harper's Bazar* for May 7, "T. W. H." cites certain figures in support of his position that American literature is not only progressing, but is increasing in a ratio rivalling that of the material progress of the country. The *Athenæum*, in its issue of the same date, comments on the *Bazar* statement as follows: "The number of books copyrighted in the United States last year was 11,124 as against 2,076 in 1880. So says 'T. W. H.,' an accurate writer; but we should like to know whether the number for 1886 (more than twice that of English copyrights in the same year) is exclusive of works produced on this side of the Atlantic." The *Athenæum's* question is partly answered by the statement that every issue of the "Seaside" (and, we believe, other "libraries") claims copyright; but, aside from this, the assertions of "T. W. H." cannot be maintained. In the first place, the number of books copyrighted in 1880 was not 2,076, but 7,108; hence "the *suddenness* of expansion" which he mentions does not exist. Then, as regards his comparison of the two countries in respect to the number of copyrights, we should like to know where he got his English figures. So far as we know, the statistics of the British Copyright Office are not published, and we suspect that "T. W. H." used not these, but the figures of the compiler of the English Catalogue. But the figures of the Catalogue are not only exclusively of books, but of published books; those of our Copyright Office are of titles entered, which entry is often not followed by publication. Moreover, of the entries classified as "books," probably one-half are "books" only in a legal sense, being telegrams in newspapers, pamphlets descriptive of every variety of article in trade, from silverware to quack medicines, blank-books and forms in immense numbers, as well as "dime" and "half-dime" literature. We cannot claim accuracy on this point, but it is our belief that none of these would figure in the statistics, if accessible, of the British Copyright Office; they certainly do not figure in the English Catalogue.

—The article in the April number of the *English Historical Review* to which most readers will turn first is Mr. Gladstone's review of Greville's latest Journals, covering the years from 1852 to 1860. A survey of this period by Mr. Gladstone is a valuable contribution at first hand to our knowledge of history. The principal subject covered by this article is the Crimean War, with regard to which it expresses the judgment that it "will hold in history no dishonorable place." The reconstitution of Italy and the commercial treaty with France are also treated at considerable length. The opening article of the number is by Mr. Thomas Hodgkin, upon Visigothic Spain—a subject which he is especially qualified to treat. In the condition of Spain during this period, he says in conclusion, "we see not only the historical preparation for feudalism, but also its historical justification." Our countryman, Mr. Henry C. Lea, has an article on a subject peculiarly his own—"Confiscation for Heresy in the Middle Ages." There is sometimes a disposition, in writers of excessive liberality, to apologize for persecution on the ground of the sincerity and single-mindedness of the persecutors. Mr. Lea shows, however, by a cool analysis of events, that "of course it would be unjust to say that greed and thirst for plunder were the 'impelling motives of the Inquisition'; but we are perfectly safe in asserting that, but for the gains to be made out of fines and confiscations, its work would have been much less thorough, and that it would have sunk into comparative insignificance as soon as the first frantic zeal of bigotry had exhausted itself." The fourth article is by Mr. O'Connor Morris, upon Turenne. The Notes and Documents are of unusual interest, containing a very long examination of the Semiramis legend by Prof. Robertson Smith, and another, by D. G. Hogarth, upon the "Deification of Alexander the Great."

—Mr. A. H. Bullen has added to his edition of the old dramatists the works of John Marston, in three volumes (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). In mechanical execution this edition is all that a standard work should be—convenient in size, beautifully printed, built to last, and at the same time inexpensive; but the editor does not show that improvement upon acquaintance which might be expected from a growing student. Mr

Bullen seems to be in haste. He has already edited many books, but he has not yet elaborated any thoroughly scholarly plan worthy of one ambitious to be a successor of Dyce. Misprints are common, and they are by no means all listed in the "errata," which unfailingly accompany his books. Other errors, rather to be classed as oversights than misprints, are frequently to be found, as, for instance, such persistent ascription of the speeches to a wrong character as occurs in "The Fawn,"i, 2, 70-81. The best of editors cannot avoid slight mistakes occasionally, but a large number of these indicate carelessness. The lack of system in the notes is a worse defect; sometimes they are unnecessarily full and sometimes they are altogether to seek. Cross-references, without further explanation, are excusable when made to the work itself, but to other books they should be made sparingly, in explaining words at least. The general impression one gets from Mr. Bullen's notes is that if anything occurred to him about the passage he put it in, and if nothing came to mind he said nothing; one perceives quite plainly limitations to his reading and to his memory. An unpleasant trait, as it seems to us, is the familiar and colloquial tone and extraneous matter that sometimes intrude upon the text, as when, in connection with an emendation in "The Insatiate Countess," he has to mention Mycerinus, and adds, "I saw his bones this afternoon at Bloomsbury!" Such remarks in books of this sort are impertinences. It may be excused to Dr. Furnivall that he lately incorporated his son's bicycle record as a part of the dedication of a Shakspere Quarto-Facsimile, but it is to be hoped that such personalities will not become an example to young editors. It must be added, too, that Mr. Bullen's notes are certainly exposed to the charge brought against Gibbon, of making learning a cover for grossness. A considerable acquaintance with Mr. Bullen's work has convinced us that his editing can be amended in carefulness, system, and taste; but his services are very considerable; he is conscientious in investigation, and his texts, in spite of blunders, are excellent. His faults are principally annoyances.

—In the present case we have an edition of Marston which brings within easy reach all the works with which, as playwright or satirist, his name was memorably connected; and of them "Eastward Ho," in which Jonson and Chapman coöperated, is one of the great comedies of London manners. "The Malcontent" is the play he himself lives by, and the farcical scenes of "The Dutch Courtesan" are good citizen-drama. For Marston's other work, excepting as a part of the history of our stage, we have but slight regard; it is not great, and one can say no more for it than that it is Elizabethan—it had a kind of greatness thrust upon it. It is usually foul and often brutal, and makes one feel the grossness of the audience. It plays, as is easily seen, better than it reads, and to us its most interesting trait is its contemporary echo of Shakspere, which is frequent, and is especially instructive as to the latter's popularity and literary influence. Marston seems to have been an embittered man, better than his fate, and he was a clever dramatist, having the stage and the audience in his eye, and ever alert for a good hard blow at an enemy, particularly Jonson; but the poetry was left out of him, and his intellectual parts were too exclusively satirical in their operation. The enthusiasm of an editor, especially of one who works in the dreary rhodomontade, crudity, and filth of the early drama, leads Mr. Bullen to overpraise; but when he attempts the critic, he is far less successful than when he keeps to his editorial task. Lamb's name has shielded a vast amount of nonsense about these minor dramatists, and Swinburne is making himself responsible for a good deal more; between the two, Mr. Bullen has fallen into bad judgment and an unreined style. It would not be the worst thing that could happen should Time grant nine-tenths of Marston's prayer, and give that proportion of his works to oblivion.

—Perhaps, after all, the disgraceful scenes which recently led to the withdrawal of "Lohengrin" at Paris after more than 200,000 francs had been subscribed for the first ten performances, will do more to insure a great future for Wagner's music in France than an uninterrupted series of performances would have done for the present. They have thoroughly disgusted all educated Parisians, and ranged them practically on the side of the Wagnerites against the Chauvinists. In 1861, after the failure of "Tannhäuser," Berlioz wrote to his son that "Wagner, on going out, was treated on the staircase like a scamp, an insolent fellow, an idiot. . . . *The press is unanimous for his extermination.*" "This whole 'Tannhäuser' affair," writes M. Jullien, "from whatever point of view we regard it, is anything but honorable for us," and he mentions that only four of the critics—Baudelaire, Weber, D'Ortigue, and Franck-Marie—showed any sense of justice on that occasion. But in the "Lohengrin" affair all the respectable newspapers were on the side of Lamoureux, and resented the gutter censorship of the *gamins* in art matters. Several things have contributed to this change of attitude: Wagner's death, a spreading knowledge that he was not such a swallower of Frenchmen as he had been supposed to be, and a rapidly growing taste for his music, thanks partly to the compositions of his French imitators, and partly to familiarity with his own works acquired at the concerts of Lamoureux, Colonne, and Pasdeloup. As a writer in the *Temps* remarks: "The fact that the ashes of Rossini left Paris at the moment when Wagner made his entrance, was an accident, but this accident is the symbol of an interesting truth: Italian music has ceased to give us pleasure, German music is triumphant. And it would be wrong to think that this victory is only apparent; that it is the work of a few fanatics and music-maniacs, or a caprice of the wealthy classes, consenting to be bored for the sake of fashion and in order to get the reputation of being intelligent music-lovers. The Sunday concerts are besieged by a motley crowd of which the *petites gens* form the majority, students, shop-clerks, office-clerks; all these come with worshipful fidelity to hear with concentrated attention this mystic music, which at first frightened them a little, and into which they now plunge with ecstasy." M. Jullien, in an appendix to his Wagner biography, gives an account of what has been done at these Sunday concerts for Wagner's music. The latest success is the Flower Girl Scene from "Parsifal," which had to be repeated. Other specifically German composers are also coming to the foreground in Paris. The Société Nationale recently gave Bach's Christmas Oratorio, and (*mirabile dictu*) one number, a chorale, was "encored." At the Opéra as well as at the Comique, Weber's "Oberon" is in preparation; and the list might be easily enlarged.

—Concerning "Lohengrin," a few more details may be added from the foreign papers. It seems that some commotion was excited in Germany by the report that Kapellmeister Levy of Munich, who had been invited by Lamoureux to attend the dress rehearsal in Paris, had remarked that the performance was "a humiliation to Germany." Lamoureux consequently wrote a public letter in which he explained that Levy simply intended to compliment him on having given Wagner's score complete, whereas at most German opera-houses extensive cuts are made. The correspondent of the Berlin *Boersen-Courier* states that Lamoureux's orchestra of ninety was admirable, consisting, as it did, of some of the best men of the two Paris opera-houses, with the addition of talented pupils from the Conservatoire. He adds that "the *mise-en-scène* was greatly admired in Paris. We Germans are accustomed to something better." The principal singers—Devriès, Van Dyck, Blauwaert, and Duvivier—are all well spoken of; but it was regretted that, after more than twenty rehearsals, the rôle of the *King* was taken away from a competent German and given to an incompetent French singer, for fear of arousing "patriotic" suggestions. For the same reason, Nuitter removed from the text all allusions to Germany. Difficulties of copyright made it necessary to retain Nuitter's translation instead of Victor Wilder's, in which the words are more carefully adapted to the accents of the music. Wilder also translated "Die Walküre" for Brussels, where it has just met with such extraordinary success. There is every reason to believe that the Parisians, when they read that the authorities at Rome have just renewed their contract with the manager of the opera on condition of his giving "Die Meistersinger" at an early date; when they read of the great success of German opera in New York, and that twenty-three performances of "Die Walküre" were given at Brussels this season—will imperatively demand some more of this music which Alphonse Daudet finds "au-dessus de tout."

A FRENCH CONSTITUTIONALIST ON THE ENGLISH CONSTITUTION.

Le Développement de la Constitution et de la Société Politique en Angleterre. Par E. Boutmy, Membre de l'Institut, Directeur de l'École Libre des Sciences Politiques. Paris: E. Plon, Nourrit et Cie. 1887.

A REVIEWER of Boutmy's essay on the development of the English Constitution has before him a task which, if pleasant, is also difficult. He must describe, if possible, the qualities of thought and expression which mark out our author as a writer of undoubted originality, not to say of genius. He must, in the next place, give the intelligent readers of the *Nation* some idea of the kind of results attained by a thinker who brings a fresh mind, stored with wide learning, to a topic which, though so often worked, is still so unexhausted as is the Constitution of England.

Boutmy's genius is best described by the statement that he is the most brilliant representative of that school of French legists and historians who combine the erudition of Germany with the lucidity of France. To call our author the representative of a school is in no way to detract from his individuality. His writings bear that indescribable impress of personal character which gives to every page of a book, such, for example, as De Tocqueville's 'Ancien Régime,' a charm that nothing else can replace. It is, in fact, because he is so distinctly not a mere collector of information, but a living author, that Boutmy represents so completely the best traits of a band of scholars from whom France and Europe must hope much. It is hardly possible to conceive that such a writer stands alone. The whole tone of his writings sufficiently proves that he is stirred by feelings and inspired by aims common to a class. We shall hardly be mistaken in the conjecture that Boutmy, together with Glasson and others, belongs to a school who have determined to restore to their country that reputation for thorough, thoughtful workmanship which has been, to say the least, obscured by the acknowledged preëminence of French authorship in

lucidity of style and in epigrammatic form of expression.

The truth appears to be, and it is a truth well worth attention, that in one department, at least, of thought—in the province, that is to say, of legal and historical study—Frenchmen are preparing once again to astonish and instruct the world by exhibiting that capacity for putting forth fresh life after crushing calamities which is the most marked trait of French history. However this may be, the one thing which is absolutely certain is that Boutmy has, by combining erudition, lucidity of expression, and insight, given a new impulse to the comparative study of constitutions. His earlier book, 'Études de Droit Constitutionnel,' contained, in three or four hundred pages, a greater number of important observations on the contrast between Continental and English or American constitutionalism than any work with which we are acquainted. From the nature of things, a great deal of it consisted of matters which could not have any novelty for Englishmen or Americans. But for all this, these Studies in Constitutional Law brought out, in a very striking light, contrasts between what may be called the French and the English idea of a constitution, which might easily escape the notice of persons who, if well acquainted with England or America, had never studied the constitutions of the European Continent.

What is true of the 'Études de Droit Constitutionnel' applies with even greater force to Boutmy's new book, 'Le Développement de la Constitution et de la Société Politique en Angleterre.' Here again we have displayed thorough knowledge of his subject. Hallam, Stubbs, Freeman, Gneist, Pollock are all as familiar to Boutmy as they are, or should be, to every educated Englishman. He has done much more than analyze the works of these writers: he has appropriated and assimilated all their best ideas. He has seized as firmly, for instance, as Gneist, the truth that the growth of the Constitution cannot be separated from the growth of the political society of which the Constitution (in the limited sense of that word) is merely a part. He never forgets for a moment the connection, which Stubbs and Freeman impress in every page upon their readers, between the immense power originally possessed by the English Crown and the subsequent growth of English freedom. He has followed out the characteristics of the English land law as sketched by Prof. Pollock, and now, it may be assumed, understands the mysteries of English manors and English settlements as thoroughly as does his teacher. Boutmy has, in short, achieved what hardly any other writer on the Constitution has rarely accomplished, the combination, namely, of the legal with the historical aspect of constitutional history. Nor has he stopped at this point. He has attempted, at least, to comprehend within his view the economical no less than the political and social sides of English life. If in some degree he is perhaps less to be trusted on economical than on legal or political questions, the reason is that his authorities are not quite so trustworthy as are the authorities on whom he can rely when dealing with history or law which is strictly constitutional. It may, perhaps, be doubted whether Mr. Toynbee's speculations, however ingenious, were not inevitably too immature to support the inferences drawn from them by Boutmy; and Arthur Arnold's political principles may, a critic cannot but feel, have made him not quite an unbiassed witness on the condition of English land or of English laborers.

The credit, however, to Mr. Boutmy of having studied writers who might naturally seem to lie out of his path, far outweighs any discredit which the most unfair criticism could attach to him for having occasionally relied upon guides whom an Englishman might feel to be possibly rash or prejudiced. It would, moreover, be the greatest mistake to suppose that our French author brings nothing to his subject but what he has gained from the books he has studied. He contributes a lucidity of style certainly not gained either from Gneist or Stubbs; he has a vivid perception, which could hardly be attained by any one but a Frenchman, of the instructive contrasts between the course of English and of French civilization; he exhibits in its highest form that French capacity for generalization which, if it leads an ignorant man into absurd blunders, is, when combined with knowledge, nothing less than a keen eye for the essential features of great subjects.

We have all learned from Gneist and Stubbs that the overwhelming power of the early Norman kings checked the disruptive tendencies of feudalism, endowed England with an administrative system far in advance of its age, established the rule of equal law, and, by compelling the nobles to become the leaders of the people, laid the foundation on which were ultimately built up the liberties of England. On this topic Boutmy must of necessity follow his predecessors. But it is characteristic of his genius that he has one or two new and valuable remarks to make on a subject which, it might well have been fancied, was worn down to triteness. He, for example, emphasizes the effect produced by England being an island: "The sentiment of national unity [*solidarité séparée*] springs up and acquires force far more rapidly in an island than in a continental country." The consciousness of a separate national existence hence grew up in England centuries before it was known to France, or, indeed, we may say, before there was a France in which it could be known. Even at the time of the Reformation, there was serious danger lest the monarchy should be dismembered by the wars of religion. "The French nation needed still to be created [*était à faire*] in the seventeenth century. She was no longer a federation; she was not yet a separate people." France, in short, when she met the perils of the great religious revolution, had still to encounter difficulties which in England had been overcome in the time of John and earlier. Nor did the smallness of the country tell in favor of national progress only by intensifying national feeling: it increased the power of the Crown, which, in the Middle Age, meant the authority of the law. Feudal monarchies were weak because the authority of the Crown extended nominally over territories too vast to be really subject to its power. In England the kingdom was small, manageable—if one may use the expression, "handy." The county, the largest administrative division, equalled on an average not more than half a modern French department, and was a small district indeed compared to a French province. It was, too, as Boutmy points out, a happy circumstance for English freedom that Scotland was not added by Edward to his kingdom. Such an addition would, it is likely enough, have led to the creation of vassals powerful enough to balance the authority of the Crown. No doubt other writers have noticed the effect on the progress of English civilization produced by the insular character and the smallness of England; but no one with whom we are acquainted has placed the matter in so clear a light as this French critic, who understands England because at every moment he compares English institutions with the institutions of France.

The most original, if not always the soundest, part of our author's work is his statement and explanation of the paradox presented by English progress during the eighteenth century. The paradox is this. The period, as contrasted with the ages which preceded it, was one of apparent repose, not to say immobility. The religious contests of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries had ended; the political revolution which had led to the death of one king and to the exile of another, was closed. The tyranny of Charles and the ecclesiastical despotism of Laud were as dead as the Protectorate of Cromwell or the Westminster Assembly. Between 1689 and 1829 there occurred hardly any great constitutional change. Historians have naturally agreed to describe the eighteenth century, politically at least, and as compared specially with the seventeenth century, as a tame period of peace and conservatism. Yet if the matter be looked at from another point of view, to which Boutmy specially directs attention, the political turmoil of the seventeenth century was productive of far less real change than the political stagnation of the eighteenth. The Puritans attempted large changes in Church and State, and the Whigs of the Revolution finally put an end to all danger of royal despotism. But neither the Commonwealth nor the Whig leaders of 1689 attempted to effect social changes. The men of the eighteenth century, on the other hand, carried out, unconsciously, for the most part, a gigantic system of political or social revolution or reaction. They founded or extended the rule of the gentry—that is to say, of the titled and untitled landowners—throughout the country. The Parliament, under an elaborate system of party government, came to be mainly controlled by large parties led either directly or indirectly by the greatest landlords in the country. Politics became more and more a matter of family, and the contest between George the Third and the Whigs, though it broke down the predominant influence of the great Revolution families, and to a certain extent increased the influence of the rich mercantile classes, did not substantially affect the real established system of government. The yeomen, who had been a real power at the time of the great rebellion, dwindled away. Those of them who succeeded in the struggle for existence joined the class of large landowners; those who failed sold their land, increased the population of the towns, or emigrated to the colonies. Strict settlements had all the effect of entails, and the land fell more and more into the permanent possession of large landowners. The country laborers, meanwhile, became more and more dependent on the Poor Law, and the Poor Law was administered, like everything else throughout the country, by the magistrates, who systematically favored the extension of outdoor relief, and whose legal powers were constantly increased, while the checks on the exercise of these powers, which, in the time of the Tudors, had been a reality, were, by almost imperceptible changes in the law, made little better than a sham. The eighteenth century, in short, was in England marked by the gradual transformation of the Government into something like an "oligarchy"—if the word oligarchy can be applied to a class so numerous as that of the gentry.

The causes, moreover, of this change are not hard to trace. The diminution of the regal power prevented the growth of any "administration," in the foreign sense of that word, which could supervise or check the exercise of the powers lodged in magistrates or in small corporations. The smaller towns were absorbed in the country; the large cities which now fill the north of England, were only coming into existence, and had no share in the political representation of the country. The yeomanry were turning, under the stress of economical causes, into farmers; the great merchants connected themselves by marriage with the landed nobility, and, from the time of Pitt, at any rate, found easy access to the peerage. The manufacturers were not yet a power. The city artisans and the country laborers enjoyed personal freedom and parish relief,

but as a body took no part in politics. The country, moreover, flourished, and the mechanical inventions which, by raising up a great manufacturing population, were destined to cause the political fall of the gentry, were for the time beneficial to their power because they tended to increase the wealth of the landowners.

A more masterly sketch of constitutional and social changes of which many eminent writers on the English Constitution do not appreciate the importance, can hardly be found than the picture given of it in the third part of Boutmy's treatise. Two criticisms on his views are allowable. He is apt, like most Frenchmen, to attribute, in language at least, rather more to conscious design on the part of statesmen or classes, and rather less to the unconscious pursuit by all human beings of their obvious interests, than facts warrant. Not a single statesman, Whig or Tory, contemplated, we suspect, the transformation of the English Constitution from a more or less popular to a more or less oligarchical system of government. Scarcely justice, again, is done by our author to the real justification for the authority assumed or exercised by the gentry. They were in the main the rulers of the country because they were, on the whole, the class best fitted to govern it. Tried by the only fair standard, that is, by a comparison with the system of government existing during the eighteenth century in other countries, the English oligarchy are entitled to the verdict that they ruled the country with skill. England prospered, personal freedom was secured, and the body of magistrates, in whom, as Boutmy points out, were vested really vast powers, were, though sometimes incapable, neither oppressive nor corrupt. It may, indeed, be doubted whether any men wielding power under very slight legal restraints have ever been more free from the vice of personal corruption than those justices of the peace whom novelists and satirists have agreed to deride. When Chatham and his son wished to reform the representation, their idea of improvement was to increase the weight of county representatives. Such a reform would, as events proved, not have met the necessities of the case. But we may assume that towards the end of the eighteenth century the county freeholders were the soundest and least corrupt part of the nation.

If, however, Boutmy has done a little less than absolute justice to the way in which the gentry exercised their authority, he has rendered an immense service to students of constitutional history by forcing on their attention an aspect of English institutions which we constantly overlook. A French constitutionalist naturally fails to see some things easily perceived by Englishmen; but Englishmen, on the other hand, may learn from a Frenchman like Boutmy many important and disregarded facts about the development of the English Constitution.

RECENT NOVELS.

The Feud of Oakfield Creek. A Novel of California Life. By Josiah Royce. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A Child of the Century. By John T. Wheelwright. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Two Gentlemen of Boston. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

Two Gentlemen of Gotham. By C. and C. Cassell & Co.

The Whole Truth. By J. H. Chadwick. Cassell & Co.

In One Town. By Edmund Downey. D. Appleton & Co.

The Strike in the B—— Mill: A Study. Ticknor & Co. [Round Robin Series.]

Lil Lorimer. By Theo Gift. D. Appleton & Co.

Victims. By Theo. Gift. Henry Holt & Co. [Leisure Hour Series.]

A Zealot in Tulle. By Mrs. Wildrick. D. Appleton & Co.

The Lovely Wang: A Bit of China. By Hon. Lewis Wingfield. [Leisure Hour Series.] Henry Holt & Co.

Baldine. By Karl Erdmann Edler. Translated from the German by the Earl of Lytton. Harper & Bros.

THE opportunities which a reader of current fiction may have of giving an hour or two of his time to the work of other than unskilled and frequently presumptuous writers, are, relatively speaking, only too rare. The immense quantity of trash that is thrown into the form of novels, and in some way provided with publisher and audience, is so noticeable that to even speak of it seems commonplace. It is not at all wonderful that we should have this vast stream of fiction, which can in no way be classed as literature, constantly flooding the book-stalls; yet, like some other plainly visible and unremarkable aspects of the time, it is regrettable, and must be, to some who look to fiction to become a great teacher, discouraging. To these latter, and to all who care for good work, 'The Feud of Oakfield Creek' will appeal strongly. Prof. Royce has made his novel one of California life, concerning which he can speak from the chair; and while the scenes and the mechanism of the story are so perfectly flavored with the soil that one feels distinctly enough the impossibility of detaching the lives of Escott and Eldon, of Margaret and Harold, from their environment, yet one at the same time realizes, even more distinctly, that the passions and natures of these people are true to humanity. What is better still, they are true to a phase of humanity which is neither degraded nor trivial, but which, though of necessity marked with error, is nevertheless essentially noble and high. We know of no instance in fiction where a love between man and woman, which could not exist and be given expression to within the bounds of honor, has been depicted with the quiet strength and delicacy, and with the entire absence of anything vicious or demoralizing, that characterizes the history of Margaret and Harold. Without sentimentality, one pities the pair, and looks on them leading their separate, sorrowful lives as creatures of an inevitable fate —too strong to be rolled in the mire, and only strengthened and chastened by their past. The story is not altogether sombre, however, though one might reasonably ask that a little more cheerfulness had been scattered here and there throughout a tale essentially sad. Alf Escott is the only really cheerful figure, and what one sees of him at first hand is very telling in its lightening effects; but the book is so largely a narrative in the past tense, and the incidents in Escott's life are so persistently unfortunate, that one thinks more on his broken existence and wasted talents than on the bravery, modesty, and evenne s—almost recklessness—of temper with which he bears ill-luck. But, for all that, there is a very strong personality about the man, a genuine integrity and independence that makes one have a kindly feeling toward him, even as a mere acquaintance.

It is because so great a part of the book is written in a narrative form, also, that there is only now and then occasion for anything more than the plain, straightforward, vigorous style that counts for so much in the admirableness of the whole work; but when there is occasion for a dramatic scene, it is always drawn with power and truth and (notwithstanding the appearance sometimes of gracefulness sacrificed for strength) *secundum artem.* In fact, the novel is sterling throughout. It is good in plot and workmanship, and in the portrayal and conception of character; it is natural and lifelike, and it is interesting. It is all this not now and then merely, but continually, and with an even, level temper which looks as if the writer had kept carefully within the limits of what was positively attainable. One gets an idea, that is to say, that the next novel one may have the good fortune to receive from the same hand will be even better than this one.

'A Child of the Century' is another novel which is better than the average; but it is not so good as it ought to be, nor would it be fair to compare it too closely with 'The Feud of Oakfield Creek.' The tone is much less earnest, for one thing, and the impression of trivial nothingness which the admirers of an older school of novel-writers complain so much of nowadays, is rather strongly given. And it may be said generally that when a writer's endeavors to be brilliant, or witty, or epigrammatic—to make airy nothingness charming in itself—become noticeable, success at the same time becomes impossible. Mr. Wheelwright introduces his hero at the age of thirty-five; yet, if the election to Congress were omitted, one would never take him to be other than the ordinary hero of from anywhere between twenty-two and twenty-eight, who is only a hero by courtesy because of his place in the cast. A child of the century may, in the restricted sense of a definition, be one who is wholly commonplace, who is tolerably honest, who talks intelligently of Dante for years and then resolves in vain to read his poem, and who, above all, takes a steamer for Europe as ordinary mortals take a horse-car; he may be one, to quote Clough's line from Mr. Wheelwright's title-page, among the

"Feeble and restless youths, born to inglorious days."

But because the class thus defined is so situated as to give a certain color to much of what might be called society literature, one is not therefore to conclude that true heroism has died out of the world, nor that plain living and high thinking are altogether gone out of fashion. The scenes of the novel, like the conversations, are somewhat fragmentary, and skip about from country to country and city to city with true modern capriciousness, and some of them—such as the strike in the Valley Iron Works or Cyrus Penniman's breach of trust—are unnecessary and distracting. There is one very unfortunate quotation of Miss O'Hara's from Swinburne which is out of character and taste.

Two anonymous novels, 'Two Gentlemen of Boston' and 'Two Gentlemen of Gotham,' are somewhat alike as well in the artificiality and pretentiousness with which they are written as in their names. The former, one can venture to guess, is by a woman, and, for impossible situations, overdrawn characters, magical friendships, and the whole machinery of opportune deaths and sudden illness, can be recommended to them that like the mildly sensational. There is such a confusion of persons and places, and the "two gentlemen" have so little which identifies them with any special locality, that Boston might be any one of half-a-dozen different cities by merely changing the name of a street here and there. 'Two Gentlemen of Gotham' seems to have been written in partnership, and partly for the purpose of showing how apt the writers could be at making quotations. Percy Aylmer is something of a prig, though he was evidently drawn for an admirable Crichton. Some of his dissertations do not sound particularly fresh or original, and even the cultured Mr. Vere—whose portrait might with justice be objected to as personal and smacking too much of journalistic pen-pictures—does not despise an illustration or a story because it happens to be an old friend. Simple-

hearted Dick Twyffert, too, must have unconsciously remembered Goethe's Autobiography and Lili's ruse of "brushing," when he shattered the Sèvres vase in his predicament. Altogether, the book is more a reminiscence of other books than a product of thought and observation.

'The Whole Truth' is a study of an exceptional phase of character, which, developed under morbid conditions and portrayed by means of incidents and combinations highly improbable and melodramatic, serves no good purpose either in life or in art. One is never more strongly impressed with the fact that it takes more than a good plot or a single well-drawn character to make a novel of any worth than when reading stories like 'The Whole Truth,' in which the writer, seemingly confident that the mere strangeness of his conception will suffice to arouse all the sympathies and emotions that are necessary to his end, neglects the simpler but better and more difficult methods of his art.

Mr. Downey, on the other hand, is to be blamed for making too much of unimportant things. Not that he gives them too much weight in the evolution of his tale, but rather that he gives them too much space when they have nothing at all to do with the story. The result can only be fragmentary and disappointing.

The subject of strikes is just now so general that one is not surprised to meet with it in fiction. While the writer of 'The Strike in the B—— Mill' has not signally succeeded either in producing a worthy novel or in shedding any new light on the question of labor and capital, he has nevertheless shown a fairness of temper and a kindliness of spirit that will insure the success of his book's purpose. This, as modestly expressed in the preface, is merely to emphasize in the minds of his readers the evils and dangers attendant upon certain manifestations of the present day in this country.

Theo. Gift still shows the rapid and skilful hand which makes novel-writing almost a matter of mere manual labor, and turns out three volumes of properly balanced love and hate, mystery, jealousy, and surprise as neatly as a moulder makes a cast. Neither 'Lil Lorimer' nor 'Victims' can be praised as showing anything higher than a great facility for stringing episodes and using adjectives, together with a knack of character painting and a knowledge of the value of contrasts. The former is by far the better of the two, and is here and there delightfully fresh and breezy, especially in the South American scenes; but the unnecessary tragedy and depressing sadness of the latter cannot, even by the buoyancy of the style and the hurried action of the story, be sufficiently relieved.

There is an excellent tone of earnestness about Mrs. Wildrick's book, a sincerity and conscientious effort to honestly do the best possible, which is all the more gratifying to meet with because it is so rare. The novel, one might say, is a novel for its own sake; and while it does not turn out a sermon, still there is nothing in it but what is elevating. The influence of romance is perhaps always a refining one, and there is a good deal of the romance of a past century woven in with a very pretty tale of the present one.

Books on China are already so numerous that tourists in the Middle Kingdom find it well, on their return home, to cast their notes in the form of sermons, essays, or novels. Considering the mass of weighty documents in the library on China, this course is rather to be commended than condemned. It need not necessarily spoil a story, though there is danger of overloading the warp and woof of plot and dialogue with too heavy embroidery of unnecessary particulars. The novel before us is as full of brilliant color, almost to gaudiness, as a butterfly's wings. The author's note-book during a sojourn in Foh-kien province became, with jottings of native scenery and customs, and Chinese and foreigner's gossip, as full as a larval grub. Then, hieing to the seclusion of Nikko, Japan, the chrysalis state was entered, and now we have the gorgeous novel. The story illustrates Chinese marriage customs, wherein it is easily possible for old knaves to outwit their relatives-in-law by substituting the ugly for the pretty; and, under stress of temporary need, the wrong sex for the right one—tricks which are common in Chinese Asia, and as old as Laban and Jacob. The Lovely Wang, a charming maiden and a noble character, thus falls unwittingly in love with a male scapegrace of a Hung, who has been introduced in place of his lovely sister into the sick-room of her (Wang's) brother. By a counter-deception practised by Wang's father, the lad and maiden, already in love with each other, are married. Hung junior then flies to Peking, and, in straits of poverty, sells himself as a slave. Meanwhile, the sick boy Wang dies, and the "Lovely Wang," his sister, finds out that she is actually wedded to her supposed sister-in-law, who is a man. She goes to Peking, finds and redeems him, and all ends happily. The novel is a clever production, full of pictures of Chinese scenery, but rather too full of the port-gossip of foreigners' hongs and tiffins, with plenty of fun, facetious description of domestic life, and accounts of the fox superstition and of slaves and their redeemers. In short, it is a lively story for a summer's day, and an easy way of enjoying a peep into Chinese domestic life.

"One can be profound without a great number of details, and subtle without a great many words," says Canon Joseph Roux, in his 'Nouvelles Pensées.' A more exact description of the style of the writer whom the Earl of Lytton has introduced to the English-reading public, by his translation of Karl Erdmann Edler's three stories—'Baldine,' 'Notre Dame des Flots,' and 'A Journey to the Grossglockner Mountain'—it would be difficult to find. Nothing is lacking to render the charm of these simple yet profound stories supreme. Plot, dialogue, description, are all that could be asked, and they are couched in exquisite prose. Without being in the least sketchy, they leave much for the reader to fill in from his own heart and sympathies, and the delicate art of the writer is as convincingly displayed in this respect as in that portion of his tales which he has expressed in words. The reader instantly comprehends what is required of him, and it is only when he reaches the end of the volume that he realizes how much has lain between the lines, and what a triumph the author has scored in guiding him so deftly and imperceptibly to supply it out of the fulness of his own nature, instead of himself giving utterance to it. An outline of the plots of these three life tragedies would convey but a feeble idea of their dramatic, poetic, and romantic worth, which the reader must obtain for himself at first hand. Their artistic value is well set forth in a preface by the translator, who will, it is to be hoped, afford the world a further opportunity of studying so refreshing a writer. That the translation is an entirely adequate one, is a matter of course. If there is any criticism to be made upon it, it is that some of the author's sentences are amplified or rounded out, though not at all to their injury. It is possible that the different editions may vary to this extent, and this theory is the best to adopt, in view of the perfection of workmanship.

A Handbook to Dante. By Giovanni A. Scartazzini. Translated from the Italian, with notes and additions, by Thomas Davidson. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1887. 16mo, pp. viii., 315.

THE object of this volume is, in the words of the translator, "to furnish intending students of Dante's works with the necessary preparatory information, historical, bibliographical, biographical, and literary." Scartazzini's edition of the 'Divine Comedy' is so good as to afford assurance that any work of this sort from his hand will be of value. But the Handbook is fitted rather to be a companion to the student than an introduction to the study of Dante. The information contained in it is so multifarious as to be likely, in some part at least, to be confusing to a student at the outset, and to become of interest and service to him only when he has made some advance in knowledge of the wide field of study. To every such student the book, in either language, may be confidently recommended.

The translation is moderately well done, but it bears marks of haste and of occasional unscholarly carelessness. For instance, on page 7 we read, "It having occurred to Leonardo Bruni d'Arezzo . . . that Boccaccio had written of the life and character of Dante as if he had been writing about Filocopo, Filostrato, or Fiametta, made [*sic*] up his mind for his own pleasure to write anew the life of Dante." The sentence, correctly translated, should read, "As it seemed to Leonardo Bruni d'Arezzo that Boccaccio had written of the life and character of Dante as if he had been writing his 'Filocopo,' his 'Filostrato,' or his 'Fiametta' [that is, as if he had been writing a romance, for these are the names of three well-known romances of Boccaccio], he undertook," etc. Again, on page 30, Mr. Davidson gives us the following unintelligible sentence: "He [Dante] succeeded by assiduous study in attaining such a knowledge of the divine essence, and of the other separate intelligences, as cannot be comprehended here below by human powers." Properly translated this sentence should read: "By assiduous study he came to know respecting the divine intelligence and the other separate intelligences whatever may be comprehended of them here below by human wit." Mr. Davidson's *cannot* is to be accounted for by his mistaking *ne*, "of them," for the negative particle *nè*.

Translating, on page 43, words of Leonardo Bruni, Mr. Davidson writes: "The cavalry of Arezzo conquered and overcame the company of Florentine cavalry in such a tempest that the latter, being (almost) surrounded and taken captive, were," etc. Here are two errors. Bruni's words are, "con tanta tempesta vinsero e soperchiarono la schiera de' cavalieri Fiorentini, che sbarrati e rotti," etc.—which mean, not "in such a tempest," but "with such fury of onset conquered and overcame the band of Florentine horse that the latter were" not "(almost) surrounded and taken captive," but "put in confusion and routed." In the original passage from Bruni, the word *rotti* is misprinted in Scartazzini's 'Manuale' as *tolti*, and the misprint accounts for one of Mr. Davidson's errors. Misprints have been a snare to him. On page 83 he states, that "in the sentence of condemnation pronounced on the 27th of January, 1302, it is said that Dante and his companions . . . were cited and summoned, according to law, by means of the Commune of Florence, to appear within a certain time." How they could be cited and summoned *by means of* the Commune does not seem evident. The words in the Manuale are *per mezzo di*, correctly translated "by means of," but the *mezzo* is a misprint for *messo*, as Mr. Davidson might have learned by looking at the original text of the condemnation, where he would have found *per nunptium* ("by a messenger") of the Commune.

There are many other errors similar to these, which detract from the confidence to be placed in the book, and which would be less surprising

in the work of a translator of less literary pretension than Mr. Davidson.

A more serious fault is to be found in the notes he has added to Scartazzini's text. Some of them, indeed, are excellent, supplying omissions or correcting errors in the original; but most of the longer ones are controversial, and have a tone of assurance, and even of arrogance, such as happily is less frequent in the writing of scholars to-day than it was some generations ago. In this Mr. Davidson follows the unfortunate example of Scartazzini himself, who, in the earlier part of his comment on the 'Divine Comedy,' exhibits an astonishing command over the resources of the Italian vocabulary of terms of literary abuse. But it would have been better had his translator taken note of Scartazzini's open repentance in the preface to the "Paradiso," where the first rule that he lays down for a supposed editor of a future edition of his comment is—*Si cancelli assolutamente ogni parola, ogni sillaba, di polemica che si troverà nei tre volumi.* Had he but regarded these words, Mr. Davidson might have spared us such phrases as, "All this is a piece of special pleading without any foundation whatever"; "absolutely groundless assertion"; "this conclusion is utterly illogical, unfair, and at variance with facts," and others of the same sort. In some instances Mr. Davidson has good ground for regarding Scartazzini's views as incorrect, and his arguments as feeble, but in others his own position is decidedly more questionable than the one which he attacks. An instance of this is his long and presumptuous note (pp. 132, 133) on the translation of three verses from one of Dante's eclogues, in which, as it appears to us, he is manifestly in the wrong, though in so saying we ally ourselves with many scholars who, according to Mr. Davidson, have committed "a gross blunder," and hold to what he esteems "a curious and amusing misunderstanding and mistranslation," than which he hardly knows any more so.

The proof-reading of the volume has been very careless, and errors abound in the pages—for example, page 8, "Valutello" for Vellutello; "Liber . . . nunc primum editus" for " . . . nunc primum editum;" page 9, "Moreno" for "Moreni"; page 11, "compilate" for "compilata"; page 14, "Biografi de lui" for "Biografi di lui"; "A work of marvellous erudition, but less essential," for "A work of marvellous erudition not less essential." Subsequent pages show a multitude of similar errors.

In spite of its defects, however, the book is one that many students will find useful.

Charles Reade, D.C.L., Dramatist, Novelist, Journalist. A memoir compiled chiefly from his literary remains. By Charles L. Reade and the Rev. Compton Reade. Harper & Bros. 1887.

THIS is a somewhat remarkable memoir. It is made up of extracts from the private papers of Charles Reade, in the shape of letters, diaries, and unpublished squibs, and also of a connecting narrative of great fluency and spirit. Responsibility for the former part rests upon Charles L. Reade, the literary executor of the novelist, and that for the latter upon the Rev. Compton Reade, a nephew—a division of labor so carefully insisted upon by the two partners in the book that each seems to be disclaiming any share in the other's work instead of standing for his own. The greater interest lies in the narrative portion. It is salacious, and smacks much more of its author than of its subject; but as he is apparently every inch a Reade, one learns something of the distinguished novelist's character vicariously by the idiosyncrasies of his nephew, evidently a chip of the same original block. In fact, one understands very readily the petulance, quarrelsomeness, and violence of Charles Reade by observing in how similar a way his relative expresses himself. There are two things which the nephew cannot think of without getting into a rage: one is Mr. Slatter, a schoolmaster of the stupid flogging kind, from whom several of the Reades suffered, and to whom the writer administers a literary birching of such long-continued ferocity that the reader half wishes that he would "let up" on the brute; the other is the society of the Fellows of Magdalen College, toward whom he entertains a most scoffing spirit. If the objurgations of Slatter and the gibes at Magdalen were left out, the memoir would lose a large share of its vigor, which is mainly of the fighting variety. The Rev. Compton Reade is not a man much given to respect, however, and there would still be plenty left to give him a character for speaking his mind with frankness and fulness in regard to all matters of offence to him. Charles Reade's mother, to whom he is said to have been tenderly attached, had her peculiarities, and these come out with sufficient clearness; but it was hardly necessary for her grandson to add, after having freely exhibited her less amiable traits, that she was "a domestic tyrant." One cannot think that Charles Reade would have approved such an expression about his mother in his own memoir. This is perhaps the worst slip; but to point out instances of bad taste in the Rev. Compton Reade's narrative would be as superfluous as to stop to remark upon his English, which, as any one may observe, tomahawks syntax and diction with a reckless dexterity very amusing to witness.

We dwell so long upon the Rev. Compton Reade because his personality is really the one that affects the reader; he effaces his uncle except where the extracts from the latter's diaries and letters force him to give place. This is, of course, wholly unintentional, and, indeed, only the unconsciousness of the self-assertion would excuse it. But when one comes to the end and asks what more he knows about Reade than he knew before, the ineffectiveness of such a method of biography is very plain. Reade came of a county family of old stock, and the opening chapters about the Squire and his home and the childhood surroundings of the novelist are the best part of the book. It was a fine, sturdy, evangelical, fox-hunting, India-emigrating family, Charles Reade being the eleventh and last scion, and all its members were of excellent British stuff and took their stations in the world as they ought. It fell to the lot of this youngest son to be a Fellow of Magdalen, which provided him with an income for something over fifty years—a small income for a gentleman, it is true, but cheap, since he did nothing for it worth mentioning. He was also a make-believe lawyer, an expert in the repair of old violins, and a candidate for theatrical honors; and at last, rather late in life, he made a success as a playwright and became famous as a novelist. The letters which he wrote home when he was travelling abroad are without character, and the other material from his papers is of little value. Of his nature one learns very little not already well known, and few new illustrations of it are to be found in these pages. Mrs. Seymour, his housekeeper, is a mere figure, and no light is thrown upon the bond which united the two, though the Platonic character of the attachment is strongly insisted on.

On the whole, the memoir is chiefly remarkable, next to the Rev. Compton Reade's pugnacious sprightliness, for its plentiful lack of fresh information respecting its subject. Reade's peculiar temperament, his methods of work, and his controversies are an old story. As an Englishman he was the type of the man who proverbially writes to the *Times;* as a writer, he was a novelist only because he could not be a dramatist, and in his books he tried to come as near to writing a play as the form of the novel permitted. He lives by a few strong stories, now, and will live by 'The Cloister and the Hearth,' it is to be hoped, a long time; but his anomalous position in literature is well illustrated by the almost infinitesimal place occupied in his biography by other literary persons. It is unfortunate that his life was not told by some one less like himself, and in a simpler and calmer style. As to the main matter, whether Reade led a life worth any fuller record than that given to it by his works, one inclines to the conclusion that there was not much to tell.

The Evangelical Revival in the Eighteenth Century. By John Henry Overton, Canon of Lincoln and Rector of Epworth. Anson D. F. Randolph & Co.

THE third volume of the "Epochs of Church History" series has a more interesting subject than either of its predecessors, but it is not a more interesting book than Canon Perry's 'Reformation in England,' or the Rev. Mr. Tucker's 'English Church in Other Lands.' The author has done little more than give a dry compendium of events, which only needed a spark of genuine sympathy, it would seem, to set them all aflame. Perhaps he was discouraged by the fact that Southey, and Lecky, and other effective writers, had been before him and said all the good things. Brevity in historical writing is not always the soul of wit. It is much oftener its body of death from which it fain would be delivered. But that the Evangelical Revival can be treated briefly and at the same time effectively is proved by Mr. Lecky's ninth chapter in his 'England in the Eighteenth Century.' His treatment is considerably briefer than Canon Overton's, but while it omits nothing of importance that is here expressed, and contains much of importance that is here omitted, it is full of interest and fascination.

The whole is sometimes greater than the sum of all its parts, and while Canon Overton's account of various separate parts of the Revival is faithful and significant, we miss a proper and inspiring sense of its unity and integrity. His introduction is extremely brief. It is for the most part concerned with the causes of the religious apathy at the beginning of the Georgian era. The cause most insisted on is the influence of Sir Robert Walpole. This influence, he avers, "contributed more than all the other causes combined" to that condition from which Methodism was a violent reaction. But it was an apathy which was relieved by the great names of Berkeley and Butler, and William Law, whose 'Serious Call' was the fountainhead of the Revival, though Law himself had little admiration for the deepening and expanding stream.

The arrangement of Canon Overton's material is good so far as it goes, but the material is insufficient. A movement passionately ethical and pietistic is regarded almost wholly from an ecclesiastical point of view. The chapter upon Wesley is discriminating, and, for an ardent Churchman, even sympathetic, but the emphasis is almost wholly on Wesley's relation to the Establishment. We are interested in seeing how little of the practical working of the Revival was deliberately planned; how much of it was determined by the various exigencies of the time, in spite of Wesley's predilections. In the chapter upon Whitefield, Charles Wesley, and other "helpers," the balance is very evenly held between Whitefield and Wesley. The achievement is an easy one for Canon Overton because he is himself "a moderate Calvinist"; less Calvinistic than Whitefield, more so than Wesley.

When we read that Charles Wesley wrote more than 6,000 hymns, we wonder that more of them were not good by merest chance among so many. In the account of Fletcher of Madeley there is no mention of his controversial work, the most important on the Arminian side the time produced. A chapter on "Methodism and Evangelicalism" distinguishes the Revival in the Church as opposed to Methodist forms of activity, from the Revival freely using novel means of propagation; and Canon Overton's inclination is evidently to include as much as possible under the head of "Evangelicalism." Loyalty to the Church is his cardinal virtue. Wesley's appointment of Coke and Asbury as bishops for America is his single heinous fault. Newton's slave-trading is reserved for the climax of his unconverted wickedness; but of the relation of Whitefield's predilection for "a plantation of fat niggers" to his converted sanctity nothing is said. The literature of the Revival has a chapter to itself, the longest in the book. It was decidedly inferior to the religious literature immediately beyond its scope—Butler's, Berkeley's, and Law's. It is to be hoped that the chapter on the results of the Revival is imperfect—that there were other results of the Revival more important than any named, except the abolition of slavery in the West Indies. Wesley's opinion of slavery, and not Whitefield's, was generally held by the reformers. Thomas Clarkson's part is needlessly depreciated to enhance the value of Wilberforce's, the credit of which is claimed for the Evangelicals. The nature of the opposition to the Revival, its doctrines, and its relation to other religious movement are treated briefly in the closing chapters.

Some Chinese Ghosts. By Lafcadio Hearn. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

WHILE the ghosts of Japan and Corea seem to be wet and bedraggled creatures, born of wells and water and swamp, the Chinese ghosts manufactured by Mr. Hearn are wrought out of fire. The author, possibly, has been in the Middle Kingdom and made himself familiar with the proper environment of the spirits that dwell in bronze and pottery. He has read well the writings of Sinologists, and saturated his mind with images delightful to the fancy of the sons of Han. His style is exquisitely polished, his vocabulary is the cream of language, and his six stories are told with literary art. "The Soul of the Great Bell," "The Story of Ming-Y," "The Legend of Tchiniu," "The Return of Yen-Tchin, King," "The Tradition of the Tea-Plant," "The Tale of the Porcelain God," with appendices in the form of notes and glossary, complete his modest table of contents. The booklet has less than 200 pages, and to each chapter, besides the title-page, is appended a line of Chinese characters. At least the mystic marks are intended to stand for Chinese mottoes, Buddhist banner legends, sentences from the classics, the name of China, etc. They show, in their tell-tale craziness of copying, crookedness of writing, and roughness of engraving, their Occidental manufacture. This, when laundrymen are numerous in every American city, is unfair to the shades of Confucius as well as to the ghosts. If it be little glory in the West to be killed in battle and have your name misspelled in the despatches, surely the spirits evoked by the literary resurrectionist should be rightly written. Not only does Mr. Hearn mix his proper names as given in German and French spellings, but he even calls up a ghost known only in Japan to frolic and masquerade in China. Nor should even the Chinese be held to account, in addition to all their other sins, for the lascivious coloring given to a very simple legend. "The Tradition of the Tea-Plant" seems to be the most artificially and clumsily constructed of the six stories. "The Soul of the Great Bell" is that of the virgin daughter of a bronze caster who could not win success in his mould except by the cremation in the crucible of a beautiful maiden. Ming-Y is a lad who holds wassail and gains priceless literary relics from a famous courtesan whose spirit hovers over the ruins of a palace razed centuries ago. Tchi-niu is a paragon of filial reverence; and the Porcelain God is the deified man who baked himself into his own clay biscuit, and is now worshipped by potters and furnace-tenders in China.

Altogether, the impression made upon a Western reader of Mr. Hearn's semi-Chinese productions is not pleasant, though it might have been made so. Still, those who keep and enjoy the art products of Cathay welcome whatever legends will unlock the mysteries of the Chinese wonder world. Just as with the fairy and mystic lore of Japan, after the bloody, revengeful, and licentious elements are eliminated, there remain enchanting meadows of perfume and fragrance, so in Chinese literature and folk-lore there are yet untrodden gardens of sweet fancies. So long as the art of Asia is studied, there will be need of popular interpretation for Occidentals. Ghosts flourish most when there is a demand for them, and the multiplying museums and private collections of the bric-à-brac of Sinim call for occasional works like this modest book of Mr. Hearn, which, while in taste and emphasis of objectionable elements not wholly worthy of him, is a promise of better things to come.

New York: The Planting and Growth of the Empire State. By Ellis H. Roberts. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1887.

To condense within the limits of 700 small pages the story for 280 years of a growing State, describing material conditions, unfolding the sequence of events, portraying inherited and personal character in the men who guided them, and whom in turn they controlled—to impress this picture with continuity and dispose it in due perspective, is no easy task. It is not surprising, then, that the author of these volumes offers his readers abundance rather than coherence of material, and that his examples overwhelm the philosophy his history should teach.

The annals of no other of our thirteen primary commonwealths offer the diversity that causes this difficulty. New York alone among them was planted by one people and conquered by another, changing nationality with name. It was the only colony that welcomed all faiths and blended all races. She alone bore the stress of war with the most potent and civilized of European States on the one side, and the most compact and cruel of savage confederacies on the other. She carried on trade, conflict, and diplomacy with alien neighbors as no other colony was forced to do. After independence, the second war disturbed commerce, harassed the frontiers, and strained relations with the Federal Government more severely for her than for other States which stood less resolute and less faithful. And as to her political history, whether as colony or as State, her mixed population, with its early control by great families and its later concentration into great cities, singularly complicates the study.

In either of two methods the growth of such a commonwealth might be treated. One is to analyze the national elements composing it, and the material conditions under which these developed, tracing their interaction on philosophic principles, supported by copious illustration; the other is to set down in consecutive narrative the more important points in its progress, with color of incident, but without research into causes and their workings. The author seems to have adopted neither method frankly, halting between the two. He does sometimes state a principle and accumulate relative facts, but refuses the labor of demonstrating their living connection. This occurs oftenest where the causes are more simple and obvious, in colonial times. In the story of later days, since the century began, the attempt is less often made, and for its neglect may be pleaded the obscurity and complexity of the elements for study. Yet in a history brought down to last year, one naturally asks for some account of the rise and reasons of the Labor party, or some note of the portentous growth of Romish pretensions.

As instances, taken at random from the most diverse classes of subjects, of the want of proportion in the author's historical treatment, the topic of land and rent is discussed in eight pages, while a single page recalls the Liberty party, mentioning only one of its leaders, and omitting those who inspired its ideas. A page is devoted to the battle of Plattsburgh, while an incidental mention and a dismissal with less than two lines are all that is given to that on Lake Erie. An extended account of the French invaders' enterprises, religious and warlike, among the Iroquois, throws into the shade the far more important relations of the tribes with Dutch and English colonists.

In general, however, that part of these volumes recounting colonial history is written with more care and clearness than the sequel, opening with this century. The portraits of royal governors are done with some touch of individual quality, far more lifelike than the style of the detached sketches of later statesmen, reminding one of reporters' little biographies, pigeonholed for obituary issue. Hardly an attempt is made to show the development in the State of legal doctrines on such important topics as the rights of women and the relations between the spheres of national and of State governments. And though some details are touched upon illustrating the evils of legislation in early times, we must regretfully dissent from the conclusion that "the standard of morality and honor for legislators is higher than it was in the earlier days."

The index is carelessly pitched together, omitting, for example, any mention of the Erie Canal or of Myron Holley, one of its chief promoters, as he was also one of the New York creators of the Liberty party, though all these subjects form part of the volume. In brief, the work may be summed up as a rather perfunctory and far from thorough record of dates and facts, useful so far as it goes, but falling much below the dignity of a monograph on the history of the State of New York.

The Game of Logic. By Lewis Carroll. Macmillan. 8vo, pp. 96.

IT need not strike any one with wonder that the author of 'Alice in Wonderland' should write a book about logic. Even if he were not known as a mathematician, it might safely be predicted that a man who could make such beautiful nonsense as that book contains would have a very good head for sense. The principle that it takes a thief to catch a thief does not hold here: one must have a very pretty taste for logic if he wishes to compose pleasing specimens of unlogic.

This little book describes a device for working syllogisms by means of compartments marked out on a piece of card-board, and counters, red and gray, which indicate respectively that the compartments are occupied or empty. The counters are put into their proper places in accordance with the demands of the premises, and

then whatever results are irrespective of the middle term are read off as the conclusion. This plainly does not constitute a game, but merely a mechanical plan for working out a series of puzzles. As a logical machine for three terms, it is very workable, and possibly amusing. If there are some children or some grown people who may be led by the pleasing device of colored counters to exercise themselves in drawing or in testing conclusions, it will doubtless do some good. The same thing is more readily accomplished, however, by algebraical than by geometrical means.

But mechanical logical methods do not show to good advantage in anything so simple as syllogism. Their proper field is in more complicated combinations of premises. It may well be doubted whether they do not injure rather than add to the automatic feeling of the inevitableness of a conclusion, which is what one has to trust to in real life. One does not strengthen the legs by using crutches, although they form an admirable means of getting over the ground when legs are found to be inadequate. If a person is unable to say at once what conclusion, if any, follows from any simple pair of premises, he may feel sure that his logical machinery is in need of oiling. What plan is best for putting it into good condition it is not an easy matter to decide. Probably the ideally perfect method would be for the person who sees at once, to drag out of the sub-conscious regions of his mind the actual process by which he sees, and to set it forth in the plain light of day, and then to discipline the patient with countless instances until the process has become automatic to him also. To expound to him the rules of syllogism is a very different thing; it is a matter of accident whether they follow the actual course of thought or not in any given instance. At the same time, he ought to have perfect command of some good and simple method, and to be able to apply it with ease as a means of last resort in cases of difficulty. That such cases are not far to seek, it would be very easy to show. Euclid himself does not seem to have been aware that the contrapositive of a proposition is always true. And his latest followers, with the single exception of Mr. Halsted, so far as we have noticed, have thought it necessary, for instance, to prove that two parallels to a line cannot go through a point, or, in other words, are parallel to each other, although it is a mere restatement of the axiom that through a point only one parallel to a line can be drawn.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ashby-Sterry, J. Cucumber Chronicles. Scribner & Welford.
Barine, A. Portraits de Femmes—Mme. Carlyle, George Eliot, etc. Paris: Hachette.
Beecher, H. W. Speeches on the American Rebellion, delivered in Great Britain in 1863. Frank E. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.
Bouton, J. B. Roundabout to Moscow. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Bumblebee Bogo's Budget. By a Retired Judge. Macmillan & Co. $2.
Butler, A. J. Court Life in Egypt. Illustrated. Scribner & Welford.
Cameos from English History: Forty Years of Stewart Rule. 1603—1643. By the Author of 'The Heir of Redclyffe.' Sixth Series. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Champsaur, Félicien. Le Défilé. Paris: Victor-Havard; Boston: Schoenhof.
Cook, A. M. Macmillan's Latin Course. First Year. Macmillan & Co. 90 cents.
Cooke, C. K. Australian Defences and New Guinea. Compiled from the Papers of the late Major-General Sir Peter Scratchley. With a Memoir. Macmillan & Co. $4.
Douglas, W. Duelling Days in the Army. Scribner & Welford.
Fowler, Prof. T. The Principles of Morals. Part II. Being the Body of the Work. Macmillan & Co. $2.75.
Fréjus, E. L'Académie des Derviches Yolois d'après les documents nouveaux et inédits. Paris; E. Leroux; Boston: Schoenhof.
Garrett, Rev. A. C. The Eternal Sacrifice, and Other Discourses. James Pott & Co. $1.25.
Gilmore, J. R. John Sevier as a Commonwealth-Builder. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Graham, D. King James the First: An Historical Tragedy. Macmillan & Co. $2.
Greenough, F. B. Letters of Horatio Greenough to his brother Henry. Boston: Ticknor & Co.
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Fine Arts.

THE AMERICAN ART ASSOCIATION.

At the Third Prize Fund Exhibition, under the management of the American Art Association, there is a collection of some 230 pictures. As has been the case in the two previous exhibitions, many of the important canvases have been contributed by American artists abroad. This year, however, Messrs. Harrison, Simmons, Mosler, Walter Gay, Bridgman, and Donoho, who have been prominent contributors in the past, are unrepresented, and Messrs. Boggs and Ulrich are exemplified by comparatively unimportant pictures. The good average which has characterized the exhibitions is well sustained this year, for there are some new names of note among the contributors from the foreign colony, and the artists at home seem to have made even more than the usual effort to be well represented.

In figure-painting the honors are carried off by Mr. Robert F. Blum, whose picture, "Venetian Lace Makers," No. 24, is much the best work he has ever exhibited. A dozen of the proverbially picturesque Venetian girls of the people are seen in this picture seated in groups around their cushion-stands in a large room, the doors and windows of which are shaded from the outside glare by green blinds. The gay, almost gaudy, colors of the girls' dresses are happily contrasted, and the picture is excellently painted throughout. In fact, it is marked by unusual knowledge and completeness in treatment, and is in every respect a strong picture. There are some delightful bits in it, such as the figure of the girl bending over her work near the door in the middle of the composition, and the one in the red dress in the foreground, in which admirable delicacy of color and breadth of painting are shown. The effect of diffused light in the room is well rendered, and the girls, chatting and laughing over their work, look natural and real.

"A Difficult Duet," No. 128, by F. D. Millet, is a picture which shows to perfection this artist's recognized cleverness in painting subjects of the latter part of the eighteenth century. The young woman at the piano, the man in striped changeable silk coat and periwig playing the violin, the quaint old piano, the music stand, the round mirror on the wall, are all executed with the preciseness and prim charm of a Dutch master. The picture is simple in composition and quiet and agreeable in color.

One of the best genre pictures in the exhibition is "Forging the Blade," No. 62, by F. S. Dellenbaugh. The subject is nothing more than a blacksmith standing by a forge with a long blade on which he is at work in his hands, but it is so well painted, the effect of light coming through a narrow window and falling on the figure and the dusty brick walls of the forge is so truthfully given, detail is so carefully painted, while completeness of ensemble is preserved, that this little picture is admirable.

"The Death of Minnehaha," No. 69, by W. L. Dodge, which is said to be the work of a young painter of one-and-twenty, is certainly a picture of much promise. The canvas is large, and contains three life-size figures. The dead body of Minnehaha is laid on a bier in the middle of the picture, and two warriors are seen mourning, the one on his knees on the ground at the head of the bier, the other seated, holding his head in his hands, at the foot. The painting is in general broad and skilful, and the picture possesses many excellent technical qualities. It is in no way remarkable for color, and it is seriously deficient in drawing in parts, notably in the figures of the two mourning braves; but the nude torso of the dead girl is good, the picture holds together well, and is well managed as to general treatment. It is the most ambitious work in the exhibition, and as the contribution of a young artist, who has but recently come into notice among the American artists abroad, it is entitled to consideration as well as for its intrinsic merits.

"A Souvenir of Picardy," No. 167, by F. C. Penfold, a life-size study of a fisher-girl carrying a heavy seine net on her shoulder, with a background of beach and ocean—a strong, vigorously painted figure; "The Toilers of the Sea," No. 105, by George Hitchcock, a party of fishermen and women coming across the sands at low tide, painted in a strong effect of light with great truth of observation and justness of values; "The Tired Moss Gatherer," No. 127, by J. Gari Melchers, a peasant girl lying with her basket at her side on the dunes at early evening, a picture painted in a quiet key of color, and noticeable for its fine quality of atmosphere; "Arrival of the Fishing Boats," No. 156, by W. E. Norton, a scene on a stone pier at Dieppe, representing a crowd of market people and idlers congregated at the water side, where a mass of boats are being moored, whose tall masts and broad sails rise in picturesque lines against the gray French sky—an effectively composed and frankly painted picture; "Charity," No. 84, by C. L. Fox, life-size figures of a strolling player-girl lying on a rush mat in a hut, with a wrinkled old crone bending over her, in which there is some good painting, but which is insufficient in drawing; "Lavoir in the Gatinais," No. 32, by Amanda Brewster, a large canvas with a number of figures of washerwomen at the edge of an enclosed basin of water, composed in a haphazard sort of way, but of considerable excellence as a study; and "Consolation, Church of St. Fiac, Brittany," No. 182, by H. M. Rosenberg, a nook in an old country church, with five old peasant women sitting in a row on a bench awaiting the coming of the priest—a picture which is sober and dignified in intention, but which would be more successful were it less bizarre in composition—are other works by figure painters sent to the exhibition from Europe which merit commendation. To these should be added Mr. Childe Hassam's three excellent pictures of Paris scenes—"Les Grands Boulevards," No. 102; "Over the Seine," No. 103, and "À Paris," No. 101.

"Woman Milking," No. 225, by Horatio Walker, which shows the interior of a stable with a strong light coming in through the open doorway and a woman milking a cow—a vigorous and healthy piece of realistic painting; "The Year was Young," No. 176, by Mary C. Richard-

son, an excellent life-size study of a young woman with a child in her arms, painted in an out-door effect with a background of green foliage, remarkable for its subtle modelling and simplicity; "In Blossom Time," No. 60, by Herbert F. Denman, two young girls in pseudo-Greek costume, painted in a delicate color scheme of pale tints, and noticeable for refined decorative quality. "The Wedding Gown," No. 152, by Rhoda Holmes Nichols, a strongly painted study of a young woman sewing on a white satin robe; "Searching for the Will," No. 12, by W. V. Birney, a clever genre, in which an old woman is seen bending over a table piled with quantities of musty books and papers; "Giving an Estimate," No. 135, by Leon Moran, a nicely painted conceit of a sign-painter (in the time of Louis XVI.) and his patron discussing the cost of a gorgeously carved and gilded sign-board; "Inspiration," No. 20, by Edwin H. Blashfield, a large canvas with a female figure of Music, seated in a sort of niche, and an angel or muse hovering above her—a decorative picture possessing many substantial merits; and "Sappho," No. 126, by G. W. Maynard, a picture of the poetess seated on a high bench in a marble hall with clouds of incense floating about, possessing great beauty of tone and refined in sentiment—these may be picked out of the large number of other figure pictures for special mention.

"Still Life," No. 229, by J. Alden Weir, a study of blue and white jars, a brass lanthorn, a copper basin or two, and a bunch of lilacs, the whole placed on an old table, with a piece of the wall of a studio as a background, is exceedingly handsome in color. In the same field are to be seen two still-life pictures by Emil Carlsen, "Decorative Panel in Yellows," No. 41, a rather ineffective and forced arrangement of yellow roses and yellow stuffs; and "Azaleas," No. 42, a great bunch of pink flowers in a stone jar which are certainly peonies, and whose title of Azaleas in the catalogue must be owing to a mistake—a color study of considerable beauty, strongly and freshly painted.

The present exhibition is very weak in portrait work. There are only five or six altogether, and of these only one, "Portrait," No. 52, by Kenneth R. Cranford, a half-length figure of a gentleman, has much merit to recommend it. In landscapes there is a fine showing.

> "Over all the hill-tops is rest,
> Even thro' the trees thou feelest
> Scarcely a breath,"

is the daring title given by Mr. Thomas Allen to his picture, No. 3, in the catalogue. It is a large landscape, simple and noble in composition. A hill sloping down from right to left, with a group of massive trees half-way down the descent, a purple-tinted evening sky, and the newly risen moon riding in the sky just above the crest of the hill, is the motive, and it is broadly and amply painted. This picture belongs among the best American landscapes of recent years. It is an excellent example of the best kind of realistic treatment of nature combined with a fine poetic feeling. Two pictures, "An October Day," No. 213, and "Night," No. 214, exemplify the charming talent of Mr. Tryon. "Night" is a picture of the moon nearly at its full, rising just above the horizon, with a low-roofed barn and a hay-stack in the foreground of the composition. The artist has succeeded admirably in rendering his effect, a very difficult one, too, and in getting rid of the presence of paint in his picture. The moon seems actually to light the picture, in every part of which there is a vibrating sense of atmosphere in both light and shadow. This picture by Mr. Tryon is of a high order of merit, and would hold its own in the most distinguished company. "Broad Acres," No. 86, a large canvas signed by Edward Gay, is thoroughly American in subject. A waving field of ripe grain fills the foreground, and in the middle distance are seen a row of telegraph poles indicating a roadway through the fields, and a stage-coach toiling wearily along under the hot sun; clusters of country houses are scattered along the rising ground in the distance, and a luminous noon-day sky stretches high up over all. There is a great deal of nature in this picture, and it is conscientiously and frankly painted. "By the Woodside," No. 153, by Burr H. Nicholls, is an autumn scene, of woods and fields and a distant river, in which there is some excellent drawing of trees. "Snow and Sunshine," No. 164, is one of Mr. Walter Palmer's effective and truthful studies of winter sunlight. "Late Afternoon," No. 59, a large landscape by Charles H. Davis, reveals a flat plain and low horizon with a broad expanse of pale-tinted sky and a mountain of pink clouds. It is delicate and pretty to the point of weakness, and is artificial and false in effect. "Moonrise," No. 166, by Richard Pauli, reminding one strongly of the methods of Daubigny, yet possessing good qualities of its own; "The Tide River," No. 241, by Charles H. Woodbury, a large landscape representing marsh lands with stacks of dried grasses and a stream of tide water winding through them, luminous and fairly good in effect, but altogether too brutal in texture; "The Close of an Autumn Day," No. 45, by B. W. Clinedinst, a nicely-painted picture of a garden, evincing accurate observation; and "A Garden by the Danube," No. 82, by R. B. Fitz, a study of a potato-field, in which there is excellent quality of atmosphere—are some other notable landscapes. Mr. Murphy is well exemplified in "September Noon," No. 144, and "Morning Greys," No. 146; Mr. Dewey in "October," No. 64; Mr. Van Boskerck in "Near the Sea, South Plymouth," No. 221; and Mr. Minor in "September Afternoon," No. 131, and "Solitude," No. 133. Mr. Rehn exhibits a strongly-painted marine, "The Surging Sea," No. 173.

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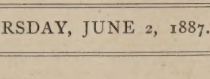

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 459

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS 462

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:
Refounding the Debt 464
Dumb Legislation 464
Failure to Compromise in Virginia 465
Dirt Roads 466

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:
The New Light on the Kentucky Resolutions 467
The Warwickshire Laborer 468

CORRESPONDENCE:
The Excavations at Croton 469
Why Have We No Skylarks? 470
The Beverly Incident 470
The First Israelite in Maryland 470

NOTES 470

REVIEWS:
Ladd's Physiological Psychology 473
Books about the Stage 473
Central Asia 474
Waste-Land Wanderings 475
Anne Gilchrist 476
Cycling 476
American Ancestry 477
The Story of Ancient Egypt 477
The Story of the Normans 477
The German Classics 477
The Dictionary of Religion 478

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 478

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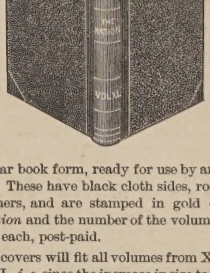

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 2, 1887.

The Week.

AN idea has gained currency that since a new bank in this city has conceived the plan of taking silver bullion on storage and issuing warehouse receipts for it, and since the Stock Exchange has voted or may vote to list these receipts and have them "called" from day to day, therefore New York will soon "control the silver market of the world." What is meant by controlling the silver market is not quite clear. What would be the gain to us if we should achieve this distinction is not stated. The silver market is at the present time controlled by India, that being the country which uses silver more than any other. The quotation made in London for bar silver is the resultant of the Indian demand —expressed by the regular auction sales of India Council bills or drafts on Calcutta and Bombay. These drafts enable the buyer of goods in India to meet his obligation payable in silver rupees. We get our quotation of silver from London, and London gets hers from the sale of Council bills, and these sales are dependent upon the state of trade with India, in the same way that the price of sterling exchange here is dependent upon the state of trade between us and the Old World. This state of things will continue after the warehousing of silver bullion and the listing of silver warehouse receipts begins, as before. Nevertheless there are some advantages to be gained by the proposed system, because it will save time and labor in the transfer of property.

In filling the important office of the new Circuit Judgeship for this district created by the last Congress, the President has made another appointment which extorts the heartiest commendation from even his most bitter political opponents. We are quite content to adopt as our own the comments of the *Tribune*, which says: "President Cleveland's appointment of Mr. E. Henry Lacombe to the office of United States Circuit Judge is a commendable one. Such an addition to the Federal Judiciary will be approved by the bar as well as by the public at large. Mr. Lacombe will add strength and dignity to the bench of this circuit. He has shown himself to be well fitted by temperament, character, and legal ability for this promotion. The only thing that can be said against it is that it takes away from the city a public officer whose duty has been so well done as to make his removal a loss to the public service."

The Blaine idea of public office is admirably illustrated in the comments of that typical Blaine newspaper, the Philadelphia *Press*, upon the appointment of Mr. Andrew H. Dill as United States Marshal for the Eastern District of Philadelphia. The *Press* concedes that Mr. Dill has every qualification to fill the office with the highest credit: "The President has certainly named a man big enough for the office," it says. "But," adds the *Press*, "it is not an appointment to vitalize the party," inasmuch as "Mr. Dill will not make that active, every-day political use of the office that some of those urged for the place would have done." The Republicans made a thorough trial of the theory of "vitalizing the party" by having servants of the public "make active, every-day political use of their offices," in 1884, and Mr. Blaine himself endorsed this theory, in the most conspicuous way possible, by "toting" the Postmaster of Augusta, Me., around the country with him as his personal attendant, and taking the United States District Attorney for the Brooklyn district in his train on a stump-speaking tour. But the party did not appear to have quite so much vitality when it was all over as it had possessed twenty-four years before, when it had no offices to make use of.

Senator Ingalls of Kansas is credited with having recently made this remark: "I have no hesitancy in saying that granting the right of suffrage to the colored people has proven an absolute and unqualified failure." From the standpoint of the Republican politician, this is a correct statement of the case. The negroes were given the suffrage upon the theory that they would all vote with the Republican party, and would thus keep that party indefinitely in power in the Southern States, and by consequence in the nation. This theory has utterly broken down, and to-day every Southern State is controlled by the Democracy. The trouble is that the theory presupposed that the intelligent whites would consent indefinitely to be ruled by a mass of ignorance, which was impossible. The Republicans expected that negroes, not one in a hundred of whom could read his ballot, would have Republican ballots put in their hands by carpet-bag leaders and be conducted to the polls in droves like cattle, there to outvote the whites, who included ninety-nine-hundredths of the intelligence and owned ninety-nine-hundredths of the property. Intelligence and property revolted, as was inevitable if civilization were to be preserved. The Supreme Court, with all but one of its judges Republicans, has virtually decided that the Federal power cannot be employed to impose the rule of ignorance upon a State. It is settled that the negroes will never again vote as they once voted, like beasts, who were to be counted as always solid for one party because of the color of their skin. Gen. Armstrong of Hampton, during his recent tour through the South, found that the more intelligent blacks do not want to see that day return. As the negroes gain in intelligence they will find their votes sought by rival parties among the whites, as is the case to-day in Texas, and ultimately they will come to vote as generally as the whites; but when that happens they will divide their votes like the whites, and they will resent as white men would do the assumption that they can be counted as solid for any party simply because of their color.

Signs of the breaking down of the color line in politics multiply. A Richmond despatch to the *Tribune* says of the county elections in Virginia on Friday: "In many counties colored men voted with the Democrats, and the Republican party gained many white votes." In Texas, both sides are working hard for the colored vote in the canvass over the prohibition amendment. The advocates of the measures claim that the intelligent negroes as a rule are on their side, but the Opposition are fooling many of the ignorant by telling them that prohibition is only the first step towards putting them back into slavery. Thus the San Antonio *Republican*, which says to Republicans generally, "Stand as one man and vote against prohibition," makes a special appeal to the negroes with such balderdash as this: "Let the colored people keep their heads out of the prohibition snare. They have a long and tedious road to travel to secure their personal liberty without joining in with the Prohibitionists to curtail the liberty of their fellow citizens. Suppose the Legislature should pass a law declaring that no colored person of African descent should be allowed to enter a saloon, and any saloonist who sold such African-blooded citizen a drink would be subject to fine and imprisonment, what would the men among the colored people think of it? And yet that is prohibition, pure and simple."

Verily, these are strange times in politics, and distressing for the old fogies, who keep on talking the same old partisan rubbish. "The public must look to the Republican party for this work in behalf of moral purity and righteousness, as it has looked for so many others to the same source," said Senator Hoar of Massachusetts in his letter to the anti-saloon meeting in this city on Wednesday week. But the San Antonio *Republican*, the Texas organ of the party whose name it bears, in a vigorous editorial article on the situation in that State uses this language: "We say to Republicans over Texas, stand as one man and vote against prohibition." In the same letter Senator Hoar said: "Certainly it can look for no help to that party which is, and so long has been, supported and controlled by the liquor-selling interest of this country." But a Waco correspondent of the *Voice* writes that the leading Democrats of Texas, including Senator Reagan, ex-Senator Maxey, and a majority of the Democratic Representatives in Congress, have declared for the amendment, and adds: "Who will deny that if the leading Republicans of Michigan had favored prohibition as the leading Democrats of Texas are favoring it, the amendment would have been adopted?"

King Alcohol must have been terribly alarmed when he saw the list of Vice-Presidents of the Anti-Saloon Republican meeting at Cooper Institute last week, but he probably recovered himself afterwards. A better array of names could not be drawn out of the census of New York. If we can imagine these gentlemen as fired with one idea in the same way that the anti slavery men were fired in times gone by, and as Judge

Davis advised them to be fired at the meeting, we should say that Sheridan Shook and the Republican saloon-keepers had best beat a hasty retreat out of this city and State, because they would surely lose "the protection to which they are entitled." But since no such firing has taken place or can take place in a party organized and built up for different ends, the danger to the saloonists is not so alarming as the list of Vice-Presidents would make it appear. It is not for us to throw cold water upon the cold-water army, but, speaking plainly, we do not recognize in this assemblage anything more destructive to the forces of King Alcohol than a pious opinion that there is too much drinking in the community, and a solemn conviction that the Republican party ought to fight the liquor-sellers enough to satisfy the Prohibitionists, but not enough to lose many votes in the next election. The resolutions adopted by the meeting demand prohibition of the liquor traffic in the District of Columbia and in the Territories, and pledge the Republican party to the enforcement of whatever ordinances, statutes, or constitutional amendments may be adopted in the several States to restrict or suppress that traffic. The meeting declared itself in favor of the submission of prohibition amendments to the people, but did not declare itself in favor of their adoption. Why not? Why demand prohibition in the District of Columbia and in the Territories, and not in the States, unless for the reason that the District of Columbia and the Territories do not vote in a Presidential election?

The temperance question seems to have been definitely settled in Switzerland by the result of the popular vote, or *referendum*, as it is called, taken on the 15th instant, on the Federal law giving the Government the sole right to manufacture and sell spirituous liquors. The law has been approved by a vote of 252,791 to 127,474. This is doubtless to the American Prohibitionists an awful piece of legislation, as engaging the Government in a criminal enterprise, but the Swiss people, who have been for some years back wrestling with the liquor question, owing to the terrible increase of drunkenness in the Cantons, have concluded that in no other way can they so effectively diminish the quantity of liquor consumed, and at the same time secure the purity of what is consumed. Of course they could not reach this conclusion by starting from the great premise of our Prohibitionists that liquor-dealing and murder are in the eye of the moralist exactly the same thing. They reach it by starting from the premise, which is that of the great majority of rational men, that the moderate consumption of alcoholic drinks, even if it be a physiological mistake, is not in itself an offence against the community, and that it is the excessive consumption which society has to complain of, and is bound to repress, until the individual man has learned that his wisest course is to abstain wholly.

Mr. Tom Platt's letter to the Governor offering to resign the office of Quarantine Commissioner, if he (the Governor) would agree to appoint Col. Fred. Grant in his place, is interesting as an exhibition of cheek, but upon the whole it had been best left unwritten. Platt's strong point is silence. His strength is all latent strength. Now he has come out of his enchanted castle and declared himself, and invited public inspection. Naturally the first thing he tells is an untruth, viz.:

"Now that the Legislature has adjourned, and the Republican Senate has refused to be frightened by the howls of the Bourbons or the shrieks of the Mugwumps into delivering over the Quarantine Department *to Democratic control*, and have declined to confirm the successor you name for my place as Commissioner of Quarantine, permit me to offer a few facts, and to submit a proposition, that may tend in some degree to mitigate the disappointment which *this result* may have occasioned."

It is, however, notorious that the Governor, by nominating two straight Republicans and one Democrat as Quarantine Commissioners, put his opponents in a hole, and made it impossible for anybody to charge that he was seeking to put the office under Democratic control, or if anybody should so charge, made it easy to prove them to be liars. Mr. Platt has walked into the hole with the intrepidity of a veteran. The Governor says that two and one make three. Platt rejoins that it is no such thing, and that he will prove it by resigning his hold-over office if the Governor will agree to appoint a particular person to the vacancy. Of course such an agreement must be in writing, and that would look so funny, being the first and only agreement of the kind on record, that Platt must have been convinced that the Governor would never make the bargain in that way. The offer is therefore extremely cheap in appearance, but we think it will prove costly in the long run, since it shows that Platt has lost the power of holding his tongue.

The Governor's unofficial response to Tom Platt's impudent letter is a very neat and effective use of the fine opportunity which Platt had given him. "I must decline," says the Governor, "to give any assurance or engage in any dicker in reference to this or any other office." If Platt had half the cunning with which he is credited, he would have foreseen that so quick-witted a politician as Gov. Hill is would make precisely that response; but he has fallen a victim to the force of habit. He has become so accustomed to dickering in private, and to looking upon public office, not as a public trust, but as a private, personal concern, that he forgot entirely that other people did not share his views. The most striking aspect of his letter is the frankness with which he lets it appear that he looks upon the office which he holds as primarily a basis upon which to make a "bargain" or a "deal." "Come, I'll trade with you for it," he says to the Governor, and is so impressed with his own smartness that he does not for a moment suspect that the people of the State may not like his way of using one of their public offices. He has actually given David B. Hill an opportunity to pose before the public as a stern enemy of "deals" and "dickers." After that we do not see how anybody can ever again call Platt a shrewd politician.

By their failure to act upon the Quarantine appointments, the Republicans have succeeded in offsetting the Democrats of the Legislature for their vote to repeal the Civil-Service Law. It will be useless for the Republicans to point to the Democratic vote as a proof of the latter party's hostility to civil-service reform, after this Republican action keeping bad men in office for years after their terms have expired. The notorious fact that the politicians of both parties have no sympathy with the reform, was never more clearly illustrated than by these two acts. Yet we presume that the Republican politicians and newspapers will go on denouncing the Cleveland Administration for its "humbugging pretensions" about civil service reform with as much vigor as ever. In fact, the only war-cry which the Republican party has in sight now for the fall campaign, besides this denunciation of the Cleveland Administration, is "Down with the Mugwumps." The old delusion that a Mugwump's vote does not count on election day appears still, in spite of repeated disasters, to possess a large number of the party leaders. And yet we have to see a politician whose opinion is worth anything who will not confess, when closely pushed, that there were never so many Independents abroad in the land as now.

We believe it was that eminent economist, the late Artemas Ward, who remarked that "In the midst of life we are in debt," a destiny pathetically sure for most of us. The select few of the "coupon-clippers" may escape it, but for them, it seems, peculiar dangers lurk. That a man should be in bodily peril while engaged in cutting off coupons seems absurd at first sight; but Mr. Alpheus Hardy of Boston last week, while engaged in that gentle exercise in the Union Safe Deposit Vaults, dropped upon his leg the scissors which he was using, inflicting a severe cut, which had to be sewed up. This accident need not operate to deter anybody from industry and thrift, because it will appear on reflection that a capitalist may hire persons to cut his coupons, or the safe-deposit companies may introduce machinery proper for the purpose. Still, these things must cost money, which will be so much clear deduction from capital, increasing therefore in a minute degree the difficulty of getting rich, and putting a new obstacle in the way of Dr. McGlynn's Anti-Poverty Society.

The confession of Canon Fleming that he helped himself from a sermon of our Dr. Talmage's by "inadvertence," is one of the most humiliating admissions of recent times. We have always considered that listening to the Brooklyn divine in a pew half an hour or so was as much as any educated man ever did, and something which but few educated men have ever done more than once. But it would seem that Canon Fleming not only reads Talmage in his study, but reads him pen in hand, and laboriously makes extracts from him as one might from any of the great masters of thought. This is, in theological circles, a descent which we can only compare to the campaign charge which in politics used for some years after the war to be freely made against Democratic candidates — of having driven a one-armed soldier with curses from

his door, or cheated a blind freedman out of a small mule. The preacher who would steal from Talmage is in fact, in that line, as Voltaire said of Habakkuk, "capable de tout."

The London *Spectator* lately printed a paper on Jewish pauperism which showed an enormous disproportion of poverty in the Jewish community of the British metropolis. It has now, by way of contrast, assembled figures bearing on the incomes of the richer members of that community, with the result of showing a similar disproportion of wealth. Indeed, the preponderance of poor at one end is more than balanced by an excess of wealth at the other end of the Jewish social scale. The *Spectator* says that the figures which it gives "are based upon an extremely able series of papers published in the leading organ of the Jewish community three years ago. They are the result of a series of investigations made by the most careful statistician in the synagogue, a gentleman who occupies a semi-official position, and who had access to every available source of information." They are, of course, only approximate, but the Jewish community in London is very small (under 50,000 persons), and there is no difficulty in arriving at the "least" amount of income possessed in most cases. The *Spectator's* tables show that, at the very least, the total income of the London Jewish community, divided equally among its members, must amount to £82 per head, whereas the average throughout the United Kingdom is but £35 per head. "So that at the very lowest computation the Jews have per head about two and a half times as much money as the non-Jewish residents of the country. They form, to put it in another way, a seven-hundred-and-fiftieth of the population, but have between them about a three-hundredth of the total wealth." And comparing the ratio of large incomes to population, the great preponderance of rich people among the Jews becomes evident. Thus, collating Prof. Leone Levi's tables ('Wages and Earnings,' 1885), which are based on the Income-Tax Commissioners' Returns, with the figures quoted by the *Spectator*, the following results appear, tabulated so as to show at a glance the proportion of incomes in the case of the Jews and the community generally:

Incomes over	Number per 50,000, United Kingdom.	Number per 50,000 Jews in London.
£10,000	4.5	100
1,000	85	1,400
500	150	800
200	785	3,200

That is, among the Jews, those having over £10,000 annually are more than twenty times as many in proportion to population as are found in the community generally; those having over £1,000 are nearly seventeen times as many; those with over £500 are more than five times, and those with over £200 are more than four times, as many.

This is very interesting; but the *Spectator* goes on to deal with the obvious fact that among the Jews "the ratio of incomes rises as the incomes rise, and the superiority of the Jew over the non-Jew is more marked in the larger amounts than in the smaller. Taking incomes in proportion to families, we get results more striking still. For the United Kingdom, we get one income of £10,000 in every 2,500 families; among Jews, one in every 100 families. The community at large has one income of over £1,000 to every 130 families: the Jews, one to every 7 families. The United Kingdom counts one income of over £500 to every 75 families; the Jews have one in every 12 families. The whole of the country reckons one income over £200 for every 14 families, while the Jews can claim one in every 3 families." The singularly disproportionate share of the Jewish working classes appears from the fact that whereas in the general community quite one-third of the annual income of the country is derived from the "laboring" people, only about one-twenty-fourth is derived from that class among the Jews, who yet on the other hand exhibit one thirty-fifth of the total number of incomes over £10,000 in a general community of which they form only one seven-hundred-and-fiftieth part. The *Spectator's* table, it is to be observed, which is topped with a simple "over £10,000," takes no account of the Jewish millionaires, the four Rothschilds and Sir Julian Goldsmid, or others of lesser but still great fortunes, like De Worms, Bischoffsheim, Goldschmidt, etc., inclusion of whom would bring the average far beyond the "safe" computation actually used, and would show an average income per head among the London Jews nearly three times as great as the common average of Great Britain. Whatever else the disproportion at the lower end of the scale may signify, we believe that, to the credit of our Jewish brethren, it does not imply unusual suffering, and the disproportion at the other end certainly indicates peculiar genius for business affairs.

It is almost useless to speculate about or comment on the new French Cabinet. It is essentially an *omnium gatherum* affair, made up rather of men who will not refuse office than of men who want it, or are expected to take it by the public. The weak point in it is the Minister of War, who, of course, has the most difficult place to fill, owing to the political complexion which Gen. Boulanger has given it, and owing, also, to the small number of prominent generals who are competent to make a respectable appearance in the Chambers. There are but few French soldiers who have had any oratorical or political training or gift, and those who have any such gift, like Gen. Boulanger, are apt to have too much of it for the good of the country. But the greatest difficulty the new Cabinet has to encounter lies in the fact that the Goblet Ministry was overthrown with the help of the extreme Conservatives of the Right, and the new one will have to count on this help to a greater or less extent, in order to stay in. M. Rouvier is to represent retrenchment and peace and a general cutting down of State aid. In the present condition of French politics even those Republicans who think these are good things are apt to take a distaste to them when they find the monarchists advocating them. So the ministerial crisis is probably not over.

The chief reason why the French "Opportunists" have opposed the retention of Gen. Boulanger in the Cabinet, is to be found in the figures of the budget on which the Goblet Ministry went out of office. Ever since 1879, the cost of the enormous public works which the Government is carrying on in various parts of France has been met by borrowing. This it is now proposed to insert in the annual taxes. But the cost of reorganizing the army and navy, and making cross roads, has long been met by borrowing also, and it is proposed to continue the practice. The Minister of Finance, in short, asked for this year, from one source or another, $650,620,947. Last year the revenue receipts only amounted to $587,022,153. Supposing the returns to be no better this year, the Minister will have to provide for a deficit of $63,598,794. Of this he proposed to raise $27,253,583 by new taxes, and to borrow the rest. The cost of the reorganization of the army and navy and the construction of new cross roads—also a military measure—is estimated at $36,441,000, every cent of which is to be borrowed. It must be remembered that in this the ordinary expenses of the army and navy are not included. In addition to it, however, the sum to be paid to the railroad companies, as a guarantee of interest, will also have to be borrowed. So that, all told, the sum to be borrowed this year will be in round numbers $56,041,000, which will bring the floating debt—that is, the loans for short terms—up to $140,511,792, in round numbers. All this is in addition to the old debt left after the war of 1870, which has virtually not been touched in the way of reduction. The new armament of the troops, new barracks, and new fortifications are this year to cost $8,000,000, and the improvement of the navy $5,000,000, in round numbers.

The Opportunists in the Chamber have long been opposed to this steady deepening of the financial gulf, and last year took for their motto, "No new loans and no new taxes." But this simply brought them to loggerheads with the Ministry, and caused the ruin of the budget and the voting of the necessary supplies in monthly twelfths, as a sort of compromise. As long as Boulanger was in the Cabinet and represented the national policy, retrenchment was impossible. No Ministry could keep him going and try to retain its hold on the country through his policy, and at the same time bring the expenses within the limits which, in the opinion of prudent financiers, the situation calls for. His last proposal was to ascertain whether his preparations for war were working well by "mobilizing" a corps d'armée at the cost of nearly $1,000,000 in cash. "Mobilizing" literally means putting the corps into the field, in full readiness for active service, with its supplies and transportation of every description, with its reserves under arms, and with military seizure of the railroads within the zone of proposed operations, reducing the number of trains available for passenger and other ordinary traffic to two trains a day. This of course involves a disturbance of industry which would cost indirectly many millions more. The Germans have their mobilizing machinery in a state of the utmost readiness, but they got it up without borrowing, and took plenty of time for the task.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, May 25, to TUESDAY, May 31, 1887, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE President has appointed E. H. Lacombe, Corporation Counsel of New York, to be the additional United States Judge for the Second New York Judicial Circuit. Other appointments by the President are: Henry F. Downing of New York to be Consul at St. Paul de Loanda, Portugal, and Edward J. Hill of North Carolina to be Consul at Montevideo.

The President has denied the application for pardon of James J. Stanley, who was convicted of fraudulent registration at St. Louis, saying, "I cannot pardon a crime against the election laws except it be in a case presenting unusually strong considerations for clemency. I consider such offences the worst of all crimes, and I know of none the punishment of which is more important to the public."

In the drill of militia companies at Washington on May 26, two Southern companies, the Vicksburg Southrons and the Memphis Zouaves, left the line because a colored company from Virginia was given a place in front of them. At a reception on the evening following, the President shook hands with every member of the colored company. The largest prize awarded—$5,000—was won by the Lomax Rifles, a company from Alabama.

A reversed civil-rights suit for damages has been begun against the Central Railroad of Georgia. The complainant is a white man, who is aggrieved because he was not allowed to ride in the car specially set aside for negroes. He claimed that his ticket entitled him to ride anywhere on the train, but the conductor ejected him from the special colored people's car.

Mr. Geo. W. Cable has cancelled an engagement to lecture at Raleigh, N. C., as well as at Columbia, S. C., on account of the ill feeling against him.

A feature of the Memorial Day exercises at New Orleans was the delivery of an oration by Mr. Theodore S. Wilkinson, member-elect of Congress, who, though too young at the time to bear arms, was in complete sympathy with the South during the war. All the Confederate veteran organizations were represented by committees bearing floral tributes. At Richmond, Virginia, many graves of the dead of both armies were decorated by the same persons.

Gov. Hill of New York has vetoed the Vedder Liquor-Tax Bill, which put a graduated tax on dealers. The specific reasons for his veto are, that "the tax is not uniform throughout the State," and that "the bill provides that the taxes raised shall go into the State Treasury, rather than into the treasury of the localities where the licenses are granted."

A bill has passed both branches of the Michigan Legislature which requires persons intending to marry to secure a license from the County Clerk. A certificate of consent from the parents or guardian must be filed with the Clerk if either of the contracting parties is a minor. The Marriage-License Law in Pennsylvania has been so amended as to confer on the police magistrates the power to hear applications and to forward them to the Clerk of the Court, who grants the license if the proof is found sufficient. It formerly required the applicant to appear in person before the Clerk.

A stringent high-license bill, which has passed the lower branch of the Michigan Legislature, has been reported in the Senate with the addition of the civil-damages clause which is a part of the present law.

Edward F. Curtis has been appointed Chief of State Police of Rhode Island, vice Charles R. Brayton resigned. The duty of this officer is to enforce the Prohibitory Liquor Law.

Gov. John W. Davis of Rhode Island was inaugurated May 31. He is the first Democratic Governor that the State has had for thirty-four years. A Democratic Lieutenant-Governor was elected by the Legislature.

A bill to regulate telephone rates was rejected in the Massachusetts House on May 25 by a vote of 57 yeas to 105 nays. On the preceding week the House accepted the bill by a vote of 75 yeas to 71 nays. Another effort to admit veterans to the civil service of Massachusetts, without the examination required by the present law, provoked an adverse report by the legislative committee to which the bill was referred.

The Knights of Labor in Cleveland, O., have decided to organize a separate political party. They are said to be able to control about 5,000 votes in the county. They have resolved to put a full State and county ticket in the field next fall.

Not less than 17,000 men are idle in Chicago on account of the strike and lockout in the building trades, and it is believed that 1,000 mechanics have left the city and found work elsewhere. It is estimated that $900,000 has been lost in wages by the men out of work. In addition to this there must be counted, as the financial effect of the strike, a very large sum, representing capital withdrawn from building enterprises this season.

There arrived at Philadelphia, May 29, on the *Scandinavia*, from Dublin, 100 pauper emigrants from Ireland—men, women, and children—all from County Mayo, who were detained by the Custom-house Inspectors, under the Pauper Immigrant Act. Their passage was paid by the English Government, and they received drafts on the American Exchange, New York, for amounts ranging from £1 to £5. Most of them, however, were met a few days later by kinspeople and friends who were able to provide for them, and they were allowed to land.

During the week ended May 28, 1,531 emigrants left Queenstown for America. This is 400 more than during the corresponding week in 1886.

Customs officers at San Francisco on May 28 seized the German bark *Nautilus* from Hamburg, on which $3,000 worth of Havana cigars and a quantity of French brandy were found. The brandy was found in boxes labelled "salt pork."

The cup at the intercollegiate athletic meeting May 28 was won by Yale. The sport was good and the intercollegiate record was broken in four events. Harmer of Yale ran the mile in 4 min. 36 4-5 sec.; T. G. Shearman of the same college jumped 21 feet 7½ inches in the running broad jump, and Coxe, also of Yale, threw the hammer 98 feet 6 inches, and put the shot 40 feet 9½ inches, both being new records.

The damage done by the forest fires in the Northern Peninsula of Michigan during the past fortnight is reckoned at $7,000,000, including $2,500,000 caused by the destruction of the town of Lake Linden. Eight persons are known to have perished, and destitution prevails throughout the burned district.

One of the largest fires that have broken out in this city for several years was the burning, early on the morning of May 27, of the Belt Line Street Railroad stables on Tenth Avenue, between Fifty-third and Fifty-fourth Streets. The loss is not less than $750,000. Nearly 1,200 horses were burned alive. Several tenement-houses near by were destroyed, and many narrow escapes were made by the occupants. At very nearly the same hour on the same morning the stable of a street railroad company in Cincinnati was burned. It contained more than 300 horses, but none perished.

Near the Horseshoe Bend on the Pennsylvania Railroad on the night of May 28, by a collision of trains eight persons were killed and six injured. On the St. Johnsbury and Lake Champlain Road, near Hardwick, Vt., on the same day, a landslide caused the wreck of a freight train, and three men were killed.

The third death from yellow fever occurred at Key West May 29. The Board of Health has made application for the use of the hospital building at the United States barracks, situated in the outskirts of the town.

Walt Whitman celebrated his sixty-eighth birthday May 30. He received many letters and telegrams of congratulation.

Among the notable persons who have died during the week are: Josiah Sutherland, for many years presiding Judge of the Court of General Sessions, and for twenty years a judge of the New York courts; John K. Tarbox, Insurance Commissioner of Massachusetts; Thomas R. Trowbridge, one of the best known and most respected business men of New Haven; the Rev. Richard Newton, an Episcopalian clergyman of Philadelphia; Mrs. Eliza Blake, one of the first settlers of Indianapolis, whither she went fifty six years ago; Ben: Perley Poore, the well-known Washington newspaper correspondent, and writer of reminiscences of public men and events at the capital; and Henry J. Ramsdell, another well-known Washington correspondent.

FOREIGN.

A new French Cabinet has been formed by M. Rouvier. It consists of M. Rouvier, Premier and Minister of Finance and of Posts and Telegraphs; M. Fallières, Minister of the Interior; M. Flourens, Minister of Foreign Affairs; M. Spuller, Minister of Public Instruction; M. Mazeau, Minister of Justice; Gen. Ferron, Minister of War; M. Barbey, Minister of Marine; M. Barbe, Minister of Agriculture; M. de Hérédia, Minister of Public Works; and M. Dautresme, Minister of Commerce. M. Rouvier declared, in announcing his policy, that the new budget would be prepared in accord with the recent vote of the Chamber. He would maintain the Goblet Cabinet's military bills, and his foreign policy would be firm and prudent. Preparations for the exhibition in 1889 would be actively forwarded. He announced the determination of the Ministry to resign unless they obtained a majority of the Republican votes in the Chamber; that the Ministry would firmly apply the existing legislation on education; and in regard to economy in the public expenditures they proposed to retrench 60,000,000f. Referring to the political color of the Cabinet, the Premier said: "We do not reflect especially the views of anybody." Some one cried: "You are Ferry's double." A resolution was moved of want of confidence in the Government, in the Chamber of Deputies, May 31, and was rejected by a vote of 285 to 139. Deputies of the Right estimate that of the 285 votes received by the Government, 130 were cast by members of the Right. If this be correct, the Government has a purely Republican majority that is very small.

On May 31 a number of youths gathered outside the Chamber of Deputies and cried "Vive Boulanger!" In the evening there was a brilliant assemblage at the military fête at the Opera-house. While the company was assembling, thousands of persons gathered in the vicinity shouting, "Resignation!" "Resignation!" "Long live Boulanger!" "We will have him!" The crowd increased in numbers until it became so turbulent that the Republican Guard, which had been held in readiness, was ordered out to disperse it, and the guard was greeted with hisses. But it was not necessary to make arrests.

The Opéra Comique in Paris was burned on the evening of May 25, when it was filled with an audience. The fire broke out during the first act of the opera "Mignon." One of the wings caught from a gas jet, and the whole stage was immediately enveloped in flames. The fire soon spread to the rest of the house, although the iron curtain was lowered. The audience was panic-stricken, and it is thought that nearly 200 persons perished. On May 28, 75 corpses

had been recovered from the ruins. The library of the theatre was destroyed with all its contents, including many valuable scores, and 6,000 costumes were burned. A pamphlet was vended on the streets, two days after the fire, which set forth that if Ministers of Fine Arts had had as high a sense of public duty as has been shown by Gen. Boulanger, the disaster would not have occurred. The Chamber of Deputies has voted a credit of 200,000 francs for the relief of sufferers, and the municipal authorities have ordered the managers of the Palais Royal, the Renaissance, the Ambigu, and the Variétés Theatres to close until alterations have been made which will afford greater security to the public.

The great strike of miners and other laborers in Belgium is not yet ended. The Socialists have taken advantage of the strikes to make demonstrations at various places. They have held meetings at which violent speeches have been made and the red flag displayed. At Verviers the Anarchists incited the strikers to plunder. A mob attempted to parade the streets, but was dispersed by the police with drawn swords, and the gendarmes with fixed bayonets. A committee of strikers wrote to Premier Beernaert demanding universal suffrage and the abandonment of the Cattle Bill, and hinting that if he failed to reply the strikers would march upon Brussels. At a Progressionist-Liberal conference on May 29, a resolution against universal suffrage was adopted by a vote of 317 to 127; but the conference, by a vote of 379 against 45, pronounced in favor of granting the franchise to citizens able to read and write. The *North German Gazette* (Berlin) says that the Belgian Government has approached Germany on the question of mutual action against Socialistic conspiracies. Since the outbreaks of the strikers the German press has described Belgium as the home and hotbed of Anarchists.

The cotton-spinners at Ashton-under-Lyne, England, have agreed to the proposition made by the spinners in Manchester that the mills should be run on half time for eight weeks in case two-thirds of the trade agree to the plan, on account of the dulness of trade.

Two hundred and twenty miners were entombed in a coal pit at Blantyre, near Glasgow, May 28, by an explosion. The shaft was blocked with débris and many of them perished. Some of the bodies have been taken out, charred and mutilated.

The various British chambers of commerce and similar associations have agreed to issue a protest against the import duties on iron and steel imposed by the Canadian Government.

At Bodyke, Ireland, many tenants have been evicted, and many more have barricaded their homes and organized their friends to assist in resisting the police. A serious conflict is feared. A crowd of 1,500 farm laborers in Wales, May 28, surrounded 200 soldiers and police sent to protect an auctioneer who was selling cattle distrained for tithe, forced them back, caught the auctioneer, turned his coat inside out, led him in procession through the town, and, after roughly handling him, made him sign a promise never to act as auctioneer in that neighborhood again.

Mr. Gladstone wrote May 31 that as the Unionist Liberals have assisted in passing the second reading of the permanent Coercion Bill, the Irish question is virtually settled for the present.

Canon Fleming, one of the Queen's chaplains in ordinary, has been accused by the *Pall Mall Gazette* of plagiarism, in using as his own in a volume of sermons a sermon by the Rev. T. DeWitt Talmage of Brooklyn. He has written to the *Gazette* that the use of the sermon was "an act of inadvertence." He apologized to Dr. Talmage for the "mistake," but the *Gazette* declares that no apology can cover his sin.

The race for the (English) Derby Stakes, for three-year olds, was won May 25 by Mr. J. Simons Harrison's bay colt Merry Hampton. On May 27 the race for the Oaks Stakes, for three year old fillies, was won by the Duke of Beaufort's chestnut filly Rêve d'Or.

In the first race on May 28 by the English yachts from Southend to Harwich, the course of fifty miles was finished first by the *Thistle*. The second boat to cross the line was the *Genesta*, and she was followed by the *Irex*. The forty-five-mile yacht race off Harwich May 30 was won by the *Irex*; and so was the third race on May 31, by a time allowance.

The Anglo-Turkish Convention relative to Egypt provides for the maintenance of all existing firmans and the neutralization of the Suez Canal, and guarantees internationally the inviolability of Egypt. It is stipulated that the British shall withdraw from Egypt in three years unless the country is threatened with danger. England shall thereafter supervise the whole Egyptian Army for two years more, with the right to reoccupy, with or without the aid of Turkish troops, if order is disturbed or an invasion is feared. Russian objection to the convention finds expression in the declaration by the *Novoe Vremya* of St. Petersburg, which says that it places Egypt under the perpetual tutelage of England.

English engineers are fortifying Herat. Walls and trenches are being strengthened and redoubts built to resist artillery. The Afghans are displaying hatred of the English, and the Amir has been obliged to appoint military officials to protect the men employed on the works. The aim of the English auhorities is to enable a garrison of 10,000 men at Herat to withstand a siege for ninety days.

The Czar has issued a ukase prohibiting aliens from acquiring real property in Russian Poland, and the heir of a foreigner in order to inherit must become a naturalized Russian. The measure has excited indignation at Berlin and Vienna. In the Polish portion of Hungary 2,000 families are themselves property-holders, or have near relatives who are property holders in the proclaimed district. In Germany the act is looked upon as another blow at the German subjects in Western Russia. The law, moreover, which prohibits foreign Jews from carrying on business within the Russian Empire, has now been extended to Poland.

Successful experiments in cotton culture have been made in three different districts of the Caucasus. American, Egyptian, and Caucasian plants are found to flourish equally well. A company has been formed to establish the first extensive plantations, which will be in the vicinity of Erivan. The Caucasian Agricultural Society is about to send two experts to America to study the system of cotton culture there.

Later reports of the incendiary fire near St. Petersburg on May 24 are that sixty houses were destroyed. Placards were posted two days before, declaring that the villas would be burned. When the fire was started, a wind carried the flame from one house to another, and it could not be controlled until sixty villas had been burned. The loss amounts to several million rubles.

The Rothschilds' petroleum conduits near Batum, in Russia, have been destroyed with dynamite. The outrage is said to have been caused by trade jealousy,

The Hungarian Diet was closed May 26, and Emperor Francis Joseph, in a speech to the members, said: "While you, equally with us, desire to maintain peace, should this be impossible, you have shown that every son of our beloved Hungary is ready to defend with his blood the possessions and interests of the throne, monarchy, and fatherland."

At a Papal Consistory, May 26, Mgr. Pallotte and Father Bausa were made Cardinals. Ten bishops were preconized in France and one in Mexico. The Pope proclaimed the new Catholic Hierarchy of Australasia, making the Bishops of Adelaide, Brisbane, and Wellington Metropolitans.

The Vatican, replying to a request for an interpretation of the Pope's recent allocution, has sent circulars to the Papal Nuncios abroad stating that although the Pope's declarations are moderate nothing will be changed, and if the Italian Government desires peace, the Pope is disposed to treat on the basis of the restoration of his temporal power.

The Italian Chamber of Deputies, by a vote of 170 to 49, on May 30 adopted a naval credit for 85,000,000 lire. The money will be expended on ironclads, torpedoes, and forts, the credit to extend over a period of ten years.

The central crater of Mount Etna was discovered to be in a state of eruption May 31. The flow is increasing in volume, and heavy clouds of smoke and masses of stones and cinders are issuing from the crater.

Herr Krupp has finished a 40-centimètre gun, the biggest ever made at Essen. At a trial of the weapon it shot into pieces armor 97 centimètres thick at a distance of 3,000 feet.

Arrangements have been made for a great celebration of the anniversary of the battles of 1870 around Metz. Veterans will go from all parts of Germany.

The report of the English specialist, Dr. Mackenzie, on the condition of the German Crown Prince—that his disease of the throat is not so serious as to debar hope that the trouble may be removed with proper treatment in the course of time—is less assuring than had been expected, and has cast a gloom over official circles in Berlin. A return of the trouble in a more serious form is feared.

A cyclone in India and the Indian Ocean on May 28 destroyed much property and caused the loss of a number of ships. A Calcutta steamer, with 750 persons aboard, was caught by it and has not since been heard of.

Emin Pasha has reported the discovery of a southern affluent of the Albert Nyanza.

Lord Lansdowne spoke at Ottawa May 26 about the O'Brien "invasion," treating it jocularly. He said: "I understand a further object of the invaders was to overrun the country, and above all things to put to flight a certain high official of the State, of whom, unless I misunderstand what has taken place upon this occasion, the people of Ottawa are not particularly anxious to get rid just at present." Mr. O'Brien made an address at Albany May 26, and on the next night made another speech at Montreal. On the 29th he spoke in Boston, where a reception was given to him on the next evening.

The Legislature of Quebec has passed a bill for the abolition of the tax on commercial travellers.

An effort is being made to float a new Quebec loan of $3,500,000 in France. It is expected that more favorable terms will be obtained there than in England.

The first train on the Canadian Pacific Railroad reached the Vancouver ocean terminus May 24. Before that day trains stopped at New Westminster. There was a great celebration of the completion of the line.

Earthquake shocks were felt in the City of Mexico and throughout the valley at 2:50 o'clock on the morning of May 29. The shock lasted five seconds. Next there came, after a low roar, a violent oscillation of the earth from east to west, lasting thirty-nine seconds. Houses swayed and persons arising from their beds were thrown to the floor. Bells were rung in the hotels, and doors were forced open. Then came still another oscillation of much violence, proceeding from north to south. On the same day four shocks, one being of great violence, were felt at Ancona, Italy.

It is reported from Cucuta, Santander, Columbia, that inoculation for yellow fever has proved successful. About 10 per cent. of the inoculated patients have been attacked by the disease, but none of them has died.

REFUNDING THE DEBT.

THE *Financial Chronicle* makes the suggestion that the reduction of the principal of the public debt which has gone on continuously for more than twenty years, ought not to stop even for the short space that intervenes before the maturity of the 4½ per cent. bonds. These bonds, $250,000,000 in all, become payable in 1891. The *Chronicle* does not offer any plan for continuing the debt-paying process, but thinks that it is not impossible to contrive some refunding plan that would be acceptable to the bondholders, whereby surplus revenues might be continuously applied to the lessening of the debt, although at some less rapid rate than has prevailed heretofore.

We agree with the *Chronicle* that debt-paying ought not to stop even for a short time, and that we ought not to dismantle our tax machinery while so large a claim as $1,100,000,000 is still outstanding. The public mind will be in a state of uneasiness as soon as the public debt becomes a stationary, immovable mass, calling for a fixed amount of interest yearly. The people are perfectly willing to be taxed for the reduction of the debt. Indeed, it may be said they are not willing not to be taxed for it. They have been impatient of the debt from the beginning, but impatient only to see it honestly paid and discharged. They have taken a just national pride in seeing it melt away. There have been periods of temporary craze, when a minority have demanded the payment of the bonds in greenbacks. Some few have bewailed the resumption of specie payments because the restoration of parity between specie and paper made the paying of bonds in greenbacks no longer advantageous to the one side or disadvantageous to the other. But among the great mass of citizens there never was a time when any questionable mode of payment would have been acceptable. Nor will there be any such time hereafter. The only ground for discontent will arise when the payment of the debt shall be checked by the inability of the Government to get hold of any bonds to pay and cancel. That time will arrive before Congress meets again in regular session, so that the present discussion is by no means premature.

The Secretary of the Treasury can dispose of his surplus for a few months by anticipating the payment of interest on the debt. That is an awkward scheme of finance, but not so awkward as piling up money in the Treasury. A few millions might be accumulated without danger to business interests, but if any disturbance should occur in the money market, from any cause whatever, it would be ascribed to the hoarding of the Government, and the political consequences would be serious. The Administration would be held accountable for the prosperity of the country at all points. Every man whose business did not go to his liking would blame the Government for making money tight. Paying the interest in advance would be open to criticism in ordinary times, but, as an alternative to the hiding of the people's money in a napkin, it would be approved by ninety-nine out of every hundred persons in the community. It is only as a temporary expedient, and in some sort a necessity, that anybody would recommend it.

What is wanted is a plan for continuing the payment of the principal of the debt without intermission, and without greatly extending the time for the ultimate redemption of the whole. If the whole of it were due now, it would take about ten years to pay it off. Therefore, an extension of some part of it for ten years would be admissible. Any long extension in exchange for a lower rate of interest would not be acceptable. The public mind is fixed rather upon the principal than upon the rate of interest. Refunding cannot be brought before Congress with any hope of success if it contemplates any considerable postponement of the time of final payment.

What, then, can be done? The bondholders cannot be forced to take their money before it is due. A contract has been entered into which must be observed. At the time when it was made it was deemed greatly advantageous to the Government. Bonds bearing a high rate of interest were refunded at a lower rate than had been considered possible in this country. Only ten years have passed, yet so great has been the accumulation of capital in that time that twenty-year loans can be had on Government security at about 2½ per cent. per annum. The 4 per cent. bonds, whose negotiation at par was looked at as something wonderful in 1877, bring nearly 30 per cent. premium. The holders do not want to be disturbed. They only ask to be let alone. Large amounts of the public debt are tied up in trusts and cannot be disturbed. But there are other large amounts, whose situation is well known, that the Government may deal with in a manner satisfactory to the holders and to the taxpayers, *i. e.*, the bonds held by the national banks.

The amount and description of bonds held by the banks are subject to frequent change, but we may assume that they will hold as much as $200,000,000 for all purposes until the maturity of the 4s in 1907. The amount to be paid on these bonds running till 1907 is twenty years' interest, or $160,000,000, plus the principal, being $360,000,000 in all. Now, the problem is to pay as much as possible of this aggregate sum before the next batch of bonds, the 4½s, fall due. If the interest could be reduced to 2½ per cent. instead of 4, the Government could afford to pay the other 1½ per cent. in a lump sum now, seeing that it has no other use for its money; but the banks could afford to take less, since they are in the money-lending business, and could use this premium or advance payment of interest in their loans and discounts at a better rate than 2½ per cent. The 30 per cent. premium on the bonds is realizable now by any holder, whether a bank or a private person. It can be obtained by a mere sale in the open market. Therefore the Government would confer no favor upon any holder by offering him $30 in cash and a new 2½ per cent. bond for his present holding. The banks, however, could and would take less than the market premium, because their premium is not realizable while their notes are outstanding. They can only get it by retiring from business as banks of issue. Upon condition of a change in the law which would not lessen the security of the bank circulation at all, they could afford to take in lieu of the $30 premium a sum which, invested at 2½ per cent., would produce $30 in twenty years. A bank holding $100,000 4 per cent. bonds has a marketable article of $130,000. But this is subject to a shrinkage of $1,500 per year, the whole premium being extinguished in twenty years. By remaining *in statu quo* the premium is lost. Therefore it can accept less than the premium as a present payment. If the Government can negotiate for anything less, and can substitute a bond at 2½ per cent. instead of 4, it will make a clear gain besides using its present revenues to pay off a future liability.

To illustrate in another way: A bank or other holder of $100,000 4 per cents will get by mere inertia $80,000 interest in twenty years. By accepting a 2½ per cent. bond he will get $50,000 interest plus $30,000 cash (if that should be the agreed premium) plus the use of the $30,000 for twenty years. Of course the agreed premium would not be $30,000, but it might be as much as $20,000. Such a plan would be attractive only to the enterprising class of bondholders, but the banks belong to this class. So also do the savings banks and the life-insurance companies. They know how to make profitable use of the premium if they can once get it. There is another factor in the case of no small importance, viz., the tax on bank circulation. This amounts to 1 per cent. per annum. It is no longer needed by the Government, yet it may properly be used as a make-weight in any plan for refunding the bonds held by the banks.

It has been urged that this plan would have no chance of success in Congress, because it is too complicated to be understood by the people, that an outcry would be raised against the payment of a premium to the bondholders, and that this outcry would be all the louder if the national banks were the ones to reap the premium. The plan has been before Congress for some years without attracting much attention. It was first suggested by Mr. John Jay Knox, then Comptroller of the Currency. It was subsequently introduced in the House by Mr. Hewitt and advocated by him in a speech. It was also, we believe, urged by Senator Jones of Nevada in the Senate. It was not treated seriously in either house, because the subject was not then a pressing one. It has now become pressing and must be treated seriously. We have little doubt that all persons can be made to understand it who can understand any financial question. At all events, a really necessary measure cannot be postponed because a portion of the community are too ignorant or too indolent to comprehend its merits.

DUMB LEGISLATION.

THERE is no phenomenon of our State government, as we see it at Albany, more startling than the increasing tendency to push through pieces of legislation of the most startling character, seriously affecting public and private rights, not only without adequate discussion, but without any discussion what-

ever. That is to say, we see every winter very grave changes made in the law without being any better informed, or in fact nearly so well informed, of the reason of them than if we lived in Russia, and were governed by imperial ukase, instead of living in New York and being governed by acts and resolutions of a deliberative body controlled by a Constitution. For instance, the Field Code, making marked modifications in the law under which the people of this State have lived for two centuries, was passed in the Assembly, without debate, by the aid of half a-dozen loafing members called in hastily from the lobby. We know what the author of the Code and a number of other well or ill-informed persons have to say for it; but we do not know what reasons influenced the Assembly in passing it. There was no more debate about it, no member thought it any more worth his while to give the people of the State an account of his reasons for making these great changes in their laws, than if he belonged to the Imperial Chancellery at St. Petersburg.

The same thing may be said of the bill providing for the Constitutional Convention. It was, everything considered, a very peculiar bill in various ways, as any one may see by reading Gov. Hill's veto of it. It made various startling departures from what any plain man would consider the natural and proper course in calling such a convention. These departures may have been justifiable. But whether they were justifiable or not, why the bill was first drawn one way and then drawn another way, none of the majority thought it worth his while to tell the public. They simply passed it, just as the Czar issues a decree, as their will and pleasure.

About the High-License Bill, owing to the great public interest in it, there was some discussion, but about the Vedder bill there was very little by legislators. Nobody knows why any legislator voted for it, unless it be Mr. Ernest Crosby, who will never tell. Nor does anybody know why the Insurance-Tax Bill was passed, or what was the influence which operated in the last hours of the session to cause the hurried passage of the shameless bills virtually taking the control of the Central Park out of the hands of the Commissioners in this city, by handing it over to the National Guard as a parade ground, and fixing the portions of it which may be used by bicycles.

We might greatly multiply these illustrations, but the above will serve our purpose. They show that enormous powers over the fortune, comfort, and safety of the people of the State are exercised freely by one of the most dangerous bodies known to civilized men—that is, an assembly which gives no reasons for its decisions. We do not allow judges trained in the law, and selected with care for their probity and capacity, to behave in this way. In every civilized State they are compelled, either by law or usage, when they decide an important controversy, to give in detail the arguments by which they reached their conclusions, not only in order to show whether the conclusions are sound, but also as a check on caprice, or corruption, or favoritism. We know that even bad men shrink from acting wrongly if they are bound to put on record the reasons for acting. And yet we in this State allow a body of obscure men to get together in Albany every winter, and for four or five months to play ducks and drakes with the gravest interests of a great community, without giving anybody the slightest explanation of their conduct, and then sneak back to their villages and farms, with their tongues in their cheeks, to live on their booty, laugh at the indignation of their victims, and be forgotten.

Of course we do not expect every man in the Legislature to get up and give the reasons for his vote. Heaven forbid. But we do expect every political party which shapes or controls legislation in a deliberative body to put forward men capable of speaking for it, of expounding its motives and justifying its policy. Had the Republican party at Albany any such man this winter? Not one. Or last winter? Not one. Has there been the slightest sign of shame over this dumb contempt for the public? Not the slightest.

It will probably be said or thought by some that this silence of the party in the Legislature is at least made up for by the outspokenness of the party organs in the press. Those who think so are egregiously mistaken. The solemn truth is—and we commend it to the serious attention of all good men and women in this State—that the more outrageous or inexplicable the conduct of the majority in the Legislature is, the deeper the silence which the party newspapers maintain about it. Take as an illustration that extraordinary, and, indeed, we might say unprecedented incident, the refusal of the Republican majority in the Senate, for several years running, either to confirm or reject the nominations of Democratic Governors for the Quarantine Commission, so that Republican partisans should be enabled to hold for four and five years offices of which the terms were two and three years. If ever there was conduct by public men which needed explanation, it was this. The need of explanation became absolutely crying when Gov. Hill made three first-class nominations this spring, two of them Republicans, to fill the vacancies, and the Senate again "hung them up." Not one syllable of excuse or elucidation touching this extraordinary performance has come from any Republican in or out of the Senate, and be it well remembered that the Republican party press has been as mute as the politicians. The Organ in this city, which is believed to have more influence with these little gangs of conspirators at Albany than anybody else, and ought to have it by right, has been silent as the grave about the whole matter. The remedy is plain enough. There is only one, and it is easy of application. We must have a revision of the Constitution which will curtail the powers of mischief of these dumb but predatory animals.

FAILURE TO COMPROMISE IN VIRGINIA.

All negotiations between Virginia and her English creditors are at an end. As it is now clear that the sole endeavor of the State was to effect by persuasion what it had failed to effect by laws, threats, and years of litigation — that is, a substantial acquiescence with the "Riddleberger" settlement—the negotiations were of course foredoomed to failure. The creditors are no doubt disappointed, but a review of their position should make them take heart again. The niggardly policy of the State has at least prevented them from being tempted to abandon all their real security by the offer of a large sum, and they will be spared the future bitterness of finding their claims denied to them, principal and interest, and themselves treated to insult and warmed-over excuses, after the manner with which Tennessee treated her creditors. As they now stand, they can fight on, sure that their coupons will have some value not dependent on the pleasure of a repudiating party or State, and it is highly probable that this value will slowly rise after the immediate present.

If, after thus reviewing their position, any of the creditors still fail to feel the advantage of having a legal right in place of Virginia's bare word for a round sum, let him send for a file of Virginia papers and read them. He will find that the refusal to accept the munificent compromise is considered by the repudiators "as a declaration of war." Now who would care to trust to people who can so twist facts that, after harrying their creditors for five years in order to drive them from a legal stronghold, and failing in that, they call the mere refusal to vacate at request an act of aggression too great to be borne?

The newspapers, of course, are full of the severe measures the State will take. They threaten to pass a constitutional amendment repudiating the whole debt, to levy monthly taxes, and darkly hint at other "honorable" measures for destroying the tax-receivable quality of the coupons. But, as the Baltimore *Sun* dryly remarks, the remedies are not of obvious efficacy. The editors also trust to the chapter of accidents. Stress is laid upon the fact that the death of Mr. Justice Woods will give the President a chance to appoint a successor who will join with a minority in the present court to reverse the decision making coupons tender for taxes. This is puerile. The President may be trusted to fill this important position with an honorable man, learned in the law. The bondholders need ask for nothing more. Such a man will follow what has, with very few exceptions, been the custom of the Supreme Court, and abide by its past decisions. So strong is this rule of abiding by decided cases that there is no fear that the judges who dissented from the opinion in the 114th United States Reports would reverse the decision now. They abode by the majority opinion in the 116th United States, and the necessary grounds of the decision are too narrow to be changed by anything short of reversal. The Virginians should recognize once for all that nothing short of an amendment to the Constitution of the United States can change the tax-receivable quality of the coupons.

As to the chapter of accidents outside of the courts, the bondholders have much more to hope. Virginia is now probably at its lowest moral and intellectual ebb. Though the State as a whole is richer than before the war, its best people, by a transfer of wealth, are poorer. In consequence its energetic blood has emigrated, its citizens have

taken high places, especially in Maryland, New York, and the Pacific States, and are indeed scattered all over the West and North. The gap left has not yet been filled. On the contrary, Mahone, Riddleberger, and Massey have been the dominating influences over both political parties, to which men of placid temperament and not particularly strong character, like Fitz-Hugh Lee, have been obliged to succumb. Emigration has not set in sufficiently to make its influence felt. But in the future, when the West becomes practically filled up, it is not unlikely that the population of Virginia will change. Western and Northern capital and energy will develop it, and bring in business principles to replace the present mawkish sentimentality and public dishonesty. Then Virginians will see that it will actually pay to have good credit, and will settle their debt. So far the whites only have been spoken of. With the colored people there is still more hope of advance. The schools are educating them rapidly, and with education they will be far more subject to the appeals of reason and honesty than at present. A Riddleberger and a Mahone will find them less supple tools for their demagogic purposes.

At the same time, unless the creditors could continue to worry the State, their position would be a precarious one. If the State could prevent the coupons from entering its treasury, its legislators would feel so rich that the same faults of intellect and character which prevent them from paying their debts, would cause them to run into all sorts of extravagant expenditures. Even now State pensions begin to agitate the politicians' brains, and next we should hear of internal improvements, schemes for making Norfolk rival New York, subsidies to railways, monuments to public characters, and the other hundred schemes for frittering away the public money. But upon this the coupons will be a constant check. The higher the taxes the more temptation for paying them with coupons, and their menace will spoil the State's credit. Thus it will be impossible to forget their debts, and the two greatest dangers in a matter of this sort, stolid forgetfulness and actual inability to pay, will be prevented. In 1795 Georgia made her famous Yazoo land sales. In 1796 she repudiated the sales and publicly burnt the Act of '95 before the State-house, using a sun-glass that fire from heaven might be called down upon the act. In 1798, to emphasize further her repudiation, a new Constitution was formed to embody it, and that same year, at her instigation, the eleventh amendment to the Constitution of the United States, which gives States immunity from suit, was passed. Yet, with all these barriers against the claims, they continued to be agitated, and in the end the State was glad to cede the lands, subject to the claims, to the United States. The matter thus became transferred to the national Government, and, through the virulence of John Randolph, long remained unsettled, but finally, in 1814, a compromise was made by which the creditors received $8,000,000.

No better instance could be given of the difficulty of shaking off a just claim. The Yazoo land sales were undoubtedly carried through the State Legislature by bribery, and the equity of the claimants depended solely upon the fact that they were innocent purchasers for value. In Virginia's case there is no question of bribery or doubt that she has received full value; and her creditors, instead of having nothing except pluck and a strong sense of right to depend upon, have in the coupon an automatic torment for the State Treasury.

DIRT ROADS.

ABOUT this time of the year Americans begin to give an amount of attention to roads and road-making which is sadly wanting during the rest of it. There is probably no people in the world which has made such progress in the arts of civilized life generally that seems to care so little for what a good many social philosophers put among the very foremost of them, the art of road-making. In fact, some philosophers have pronounced the history of roads the history of civilization. Nothing distinguishes a civilized country from a barbarous one so markedly as the difference in the means of communication between one locality and another. As a general rule, one knows that a people is rising in the social scale by seeing its roads improve; one knows that it is declining by seeing its roads go out of repair. Nothing marked so vividly the great plunge into barbarism which Europe took after the fall of the Roman Empire as the disappearance of the superb lines of communication which led from the Forum straight as an arrow to every corner of the Roman world. Nothing, too, tells the tale of Chinese decadence so distinctly as the ruin which has overtaken the great roads and canals which at an earlier period connected the capital with the provinces. When an American goes to Europe for the first time, nothing seems odder than the superiority of the European roads in countries which can make no pretence of equalling the United States in other marks of material progress. We are not a declining people; on the contrary, we are the most growing people in the world. We are not among the poor nations of the globe; on the contrary, we are probably the very richest. We are not indifferent to material improvement; on the contrary, the most frequent charge made against us is that we give too much attention to it; and yet we are worse off by far, in the matter of roads, than any other highly civilized community.

The original reason of the American indifference about roads was probably the rapidity with which the early settlers scattered themselves in small communities over wide areas. The fewer people there are to the square mile of inhabited territory, of course the costlier roads become; and when population is very much dispersed, as in frontier settlements, people cease to think of good roads as a luxury within their reach, and devote themselves simply to the task of keeping them passable. This tendency to neglect the art of road-making would probably have disappeared early in this century if the railroads had not come in as the great lines of communication, thrown the post roads and military roads out of use, and relegated all roads but railroads to the condition of cross roads or byways. The railroads not only did this, but they dispersed the settlers over still wider areas than ever, and thus made the prospect of running a good highway past every man's door seem hopeless. The consequence has been that the early colonial or frontier state of mind—in which a road was considered good enough if it was simply practicable to wheeled vehicles (that is, if there were no holes or rocks in it sufficiently formidable to upset a carriage), and anything better than this an unattainable luxury—has almost settled into a national tradition.

One has only to go a few miles out of any of our large cities to find the roads in every direction being repaired in the exact manner in which they were repaired by the struggling colonists between 1630 and 1700—that is, nothing is attempted beyond filling up the holes with any material that is at hand, and affording facilities for the water to run off. The material that is at hand is, of course, the mud or compost out of the adjacent ditch. This is shovelled up with the utmost gravity and deposited all along the centre, filling up the cavities and hiding from view the projecting rocks. In districts in which gravel or strong clay is obtained in this way, the result is often satisfactory enough. But as a general rule the contents of the ditch are simply mud or decayed vegetable matter, fit only for manure. Spread over the road as a plaster, it rapidly becomes dust and is swept away by the wind, or else becomes mud and is washed back again into the ditch, or down into the hollows, in which in wet weather it forms a kind of quagmire, through which horses toil wearily. The one advance we have made in this curious process over the early colonists is the invention of the large iron scoop or shovel, worked by oxen or horses, as a substitute for the manual labor of the olden days. A foreigner, seeing it at work for the first time, is always disposed to believe that the road is being prepared for a crop of some kind, and as a matter of fact we have ourselves seen many a mile of country road in which, after the spring repairs, potatoes or corn would have grown very luxuriantly.

Of course there are signs of progress out of this primitive condition in the more densely settled districts on the eastern coast and in the neighborhood of the large cities. The Park roads, with which people have been made familiar during the past thirty years, have shown those who have never been abroad what a good road is, and have thus raised the standard of road-making, as the Vienna bakery raised the standard of bread-making all over the country after the Philadelphia Exposition in 1876. But most rural districts suffer greatly from not having a standard at all. Some of those who tax themselves most freely suffer most, because the plentiful supply of money not only does not improve the roads, but breeds a political ring, who treat it as "boodle." The reason they suffer is that, as they have no standard of goodness in roads, and do not make specific requirements as to what shall be done to keep the roads in order, it is never possible to bring trustees, or selectmen, or roadmasters to a proper account. They always escape if they can show they have put on the annual spring plaster; and when it is washed away, as it is sure to be a little later, they throw the

blame on the freshets; and the simple citizen, not knowing what to say in answer to them, says nothing. We have seen the plaster applied to projecting rocks in a steep declivity in the middle of a great highway within twenty miles of New York, year after year, without a word of remonstrance from anybody, and without any demand for the use of the sledge-hammer for the safety of horses and carriages. The waste of all this, through the wear and tear of animals, vehicles, and harness, is of course immense. As it is not easy to calculate it, it makes but little impression on the popular mind, but it probably far surpasses the cost of thorough repair or macadamization. Until a standard has been set up, increased votes of money for road-making will in populous districts simply result in the multiplication of the people who live by "politics."

There is little doubt, too, that not only was the light wagon, for which America is now famous, produced by the badness of our roads, but it now helps to keep the roads bad by diminishing in the public eye the inconvenience of them. The wagon in which Americans delight, and which no other nation has yet been able to imitate, really gets over bad roads almost as easily as a saddle or pack-horse: we have seen it jump a fence behind a runaway with a certain grace and dexterity. But bad roads tell on it rapidly also, though not perhaps as rapidly as on heavier vehicles. It is hardly an exaggeration to say that a light wagon would last one-third longer on an English or Swiss road than on ours, and would be a far greater luxury. Nobody shows more appreciation of the smooth, hard park roads than the trotting men, although they prefer the dirt road to "speed" on; and they may be said to be the only class of the community to whose needs or wishes attention in the matter of road-making has been paid. The owners of heavy vehicles have been left to get along as best they can, although they use roads for business and not for pleasure. In no department of our material progress, in fact, is there so much need of reform as in our road-making, and above all in our road-repairing, whether we look at the matter from the health or the pleasure point of view.

THE NEW LIGHT ON THE KENTUCKY RESOLUTIONS.

GRASMERE, NEAR LEXINGTON, Ky., May 24, 1887.

I HAVE read with great interest Miss Randolph's recent communication in the *Nation* upon the Kentucky Resolutions of 1798, and place a very high value upon its important contribution to the history of the much-vexed question of their authorship. At the same time I cannot entirely concur in the conclusion expressed in the last paragraph of her letter, nor, indeed, in all of the subordinate conclusions of her skilfully constructed argument.

In the first place, while Mr. Jefferson gives in his letter of December 11, 1821, very glaring examples of the lapses of his memory as to details—lapses such as show a failure of memory as to the minor circumstances connected with events themselves clearly remembered—yet it is a matter of history that Mr. Jefferson's memory was to the very last singularly well preserved as to the events in which he had been an actor. It is a universal experience, moreover, that the memory retains events with far greater distinctness than the circumstances attending them, the persons participating in them, or the words spoken at the time of their occurrence. It would seem, then, that a very substantial chain of circumstantial evidence would be required successfully to combat the direct testimony of Mr. Jefferson as to the conference of 1798, especially as that conference, if it ever took place, was the birth-moment of a plan which led to momentous results.

It being now settled that "your father," in the letter of December 11, 1821, was John Breckinridge, the evidence of the letter from Jefferson to W. C. Nicholas fully corroborates the testimony of Mr. Jefferson that John Breckinridge and W. C. Nicholas were his principal coadjutors, and that Mr. Madison was at least "consulted." And to my mind the letters of October 5, 1798, and October 10, 1798, both indicate very plainly considerable antecedent discussion. On October 10 Mr. Breckinridge was on the eve of his return to Kentucky. Mr. Jefferson had abandoned the idea of the Resolutions being first offered in North Carolina; Mr. Breckinridge had somehow gained his entire confidence; he had conveyed to Col. Nicholas the opinion that "everything is said that can be said in the paper" then in Mr. Breckinridge's possession. Not only so, but there is a suggestion in the letter of October 10 that the visit intended to be paid by Mr. Breckinridge to Mr. Jefferson, the "delicacy and motives" for his omission of which Mr. Jefferson so highly appreciated, was not the first or only visit of this trip, but the farewell visit, and that the "delicacy and motives" of its omission were nothing less than the desire to avoid attracting attention by too frequent calls at Monticello after the "consultation" had taken place, in order that no one should suspect that Jefferson had helped concoct the Kentucky Resolutions.

Let me here introduce a letter which throws a strong side-light on the way the actors in this little drama were moving. This letter is from Caleb Wallace, a man, at the time of its date, of prominence in Kentucky politics, a member of the Legislature from Woodford County, and an intimate friend of John Breckinridge and George Nicholas. It was written to Mr. Breckinridge at Frankfort, whither he had already gone to attend the Legislature:

"LEXINGTON, November 5, 1798.

"DEAR SIR: I congratulate you on your return to your family and county, and am happy to hear that you are in good health. I long to see you, but do not expect to have that pleasure till about the middle of the month, about which time I must go to Frankfort. The letter which you sent from Botetourt lay in one of my neighbors' houses two or three weeks, so that I did not receive it until a few days ago, so that I have not had time to pay attention to the request made in your letter; indeed, I do not think myself capable of draughting anything of so great importance. I think that the main points to which the Legislature ought to attend are the Alien and the Sedition Laws and the laws respecting raising regulars and volunteers, all of which are certainly unconstitutional in the most dangerous instances; the first affecting the trial by jury, the second the freedom of the press, the two great palladiums of liberty. But I think the last is the most highly dangerous, because, if in the present instance the Executive does not abuse the powers with which Congress has invested him, it will become a popular precedent for giving the same powers on some future occasion. I feel great anxiety that the conduct of our Legislature should be firm, spirited, and constitutional, and, therefore, would go to Frankfort in a few days, but I have been lately much harassed by some of my old bodily infirmities, and I have now been here two or three days, by which I find myself injured.—I am, dear sir, your friend and servant, CALEB WALLACE.

"N. B. Our friend Nicholas is now publishing a letter on the points I have mentioned, which I think more masterly than any other that has appeared on them. If you doubt the temper of the Legislature, would it not be best to keep the business in agitation until the members have an opportunity to read the letter?"

Mr. Breckinridge's letter from Botetourt, which had made the journey to Kentucky, lain for two or three weeks at a neighbor's, and been left unanswered several days on November 5, must have been written early in October. If that letter ever is resurrected, it will probably have a tale to tell; but in its absence we may at least see plainly that Mr. Breckinridge was not only consulting with the Vice-President and Col. Nicholas in Virginia, but also writing to urge a Kentucky legislator "to draw something" setting out his views of the protest proper to be made.

And, after all, what is the kernel of the matter? There are two sets of resolutions extant—one set found among Mr. Jefferson's papers, and another passed by the Kentucky Legislature. The two problems, then, are: Who drew the Jefferson set? was it the original draft? Who altered it into the Kentucky form? If the "Jefferson draft," so called, was the first draft, then its penman substantially drew the Kentucky Resolutions. But, *me judice*, the alterations in the form actually adopted were of such a bold and radical nature as to make their author the responsible author, and to show that he so regarded himself.

John Breckinridge exerted himself in July and August, 1798, to have the citizens of Fayette and the adjoining counties pronounce in mass meeting against the Alien and Sedition and Army Bills, both before and after they became laws. In the *Kentucky Gazette* of Lexington, an anonymous writer, signing himself Philo-Agis, urged that the Legislature be "immediately convened by the Governor," and that it should "pass resolutions praying for a repeal of every obnoxious and unconstitutional act of Congress." This letter, published on August 22, is, I believe, the first suggestion that the Legislature should take up the matter which was being pressed by mass meetings and petitions to Congress. It was about the time of this publication that Mr. Breckinridge set out for Virginia. So far from the visit of Mr. Breckinridge to Monticello, mentioned in Mr. Jefferson's letter to Cabell Breckinridge in 1815, being, as Miss Randolph assumes, his only visit, it was only the first of a long series. During Mr. Jefferson's absence at the Court of St. Denis, Mr. Breckinridge had moved to Charlottesville and begun the practice of the law there. He had already, upon Mr. Jefferson's return, become intimate with Monroe and the Nicholases—an intimacy which Mr. Jefferson, when he had, as he himself says, in their first interview, "opportunity sufficient to discern the large scope of his mind, the stores of information laid up in it, and the moral direction given to both," with his usual graciousness, made haste to share. It seems almost impossible to credit that, Mr. Jefferson being at home, Mr. Breckinridge could have failed to see him during his visit to his old home at Charlottesville, in the weeks just before the Jefferson-Nicholas letter of October 5.

And if a determination to have the autumn campaign begin in North Carolina had been abandoned, where shall we look for a more natural cause of this change than the influence of Mr. Breckinridge, fresh from Kentucky, not only ripe for action, but ripe for action through the Legislature? Whether Nicholas first suggested the action that was finally decided on to Jefferson, or whether Breckinridge brought the idea from Kentucky, Breckinridge had a paper prior to the receipt of the letter of October 5 containing all that the other two thought could be said. Who drew this paper? This, no doubt, is the something that Jefferson was asked to draft and drew, according to the letter of December 11,

1821. If it was the same as that found in his papers, who altered it? It would seem, from the attitude of the letter from Caleb Wallace and Mr. Breckinridge's future conduct, that it was he; that he took what liberty with it he pleased, and always felt that he was entirely responsible for the final form of his resolutions. The Kentucky Legislature pointed to his "resolves" as a chief reason for making him Senator; Mr. Jefferson made them the basis of his after-promotion; Matthew Lyon, the arch-sufferer under the Sedition Law, claims greatness for him as the *writer* of the Resolutions; John Nicholas, the eloquent assailer of the odious laws, says to him in a letter in the following year, when speaking of the Resolutions of '99, they "are, I suspect, as well as the first handsome production on the same occasion, without intending to flatter, the effort of *one* who never failed to have a considerable influence over me."

The preponderance of the proof seems strongly in favor of a conference—of a conference, too, from which some kind of a paper came forth, drawn, Mr. Jefferson says, by himself; drawn, the Breckinridge family claim, by John Breckinridge; drawn, as Miss Randolph would seem to infer, by W. C. Nicholas without any conference at all, but so drawn as to meet the general approval of Jefferson, Madison, Nicholas, and Breckinridge.

The following letter, taken from an unsigned copy in Mr. Breckinridge's handwriting and found in his papers, has two interesting points in it which may justify its reproduction. It shows how the suggestions of the letter of September 5, '99, to W. C. Nicholas were acted on, and with how great independence they were treated by Mr. Breckinridge; and, also, how early the people even in Kentucky awoke to the dangerous sound of that fearful word "nullification":

"FRANKFORT, Ky., December 9, 1799.

"DEAR SIR: I took the liberty by the last post of enclosing to you the proceedings of our Legislature (now in session) in support of their Resolutions of the last session, respecting the Alien and Sedition Laws. It was at the opening of the session concluded to make no reply, but lest an improper construction should be put on our silence, we drew up the paper which I enclosed you. In the lower house (of which I am a member) there was not a dissenting voice. In the Senate there was considerable division, particularly on that sentence which declares 'a nullification of those acts by the States to be the rightful remedy.' It so happens that what little Federal influence exists among us is at present concentered in the Senate. The elections of Senators in every district, under our new Constitution, which must be made *viva voce* by the people, instead of by electors, will extinguish even this little influence. The great mass of the people are uncontaminated and firm, and as all appointments now flow from the people, those who hold sentiments contrary to theirs will be discarded."

Systematic search, such as Miss Randolph, Col. Durrett, and others have recently made in this matter, is far more satisfactory in its results than speculation; and I hope that while I institute a careful inquiry after the letter of John Breckinridge to Caleb Wallace, Miss Randolph or some one else will try to trace out W. C. Nicholas's letter to Jefferson of October 4, as well as Col. Nicholas's letter, if any was ever written, taking Mr. Madison into his confidence.

ETHELBERT D. WARFIELD.

THE WARWICKSHIRE LABORER.

WARWICKSHIRE, May 16, 1887.

IT is difficult to say whether the agricultural depression of the last ten years has pressed most heavily on landowner, farmer, or agricultural laborer in Warwickshire. And in speaking of the condition of the laborer, the condition of his employers must naturally be considered.

In our parish, some of the farms are pretty stiff clay; others are rich loam on gravel. The grass lands are well adapted to dairying, to sheep, and to the raising of young stock. But big "beasts" will not fatten upon them without cake, as they do on the heavy, rank grass of the deep clay lands in the plain of Warwickshire—the "Folden," as George Eliot calls it. Such land as ours requires thoroughly good farming, plenty of labor, and a generous expenditure of capital in stock and manures to make it pay.

Among the farmers in our village, renting farms of two hundred to three hundred acres from Lord ———, who owns the parish, some few are living on the same farms their fathers had before them. One or two own freehold property in other parishes. Three are tradesmen in the neighboring town. The rest are new-comers; for, during the disastrous decade through which we have just passed, many of the farms have changed hands more than once. When young beasts that sold seven years ago for £17 now fetch £10; when, owing to the wet, wheat crops fail both in quantity and quality to such an extent that they do not cover the expense of planting; when whole flocks of sheep are swept off by that horrible disease, "the fluke," which in this parish attacked even calves and foals, while in Northamptonshire the hares lay dead from it by the hundred—farmers, unless they have capital to fall back upon, cannot make a living.

The landlords, rather than have the land thrown on their hands, are willing to let the farms at greatly reduced rents to men with small capital. These new-comers can employ but little labor. A father and his two sons, with a boy, will attempt to work a clay farm, mostly arable, which in old days, when farming paid well, employed six men and three boys. The land, in consequence, is not properly farmed. The limited amount of stock is not sufficient to provide dressing for the ground. There is little ready money to buy manure from the town; none to expend on costly artificial manures. Short crops and dirty land are the results; and when the farmer has squeezed all he can out of the soil, he too often gives his year's notice, and is off to seek fresh fields and pastures new, when the same process is repeated.

Landlords are severely blamed for letting their farms to such tenants. It is undoubtedly most unfortunate for all concerned. But, in the present state of things, one does not wonder that any alternative seems preferable to farming the land themselves. Unless they possess very large private fortunes, the landlords, with no rents coming in, have not capital to meet the enormous outlay entailed by farming two or three thousand acres of midland clay lands, and they think themselves fortunate if they can get tenants at all, at however low a rent. Those who are free to sell their estates find great difficulty in getting purchasers, as few people wish to invest in so useless and expensive a commodity.

On all sides we see fine old houses shut up or let to rich manufacturers, who do not understand the laborers, and are looked upon by them as interlopers. "He ain't no gentleman," is the remark we hear, in spite of gifts of blankets and soup, and big subscriptions to the village charities. The home-parks of great estates are let for grazing to the butchers of the towns, who are about the only prosperous members of the community, for the retail price of meat has not fallen at all in proportion to the fall of price in stock. Every day timber wagons pass, carrying the grand elms of our county—"the Warwickshire weed"—cut down by the half-ruined landowners, who are selling their horses, giving up their carriages, reducing their establishments, and are waited on by neat parlor maids, instead of the butlers and footmen of a few years ago. To their honor be it said that their local charities have not been reduced in any one case that has come under our notice; but, of course, less labor is employed on the estates when there is no money to pay for improvements.

This state of things with landlords and tenant farmers presses heavily on the laborer. Instead, however, of generalizing, it may be worth while to examine the condition of the day laborers in our village at this moment, and see how they are housed, how they are clothed and fed, and on what they live.

Many of the cottages are 250 years old. These are the half-timbered red-brick or white-plastered houses which give such a picturesque look to the place. They are fairly comfortable dwellings, two-storied, with little diamond-paned windows which open, but do not let in much light. In some of them we find good old black-oak furniture; and with flowering plants on the ledge of the long, low window, a red-brick floor, with a bit of carpet, perhaps, by the table, and a blazing coal fire in the good close range which has been fitted into the vast ancient fireplace, with its cosey chimney corner, some of our cottage kitchens make a pretty and cheerful picture. The rest of the houses in the village are of the pattern which ought to be suppressed by public opinion if not by law—three and four-roomed cottages on the ground with no upper floor. These were built by squatters who, some sixty to a hundred years ago, were allowed by the negligence of an agent of the then Lord ———, to run up these human pigsties on any outlying bit of ground. They have all been bought up at great expense by Lord ——— and made as habitable as their plan permits, with good windows and doors and the excellent close ranges which are now almost universal in the cottages; and as he can afford it, he pulls them down and builds decent dwellings in their place. For these cottages, with an excellent garden, as we have said elsewhere, the rent is from £2 to £4 a year.

A stranger coming into the village on Sunday is struck with the well-to-do look of the people. The men are all well dressed. In summer nearly every one of the younger men has his cutaway black coat for church, and in winter a thick warm greatcoat, while the dandies of the village go in for ulsters. The working-day clothes are a short white "slop" over a tweed or corduroy jacket, with corduroy or tweed trousers, and leather gaiters. Among the elder men the serviceable cord knee-breeches and gaiters, the double-breasted waistcoat with long sleeves, and the short embroidered white smock are still worn—the last remnant of costume in Warwickshire. The elder women still favor the short bedgown—a loose jacket over which the plain full-plaited skirt of linsey or cotton is fastened—a cotton sunbonnet, and a small three-cornered shawl. But the younger ones have adopted the latest fashions—ulsters, tight jackets, hats, feathers, flowers, flounces, frills, and "dress improvers" to any extent. Some of our girls are charmingly turned out. But one sees that every penny of wages that our maidens earn at service must go on to their backs instead of into their pockets.

As to food, a branch of a large coöperative store at Emscote is established in the village, managed by one of the villagers. Here, for ready money, all the necessaries of life except meat can be had. Tea, bread, butter, treacle, or jam, with a bit of bacon sometimes, is the laborer's breakfast. No house goes without its good bit of fresh meat on Saturday for the Sunday dinner. This will be made to last for three or four days; and if no more can be afforded, the dinners for the rest of the week are eked out with bacon, for every one keeps a pig. The other meals—tea or supper—are made up of bacon, cheese, bread, and dripping. "John and the children is that sot on drippin'," a wife will say to

one; and the taste for this (to us) peculiarly repulsive form of food extends among servants and farmers. "Kettle-broth" is also a favorite Warwickshire dish. This is simply bread seasoned with salt and pepper, over which boiling water, sometimes thickened with a little flour, is poured. The children devour it for their suppers with the greatest relish. Most of the men drink beer with their dinners, but there is no drunkenness in the parish.

The wages of an able-bodied farm laborer are here about twelve shillings a week in winter and fourteen in summer. In some of the more remote parts of Warwickshire they are at this moment only eleven shillings. Women can earn from one shilling to one-and-sixpence a day at field work, *i. e.*, turnip and swede-cutting, stone-picking, weeding, and hay-making. Carters and cowmen get thirteen to fourteen shillings a week, with a house, or fifteen shillings without one. Boys get four to five shillings a week going with the teams, etc. During the harvest month the men get £6 for the four weeks and "find themselves," or £5 to £5 10s. when the farmer gives them beer. The former plan is now largely adopted.

The trouble in the last few years has been that, as we have said, the farmers, owing to the bad times, have reduced the number of their laborers, so that now there are more men in the parish than there is work for. Men get a few days' job here and there. They were nearly all at work last harvest, but even in harvest several were unable to get work, while on one farm eleven Irish laborers were employed. The reasons given by the men for this apparent injustice were, first, that the Irishman will always undersell the Englishman; and this is true enough. If one of our men offered to work at 3s. a day, the Irishman would promptly come down to 2s. 6d., and so on. Secondly, they put it on "the spite of the farmers to the laborers." That there is but little love lost between some of the farmers and a good many of the laborers is undeniable. The old relations of mutual esteem and help were well-nigh destroyed during the troubles of the "Laborers' Union" twelve to fifteen years ago, and it is only in a few cases that the former kindly feeling still exists. Some of the farmers look on the men as idle, lazy, insolent fellows, who are only too glad to stop work at a critical moment in hopes of a rise of wages. The men, on the other hand, say the farmers are capricious, hard, grinding them down to the lowest possible price. As usual, there is some truth and a good deal of exaggeration on both sides.

With regard to the employment of Irish labor, the farmers undoubtedly prefer men who, though they are inferior workmen, can be driven here and there as no Warwickshire laborer could be, and can be turned off at a moment's notice. They have but little sense of duty to their neighbors, and cannot see why they should employ a man who is living in actual want at their gate when they can get the work done more cheaply by a travelling Irishman, who, as they say, "doesn't dare sauce them." The laborer, on the other hand, is not what he was, and we found upon careful inquiry that the men who were out of work last summer were usually—but not in all cases—bad workmen, or sickly, sulky, quarrelsome fellows. It is a lamentable but certain fact that the present generation are less good workers than their fathers, and distinctly worse than their grandfathers. They take less pains about their work. They will come to work one day and absent themselves without reason or warning the next. In this parish there are but two middle-aged men who can thatch. None of the younger ones know how to do it, and as ricks and cottages must still be thatched, one wonders what will happen when these two useful and much-sought-after persons are laid among their fathers in the green churchyard on the hill. In the same way there are but two or three men who can "splash and lay" a quickset hedge, and they are not the artists in "hedging and ditching" their fathers were. The railroads, domestic service, and the colonies drain off the greater number of our most intelligent and energetic young men, and among those who remain we begin to see a growing distaste for field-labor, which opens up unpleasant problems for the agricultural future of the midlands.

In the winter of 1885-86, the distress in our village was very great. Young, strong men, some of them with a wife and babies to support, were for two, four, and sometimes six months without more than one day's work in a fortnight. With the splendid endurance of our laborers, no one begged. Last summer the excellent and energetic rector and two of his parishioners determined, in view of the coming winter, to help some of the young single men to emigrate to Australia, where an exceedingly advantageous opening had been found. What was their surprise, not to say disgust, when only three men out of the whole village came forward; and these three, after giving endless trouble, finished by saying, "Well, it wur a long way. They was afraid of the water. There was always a day's work to be got somewheres. They thought on the whole they'd rather stay at home. Why did we want for they to go? Did we want to get rid of they out of the place?"

Here is the average midland laborer in a nutshell: blindly devoted to the soil, to his native place, absolutely unadventurous, incapable of taking the initiative, not over-industrious, and afraid of unknown hardships, suspicious of any fresh proposal, without a spark of patriotism or public feeling. It is not that he is stupid—far from that. He reads his paper every day and understands it; he is sharp enough in managing his own concerns, and will work capitally under good leadership if he can be persuaded that he has something to gain and nothing to lose. But he cannot endure taking an unaccustomed step. He is more than content to stay at home and run the risk of starving if only he may live in the same cottage, in the same village, doing the same work, earning the same wages, and exercising the Englishman's prerogative of grumbling all round.

R. G. K.

Correspondence.

THE EXCAVATIONS AT CROTON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a letter to the *Nation*, dated April 27, Prof. Rodolfo Lanciani has brought grievous charges against the conduct of the researches lately carried on, under the auspices of the Archæological Institute of America, at the temple of Hera Lakinia, Croton. He nominally writes in reply to a note published in the same paper conjointly by Dr. Alfred Emerson and myself. He has chosen, however, to ignore altogether the part taken by my companion in the matter, thus devolving upon me alone the duty of justifying the steps taken in a work—certainly successful in scientific respects—the credit of which we share in equal measure.

The great Doric temple of Hera, near Croton, although the most famous monument of the Greeks in Italy, has, up to the present time, almost entirely escaped the attention of students of antique architecture. No representations whatever of its remains have hitherto been published. After the site of this building had been accurately surveyed by us—a work which occupied nearly a month—it was found to be desirable to undertake some digging, in order to determine the extent of the plan and the character of certain parts of the superstructure. Permission to do this was obtained from the owner of the ground, indeed, of the entire Lakinian promontory—Baron Luigi Berlingieri, Sindaco of Cotrone, a gentleman to whose friendly interest and furtherance the work is greatly indebted. Before beginning the digging, we suggested to him that notification of the intended excavations should be sent to the authorities at Rome. Against this step he not only protested, he actually made it impossible by declaring that, should we recognize the right of other officials than those of Croton to grant permission for excavating the site, he would withdraw that given by himself. It subsequently became evident to us that this position was determined by a desire to uphold the laws obtaining in Calabria. The jurists of Cotrone, one of whom we consulted upon the point, hold that the decree published in Rome concerning archæological explorations—the so called *legge Facca*—is applicable only to the Roman provinces; Calabria, in this respect, still enjoying the privileges granted by the edicts of 1823.* The owner of the ground sharing this view, and being himself the highest official in the district, it would have been futile for us to insist upon a contrary course. Moreover, the excavations at the temple were, in all that regarded the legal aspects of the case, undertaken not by us Americans, who claimed no part of the discoveries as a right, but by Baron Berlingieri, Mayor of Cotrone, who, we might reasonably assume, would commit no illegal act. As if in premonition of the question which has now arisen, that gentleman wrote, in his official capacity, to the prefect of the province, stating that he himself assumed all responsibility for the excavations. This document will be found on file at Catanzaro.

Can these facts be reconciled with the assertion, made by Prof. Lanciani, that "no permission was obtained from the local authorities"? Yet it is upon the implication of wrong in this respect that all his charges of "rebellion" and of "want of the most elementary principles of international and personal courtesy on the part of Mr. Clarke" are grounded.

In the sequestration of the objects discovered, the greater number were not taken from our hands, but from a dwelling of Baron Berlingieri, adjoining the site of the temple. A false impression is conveyed by the reference to the burial of these antiques as a step taken "to protect and insure the preservation of ancient marbles," since many of the objects in question (such as fragile glass, and terracotta ornaments with delicate traces of painting) must have been broken and defaced by the stones and earth with which they were covered.

The digging was not carried on for a single moment after the suspension of the work had been decreed, and the first and only notification conveyed to us by a high official of Cotrone, who came to the Cape unaccompanied. Yet Prof. Lanciani states: "He (Clarke) was warned many times to stop his illegal proceedings; he did not pay the slightest attention to the warning. Finally, the Government was compelled to resort to the last argument in its power—the direct interference of the police." The character and intention of these assertions will become evident when I state that Prof. Lanciani, before the publication of his communication to you, had been clearly informed of the truth in regard to this point, through a letter from Dr. A. L. Frothingham, jr., one of the promoters of the undertaking.

*It is a fact—of no bearing upon the present question, indeed, but of interest as a sign of public opinion and the state of the law in Italy—that in Rome itself the *legge Facca* has been successfully contested in court. Of this I am informed by a letter from an eminent archæologist, dated Florence, May 2.

Prof. Lanciani has in your columns proclaimed himself to be "a person fully and minutely acquainted with Mr. Clarke's doings from beginning to end," and declares that "there is not a particle of truth in his [Clarke's] statements." Libellous personalities, such as these and other passages of the letter, are unworthy of notice. Concerning the points to which I have referred—and they are the only ones upon which Prof. Lanciani has based his attack—I must leave your readers to decide as to the relative correctness of our information and the veracity of our statements. JOSEPH THACHER CLARKE.

HARROW, ENGLAND, May 9, 1887.

WHY HAVE WE NO SKYLARKS?

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Is there any reason why we cannot acclimate the skylark? I believe it is only a question of method. Small numbers of them have been imported and turned loose, for example, on Long Island near Brooklyn; but though they seemed to do well at the time, they have not returned in the following spring. In other words, the attempts have been failures, and this has been *because we commenced at the wrong end!*

I will explain: The skylark is a migratory bird that lives on insects, of which our Northern winters furnish him no supply. To obtain this food he must go South, but he is a stranger in a strange land. I believe, from such study as I have been able to give it, that the migration of birds is not a mere exhibition of restlessness, but a result of the struggle for existence. A region becomes overstocked by them, and they wander in search of food and breeding-places. Instinct (inherited memory) carries them back to the winter home, whence in the following spring they return to the breeding-places of the year before.

Now, whether this reasoning is true or false, the fact is that the previous attempts at introduction have failed. There are no skylarks in our fields to tell of their success. As they have been found to live here during our summers, why not reverse the experiment, and give them a safe winter home from which they may overspread our land? Those that wander will return to the winter home when supplies fail elsewhere.

The proper course for us, then, is this: In the fall turn loose skylarks in two or three places in Florida, in southern Alabama, in southern Louisiana, in Texas near the mouth of the Rio Grande, and, to add to the chances, also in Cuba, as they would probably soon learn the way across the sea to Florida. From Florida they would extend up our eastern coast and in time reach our Northern States; from Alabama and Louisiana they would spread themselves over the Mississippi Valley.

I have been told that there are very many hawks in Florida, and that consequently the larks might be exterminated by them. I reply, give the lark a chance. We can only try, and who can estimate the pleasure that we should receive in return if the attempt were to be successful?

The same plan might be tried with the nightingale, that most wonderful of song-birds; the black thrush, mavis, throstle, a noted singer that one sees in Europe in the trees of cities; the migratory quail of Europe, of which many hundreds are said to have been introduced into our Northern States without success.

Cannot a subscription be started for the purpose of making a beginning in this matter?

J. S. FROUT.

BROOKLYN, N. Y., May 16, 1887.

[The nearest relative of the skylark, *Alauda arvensis*, which we have in this country is the horned or shore lark, *Eremophila alpestris*. It is probable that the conditions which suit this bird best would also be most favorable to the naturalization of the skylark. The shore lark inhabits North America at large, breeding in all the treeless regions of the West, thence diagonally across the northwestern States to western New York, Canada, and Labrador. It winters in southerly portions of the United States at large. Probably the reasons why the attempts to naturalize the skylark have failed are two. First, the birds have not been imported in sufficient numbers; second, they have not been turned out in the right places. The experiment would be most likely to succeed if, say, 500 or 1,000 birds were liberated in the spring in some central unwooded locality, such as the eastern edge of the Great Plains in about the latitude of St. Louis. Birds liberated anywhere in the fall, and getting scattered the ensuing winter, would be less likely to find mates the following spring.—ED. NATION.]

THE BEVERLY INCIDENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The "Beverly Incident" is certainly not of sufficient consequence to allow of a controversy by correspondence in your columns. Permit me to say, however, that the statement of facts submitted by "Observer" in correction of "mistakes" in your own editorial is a piece of *ex-parte* testimony. Nearly all of his "facts" are in dispute, or are so conditioned by other facts, not stated, as to wear a color of falsehood. Upon the case as he puts it no contest would be made by good citizens; but the fact is that Essex County, in which public opinion on local affairs is intelligent and just to an unusual degree, was practically unanimously opposed to this measure, in which wealth has made its first invasion on that soil, and its opposition was accompanied by such an aroused public sentiment and expressed with such threatening decision that the Republicans became alarmed for their hold. No more unpopular bill has been in the Legislature for years; it was being passed against the popular will by the adroit and farsighted use of money; and Gov. Ames's veto was a concession to the voters as against the legislators. Your own editorial was an admirable example of the power of the *Nation* to seize on the salient points of a case from the outside and at a distance, and to do substantial justice to the interests involved—a power which is a chief excellence of the paper. It is to be hoped that the specious "corrections" of a partisan will not be allowed by your readers to nullify your own sound and impartial original judgment.

Respectfully, GEO. E. WOODBERRY.

BEVERLY, MASS., May 28.

THE FIRST ISRAELITE IN MARYLAND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Provincial Court Record of Maryland shows that in 1658 Jacob Lumbroso (Lumbroso), "ye Jew Doctor," was committed for blasphemy. Record of his trial has not yet been found, but he must have been acquitted or pardoned, for we learn from the published Archives that in 1663 he was granted letters of "denizacion," was drawn on a jury in 1664, and received a commission to trade with the Indians in 1665. He was said to be "late of Lisbone in the kingdome of Portugall." There still exists a large family in Tunis of the name Lumbroso, and a branch in Leghorn, a member of which is a well-known psycho-physicist. In 1864 or 1865 an American Lumbroso visited Leghorn and inquired after his relatives. Information concerning the American branch of the family might assist in throwing some light on the history of Dr. Jacob Lumbrozo, and would be gratefully received by

CYRUS ADLER.

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY, BALTIMORE, May 27, 1887.

Notes.

"THIS unique combination," say Cassell & Co., speaking of a literary partnership for the purpose of writing a series of novels, "consists of Inspector Thomas Byrnes, Chief of the Detective Bureau of New York, and Julian Hawthorne, one of the most popular novelists of the day." The first product of this collaboration is to be called 'A Tragic Mystery.'

A. S. Barnes & Co. have in press 'Analytical Mechanics,' by Prof. W. G. Peck.

Laughton, Macdonald & Co., Boston, have in press, and will shortly issue, 'Ten of Us,' by S. B. Alexander, a volume of ten stories and sketches supposed to have been written by a party of young people.

D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, have been made the American agents for the London *Journal of Education*, a monthly record and review.

For the benefit of intending subscribers to the Seldon Society, whose foundation we lately announced, it may be well to add that a guinea, landed in England by means of a postal order, means about $5.18.

Four more volumes in the pocket edition of Thackeray (London: Smith, Elder & Co.; Philadelphia: Lippincott) add to what have already appeared 'Henry Esmond,' 'The Yellowplush Papers,' 'The Hoggarty Diamond, etc.,' 'Major Gahagan, etc.'—a great number of small pieces being summed up in these "etc." The scarlet backs of this growing array ought to insure it a place with the Jubilee literature of 1887.

As if by way of compensation for the fine print of the Thackeray, we receive at the same time from J. B. Lippincott Co. the three latest volumes of the Library Edition of Scott's works, vol. 9, 'Ivanhoe,' vol. 10, 'The Monastery,' vol. 11, 'The Abbot,' a series admirable for its typography, and noticeably reasonable in price.

Miss Yonge, by her devotion to historical studies, her interesting style, and her ardent loyalty, was, as it were, designated by the nature of things to write the "Jubilee Book" of Queen Victoria. The tone and sentiment of her 'Victorian Half Century' (Macmillan) are what the well-known characteristics of the author would lead us to expect. Mr. Gladstone's accession to power in 1880 is mentioned with a sigh of regret; but the most important controversies of his administration, and even his subsequent loss of power, are barely mentioned, as being "in so undeveloped a state that they can hardly be entered on in this brief summary." The book is small, and the chronicle of events necessarily so brief as to be deficient in graphic quality.

Maj. James B. Pond's 'A Summer in England with Henry Ward Beecher (1876)' (Fords, Howard & Hulbert) and the 'Speeches of Henry Ward Beecher on the American Rebellion delivered in Great Britain in 1863' (Frank F. Lovell & Co.) are valuable records of the great orator's two very memorable visits to the Mother Country—the first a national service, the last a personal gratification, such as fall to the experience of few men. A fine portrait of Mr. Beecher accompanies the 'Summer in England.'

A 'Beecher Memorial' is being prepared by Mr. Edward W. Bok of Brooklyn for Mrs. Beecher and her family. Articles by President

Cleveland, Dr. O. W. Holmes, Mr. Gladstone, and the Duke of Argyll, and many other eminent Americans and foreigners, have been contributed. Only 100 copies will be for the public.

Mr. Frank C. Haddock has written the life of his father, the Rev. George C. Haddock, whose opposition to the saloons led to his assassination in Sioux City, Ia., on August 3, 1886 (Funk & Wagnalls). The volume is somewhat ponderous for a tract, but has its instructiveness for any one who is studying the temperance conflict in the Mississippi Valley.

Praise and welcome must be given together to the supplement to the Schaff-Herzog 'Encyclopædia of Religious Knowledge' called an 'Encyclopædia of Living Divines and Christian Workers of All Denominations in Europe and America,' edited by Dr. Philip Schaff and the Rev. Samuel Macauley Jackson, and published by Funk & Wagnalls. Great catholicity is shown in the selection of names, and the best taste in the preparation of the articles. The data presented have been obtained in most cases at first hand, and the collection forms a very valuable addition to our reference-books for "men of the time." It is even more comprehensive than its title implies, though omissions might be named. A new and revised edition of the Schaff-Herzog Encyclopædia is published simultaneously with this supplement.

Not long ago we paid our respects to Don Juan Valera's 'Pepita Jiménez' in its English dress. The Messrs. Appleton have now reproduced the original Spanish in an edition for which the greatest accuracy is claimed, the employment of the modern orthography of the Spanish Academy, the fullest matter (including the prologue specially written for the English version), and the unique distinction of illustrations—these last somewhat naïve, to be sure. The print is good and the binding attractive. Other volumes in Spanish will follow.

A hasty glance at 'Le Crime de la 5e Avenue,' by Marie Darcey (Paris: Paul Ollendorff; New York: F. W. Christern), serves to show that it is a translation of Anna Katherine Green's 'Leavenworth Case,' and the French plagiarist has not even taken the trouble to alter the names of the American author's characters. The same publishers also issue 'La Reine de Cuivre, par Blanche Roosevelt.' A third story by an American, 'Le Crucifix de Marzio,' by Mr. Marion Crawford, has just been brought to an end in the *Nouvelle Revue*; and we understand that several American authors are writing short stories which will appear first in French in *Les Lettres et les Arts*.

Probably the first illustrated translation of an American poem to appear in France since Manet made his huge and strange edition of Poe's 'Raven,' is 'La Dernière Feuille, poème, par O.-V. Holmes, traduit du texte américain par B.-H. Gausseron, illustrations par G. Wharton Edwards and F. Hopkinson-Smith' (Paris: Quantin; New York: F. W. Christern). The edition was limited to 800 copies at 25 francs—after which the plates were destroyed. *Le Livre* for May, praising the book very highly, and incidentally praising the progress of American art, declares that the French printers met with great difficulties, which they happily conquered.

Both the *Antiquary* and *Walford's Antiquarian* for May are interesting numbers, as is shown by the titles of some of the papers—"The Keys of the Old Bastile of Paris," "Coucy-le-Château," "Old Roman Catholic Legends," in the *Antiquary*; "The Study of Coins," "An Unbowdlerised Boccaccio," "The Kaballah," "The House of Aldus," "Bookselling in Little Britain," in the *Antiquarian*. The latter contains also part ii of "Cromwell and the Saddle-letter of Charles I.," by E. B. Chancellor, who declares against the genuineness of the letter. An important article in the *Antiquary*, by Prof. W. M. Conway, is part i. of the description of 'Exercitium super pater noster,' "one of the most important books in relation to the history of printing and wood-engraving." Of this work only two copies are known to exist, one in Mons and one in Paris; and neither of these is perfect. Singularly enough, the article contains a detailed description of the book, but does not tell us where or when it was printed. Another interesting paper is upon "Bess of Hardwick," the vixenish Countess of Shrewsbury who was for some time the custodian of Mary Queen of Scots.

With the June number the *Art Amateur* begins a new volume (the 17th), with a new cover and design therefor, and is further distinguished by several extra supplements containing tinted facsimiles of figure and drapery studies by Sir Frederick Leighton. We would call the attention of all who are practically interested in composite photography to Mr. George G. Rockwood's article on this subject. He describes his method of adjusting the faces before the camera, and points out the excessive weight which blond faces have in any given series if allowed an equal exposure with darker. Mr. Rockwood gives a very pleasing composite portrait of nine young ladies in a literary club.

Santa Maria del Fiore occupies the whole of *L'Illustrazione Italiana*, Milan, for May 8. The Florentine Duomo, from various points of view, the new façade and its architects, with some of the works of Donatello, are all well exhibited in large and small engravings. The text contains the history of the great undertaking which the city by the Arno has just been celebrating with so much pomp.

The Paris publisher Alphonse Lemerre is now issuing in parts, nine of which have already appeared, an 'Anthologie des poètes français du XIXe siècle.' The first *livraison* contains poems by Arnault, André and Marie-Joseph Chénier, Chateaubriand, Chênedollé, and the elder Legouvé.

M. Pagart d'Hermansart has recently published in an octavo pamphlet of twenty-one pages 'Les Cygnes de Saint-Omer. Fiefs et hommages. La garenne du roi' (Saint-Omer: H. d'Homont). In this it is told how in all the north of France the right of keeping swans was a seignorial privilege. In 1386 Philippe le Hardi, Duke of Burgundy, Count of Flanders and of Artois, expressly reserved for himself the "garenne des cygnes" in the lordship of Saint-Omer. Later, various sovereigns granted the right of placing swans in their "garène" to certain lords. The swans disappeared almost entirely during the siege of Saint-Omer in 1638.

One of the descendants of Gen. de Durler lately gave to the Musée Carnavalet the last military order signed by Louis XVI. It is dated August 10, 1792, virtually the last day of the French monarchy. In it a company of the Swiss guard, under the command of Capt. de Durler, are ordered to cease all resistance and abandon the Tuileries, from which the royal family had just made its escape.

M. E. Bricault de Verneuil, who died recently, left in manuscript a work which has now been published under the editorship of M. Alfred Richard. It is entitled 'Molière à Poitiers en 1648 et les comédiens dans cette ville de 1646 à 1658' (Paris: Lecène et Oudin). The author has not been able to discover any document which proves the presence of Molière at Poitiers in 1648, but he cites many circumstances worthy of consideration which bear upon the question. There is also much curious information concerning the various troupes of comedians who visited the town between 1646 and 1658, and the places where they gave their representations.

The announcement in the Paris papers of May 14 of the death of M. Schanne, "fabricant de jouets rue des Archives," has something in it incongruously pathetic. He was the last survivor of the friends of Henri Mürger, and figured in the famous 'Scènes de la vie de bohême' under the name of Schaunard. In the course of last year M. Schanne gave in the *Figaro* his recollections of Mürger and his friends, full of revelations concerning the vanished *vie de bohême* and its chronicler. These he afterwards collected and published under the title 'Mémoires de Schaunard' (Boston: Schoenhof).

— Madame Jane Dieulafoy, one of the few women who have been decorated with the Cross of the Legion of Honor, contributes to the June *Harper's* the story of the archæological discoveries at Susa by her brother and herself, for her share in which she received the distinction. The objects found are deposited in the Louvre, and the collection is soon to be opened to the public; pending that event, this sketch with its illustrations gives a general idea of what ancient art has gained by the excavations. The narrative of life at the ruins is told with great spirit, and the hardships and the courage incidental to the expedition show that it was not success alone that won for this brave and enthusiastic woman so exceptional an honor. The remainder of the number is excellent. Two economical papers, one by Dr. Ely upon the history and place of corporations in social organization, the other by Prof. Hadley upon the history of State railroad control, culminating in the Inter-State Commerce Act, deserve careful attention from those who watch the drift of modern institutions. A characteristic passage in a paper on the Kentucky pioneers has arrested our attention. The writer remarks that the original pioneer's "unwillingness to trouble the neighborhood with a trial of any infringement of his personal rights, as distinguished from property rights," has left results still observable; "among those who aspire to be considered the better class, suits for slander are unknown. In the history of the State there has not been a *crim. con.* trial. The slayer of a seducer has never been punished. *And this remark applies to the best population of Kentucky, as distinguished from a class that is degraded and inferior, so often confounded with it, but which is in no sense of pioneer origin.*" The tone of this passage, which we italicize, is as observable as the fact. Outside Kentucky it is thought, by plain Americans of the common sort, that an "unwillingness to trouble the neighborhood with a trial" is just what characterizes Choctaws and scamps not citizens. Others than "slayers of seducers" go unpunished in Kentucky under this substitution of "the better class" for judges and juries; and honester men than "seducers" get "slain." But it is not often that one finds a writer in *Harper's* glorying in a usage of barbarism.

—*Scribner's* has for its leading article a sketch of some of the portraits and busts of Napoleon, by Mr. John C. Ropes, similar to his former paper upon the heads of Cæsar, but not so complete. The frontispiece is a beautiful reproduction of Appiani's painting of Napoleon, made probably about 1796 or 1797, when he was the young general of the Army of Italy. It is a singularly charming picture, and the mixture of delicacy and nobility that characterizes it belongs also in some degree to three or four others of the early representations. The gradual hardening of the features and the filling out of the face are interesting to observe, though Napoleon did not grow old like Cæsar, and the whole series displays less character. The Ceracchi bust, the David crayon, and the Gérard portrait are admirably given, and some caricatures are mingled with the rest. The body of the magazine is much occupied with

fiction. The principal serious article is a summary view of the development of democracy in this country as seen in the drift of its legislation, and is based by its author, Mr. F. G. Stimson, on his study of the statute laws. He notices the great and seemingly capricious differences in the public sentiment of the States taken severally, and finds "Georgia and Maine among the rashest experimenters, and Missouri and Oregon at the other extreme; while New York and Massachusetts, Nevada and New Mexico occupy a middle ground." He makes several leading inductions, as, that democracy has hitherto deemed the intoxication-habit more dangerous and sinful than incontinence or commercial dishonesty; that democracy tends towards sexual equality; that democracy tends not to force a man to pay his debts against his will, etc. His conclusions as to fact are fair and thorough, but his analysis as to causes and conditions might have been pushed much further and deeper; and on the whole there is a rigidity in his inferences which the state of our knowledge hardly justifies. He ends his article with a prophecy that private property, marriage and personal liberty from State control must stand or fall together. His definitions of Socialism, Anarchism, etc., are the best we have yet seen.

—Welcome as would be an improvement on Mr. Traill's 'Coleridge,' it is not found, by any means, in Mr. Hall Caine's sketch of the poet and philosopher, lately issued in London by Mr. Walter Scott. In every respect the new Life is marked by inferiority. Often repellently frivolous in its selection and handling of details, it does not rise, as a specimen of composition, even to the level of an ordinary newspaper leader. With no approach to style, Mr. Caine abounds in affectations, banalities, and mannerisms, besides being so obscure occasionally as to defy all attempts to unravel his meaning. Shaky enough is his scholarship, too. If a prudent man, he would not have left it to be noted by his critics, that his "pantisocrasy" is not the word to signify "equal government of all," and that his "pantisocri*tans*" is such a formation as *autocritans* would be, instead of *autocrats*. Equally significant is his "Eclective Review"; and his calling Coleridge's patrons the "Wedgewoods" suggests great carelessness, or worse. And then there is his adverb "easier," with "extract" for "abstract," "a factor to be *counted* with," "calculable resources" for "resources to be calculated *on*," "she took this knowledge *in* trust from others," "in the interests of health," and similar things in profusion. "Bemuddlement," "dunderheaded," "nincompoop," and "wishful" are expressions which betray his uncultured taste; and more vulgar pages than 121 and 136 are rarely met with nowadays. In short, Mr. Caine is, at best, an immature and inefficient bookwright. One need look through but very few of his paragraphs to discover that it can matter extremely little that, as he says, he has "been compelled to depart from" sundry "excellent authorities, in" his "rendering of certain incidents of the first importance, and in" his "general reading of Coleridge's character as a man." At the end of the book, and well worth its strikingly low price, is an excellent Coleridgean "Bibliography," which neither the title-page nor the prefatory "Note" in any way recognizes. It was compiled by Mr. John P. Anderson of the British Museum.

—Our Paris correspondent gave some account of Renan's 'Nouvelles Études d'Histoire Religieuse,' on its appearance some three years since, and we may therefore dismiss with a brief notice the anonymous translation which has just been issued by Scribner & Welford. It is a significant illustration of the activity of modern research that the most elaborate and original of these studies—that on Joachim of Flora and the Everlasting Gospel—has already been rendered almost antiquated by the labors of Tocco, Denifle, and Ehrle. With all his learning and all his charm of exposition, Renan at the best is a very unsafe guide to follow. Misled, presumably, by one of the charges brought by the Commission of Anagni, he tells us that Joachim proclaimed the superiority of the Greek Church over the Latin, though Joachim's writings, which he assumes to have carefully studied, constantly abuse the Greek Church, especially for permitting priestly marriage; he asserts that Michele da Cesena's doctrines "étaient mot pour mot celles de Joachim telles que les interprétaient Jean de Parme et Gérard de San-Donnino," though Michele relentlessly burnt all professors of such doctrines on whom he could lay his hands, and his condemnation for heresy by John XXII. arose from an entirely different source; he represents Guglielma of Milan as pretending to be the Holy Ghost incarnate, although she expressly denied the absurd supposition when it was suggested by her enthusiastic disciples; he declares that all the victims of the Inquisitions of Toulouse and Carcassonne were Beguines and Tertiaries, when the very authorities to which he refers show that but a small proportion of them were such; and he talks of these Beguines and Tertiaries being burnt by thousands, which is an unpardonable exaggeration, even allowing for his confounding the Beguines and Lollards of Germany with the Spiritual Franciscans and Fraticelli of France and Italy. He even goes out of his way to cite an author of the eleventh century, who says that Cathari were detected by their pallor, as a proof of the injustice done to the Joachites by the Inquisition in the fourteenth century.

—These blunders occur within the space of about a dozen pages, and it would be easy to multiply instances of similar carelessness and rashness of assertion; but they do not render M. Renan's writings a whit less readable, and one enjoys the sparkling style and epigrammatic incisiveness without troubling one's self too much about the accuracy of the facts or the correctness of the deductions. Of course, much of this charm evaporates in a translation, though on the whole this one is fairly done. A translator, however, ought to be acquainted with the subject as well as with the language of his author; had he been so in the present case we should probably have been spared such curious Gallicisms as "Jean de Parme," "Gérard Ségarelle," "Ubertin de Casal," "Michel de Césène," "ternaries" for "tertiaries," and numerous others, not to speak of the conspicuous nondescript "Joachim di Flor," which graces the running heads of nearly a hundred pages, in place of Joachim of Flora or Gioacchino di Fiore.

—The last number of *Le Livre*, page 213, contains an amusing paragraph about the method of writing the names of certain French authors, in which the alteration or misplacement of a letter, the presence or absence of a capital or of an accent, is said to overwhelm the owners with unhappiness. A blunder of the same kind, very possibly an intentional one, is made by *Le Livre* itself, in regard to an unlucky author whose personal and political enemies take a malicious pleasure in misrepresenting him in this way. M. Maxime Du Camp of the French Academy always writes his name in two words and with two capitals, which brings it under D in an alphabetical list, as it would also be if written Ducamp, in one word. But *Le Livre* puts it under C besides unjustly attributing to him aristocratic pretensions, by the manner in which it gives his name in this very paragraph, with the *du* which he does not use. "A sure means of being disagreeable to M. Maxime du Camp," it there says, "is to write his name, as it should be written, *sans particule*." This is a refinement of malice. In the new volume of Gustave Flaubert's 'Correspondance,' published a few weeks ago (Paris: Charpentier; Boston: Schoenhof), of which an account was given in the *Nation* of May 5, Mme. Commanville, who edits her uncle's letters, writes the name herself Ducamp. But in a note to the first letter which she reprints from M. Du Camp's 'Souvenirs littéraires,' she twice writes Du Camp, as if the other form were an afterthought and intentional offence, in retaliation for his refusal to give up for publication all his old friend's letters to him, and also, probably, for the still worse offence in her eyes of revealing to the public the long-continued attacks of epilepsy from which her uncle suffered all his life—an entirely personal and selfish feeling on her part, for nothing in the 'Souvenirs' can have damaged Flaubert in the opinion of any one. On the contrary, by explaining many of his personal and literary peculiarities, it must have won for the man a sympathy and forbearance which he had never before excited, and at the same time in no way could it possibly have injured the appreciation of his readers for the admirable qualities of the artist.

—Dr. Otto Stoll of the University of Zurich, the distinguished traveller and ethnologist, has lately added to his well-known works on Central America a valuable monograph on the language of the Ixil Indians ('Die Sprache der Ixil Indianer.' Leipzig: F. A. Brockhaus). These Indians inhabit three small villages situated near the northern boundary of Guatemala, in the inmost recesses of the Sierra Madre, the great central mountain-chain of that republic. Their district is the most secluded portion of its territory, and the most difficult of access. The total population of the three villages does not now reach nine thousand souls, but in early times the tribe must have been much larger. In 1535, when Gonzalo de Alvarado made his campaign against the powerful confederacy of the Mam Indians, and besieged their King in his fortress, he was suddenly assailed by a wild array of painted Ixil warriors, eight thousand strong, who descended from their fastnesses to the relief of their beleaguered friends, and flung themselves, in repeated and desperate charges, on the besieging ranks. Against firearms and mail-clad cavaliers their efforts were useless, and, after suffering heavy losses, they withdrew to their mountains. In recent times they are noted for having preserved the life of the late Dictator Barrios, when he took refuge among them after the unsuccessful rebellion which preceded his attainment of the supreme power. Of their language nothing certain has hitherto been known, except that it was a branch of the Maya stock. Dr. Stoll, in a tour through Guatemala, made a brief stay among them, and used his time to good advantage in collecting the materials for the carefully analyzed grammar and full vocabulary with which he has supplied this deficiency. The whole Maya group of languages, as the author justly remarks, has a peculiar value in connection with the researches now in progress relating to the remarkable prehistoric civilization of Guatemala and Yucatan. The Ixil proves to be closely allied to the Mam language, but with some peculiarities which make it worthy of special study. In an appendix, the author adds vocabularies of three other little-known dialects of the Maya family—the Aguateca, Jacualteca, and Chuje—furnished to him by his friend, Prof. Edwin Rockstroh, who obtained them recently, while engaged in his duties as a member of the Boundary Commission for settling the long-disputed limits between Guatemala and Mexico.

LADD'S PHYSIOLOGICAL PSYCHOLOGY.

Elements of Physiological Psychology. A Treatise on the Activities and Nature of the Mind, from the Physical and Experimental Point of View. By George T. Ladd, Professor of Philosophy in Yale University. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1887. 8vo, pp. 696.

EXPRESSING the pith and substance of countless books and special memoirs, physiological and psychological, with everything duly arranged, estimated, and criticised, Prof. Ladd's 'Elements' belongs to a class of manuals hitherto more frequently met with in the German than in the English tongue. The author's animus, in working over his vast array of facts and opinions, is evident. He wishes to be in a position to refute with *authority* the notion prevalent among a certain class of "advanced thinkers" that "Physiological Psychology" has driven "the older psychology" out of the field, and reduced it to the status of a mediæval superstition or an old wives' tale. As well might one say that what is sometimes called "chemical physics" has made chemistry henceforward obsolete. Physiological psychology is really nothing but a collection of experimental investigations, set apart for convenient study, but quite incapable of leading to any general conclusions without interpretation. And in the interpretation all the problems and difficulties of the "older" psychology come up afresh, and its "speculative" methods have to be used again. In giving us something vastly more exact and complete on the physiological side than those sorry writings of the Spencers, the Carpenters, the Maudsleys, and the Luyses, to which they have so long been pent up, Prof. Ladd earns the warm gratitude of all English readers. In his critical and general remarks he shows himself a worthy disciple of Lotze. His erudition, in short, and his broad-mindedness, are on a par with each other; and his volume will probably for many years to come be the standard work of reference on the subject, perhaps all the more so that it is the fruit of conscientiousness and intelligence rather than of genius.

The subjects commonly embraced under the title of physiological psychology are the general physiology of nerve tissue; the anatomy and physiology of the sense organs and nervous centres, and the duration of various processes therein, some accompanied by thought and others not; the subjective analysis and classification of sensations, and the connection between their intensity and quality and the amount and kind of objective stimulus which may call them forth; the analysis of space perception; the measurement of the accuracy of our recollection of sensible experiences, and of intervals of space and time; the ascertainment of the number of facts which consciousness can simultaneously discern; finally, that of the laws of oblivescence and retention. Of most of these topics, and of others less immediately experimental, such as the connection between feelings and movements, the cerebral process of attention, etc., Prof. Ladd gives an exceedingly complete account. The only omissions the present reviewer has noticed are relative to certain matters which are particular hobbies of his own. The pathology of the subject, including even the physiology of sleep, are omitted *in toto* and deliberately, for want of space. The only fault one can find with this part of the book is a certain over-docility in the author. Not pretending to be an original experimenter, it is natural that he should be receptive and respectful of the *facts* of the Wundts and the Helmholtzes. But a dash more of incredulity as to some of their *opinions* would have given his pages a spirit and character which they lack—for example, in the chapters on Space-perception, where the theories of "synthesis," which he follows, can hardly do more than mystify the student by their vagueness, under the guise of enlightening him; and again, in the matter of *reaction-time*, where one fairly longs to hear him brush away the Wundtian verbosity, and call it the simple time of a *reflex act* (a transiently organized one, it is true), which it indubitably is.

However, it is not our purpose to dwell on such defects of detail. We prefer to pass to the more original part of Prof. Ladd's book, which forms its last subdivision and is entitled "The Nature of the Mind." To readers of Lotze this may be described as a very elaborate and minute working over of ground which that philosopher has already made his own. The result is a refined, but distinct and uncompromising, restatement of the spiritualistic position: "The assumption that the mind is a real being, which can be acted on by the brain, and which can act on the body through the brain, is the only one compatible with all the facts of experience." The extraordinary candor and patience with which Prof. Ladd works out this conclusion make it far more persuasive than it ordinarily appears to its adversaries—as when urged, for instance, in the fiery pages of Prof. Bowne. One is made to feel in detail all the difficulties which stand in the way of getting along without some real spiritual principle of unity, until at last their cumulative effect is very great. It is a rather sad feature, in all modern psychological theorizing, that it is the demerits of the other side, rather than the merits of one's own, that are apt to lead one to conclusions. The anti-spiritualists, so far as they are intelligent, swallow all the camels and endure all the beams which Prof. Ladd points out, not because they love camels or beams *per se*, but because they cannot stand certain particular gnats and motes in the spiritualistic theory. The chief stumbling-block there is the utter barrenness, for scientific purposes, of your real spiritual being, or principle of unity, when you have got him. What is the use of a principle from whose nature not one single *deduction* can be made, whose activities, properties, character, and destiny, all have to be gathered from that mass of empirical particulars, for the sake of overcoming the incoherence of which, the principle was originally invoked? The old-fashioned scholastic spiritualism could pretend to deduce immortality at least from the nature of its simple and substantial soul. But Prof. Ladd claims not even this, if we understand him rightly; and abstract reality, unity, and activity remain the only possessions of that spiritual subject whose general admission by psychologists he thinks it such an important point to gain.

The present reviewer is not arguing against the admission of such a being. He is only uttering a word of excuse for those who consider themselves entitled to turn their backs upon it, and to construct psychology exclusively out of the mind's multifarious organic conditions and sensational contents. They may be intellectual barbarians; but, after all, the barbarians are the indispensable agents of renovation in the world. They overthrow the ruins, break the soil, and set all things in motion. In short, they let the crude air of heaven in, and open men's minds to incalculable amounts of new material. The speculative philosophers are, intellectually considered, the *gentlemen*, and are absolutely needed to give some kind of intelligible shape to the raw facts and notions which the barbarians hit upon. But idleness and superciliousness are the hereditary vices of aristocracies; and the philosophers, when not stirred up by barbarian violence, always tend to go to sleep in the closed perfection of their systems. If left to themselves, never a *fact* do they discover. A very few men can both quarry materials with the barbarians and shape them with the philosophers. Lotze in our generation is one of these, and, *longo intervallo*, Wundt. Mr. Ladd is their worthy follower.

One important fault we must find with the latter's philosophizing, although the point can hardly be dealt with at the end of an article. In fighting for the spiritual principle, our author seems to us to draw his line of defence in the wrong place altogether. He appears to think that *sensational* consciousness can be handed over freely to the materialists as their prey. It can be "correlated"—its intensities, orders, etc. explained psycho-physically. It is, as it were, foreign and passive material to the soul; which latter entity is required, not to explain the having of the sensations, but the relating of them together in the characteristic categories of our thinking—self-consciousness, spatial position, memory, causality, substance and attribute, and the like. Reiteratedly Mr. Ladd insists on the point that *these* mental phenomena cannot be conceived to have physical equivalents or analogues, while he seems to admit that sensations may. Of course this exaltation of thinking at the expense of feeling is in the line of orthodox Platonic and Aristotelic tradition. But is it not absolutely baseless? Surely the physically inexplicable thing is, that we should have any consciousness at all, not that we should have any one special sort of it rather than another. *Knowledge* is the miracle; and knowledge is possessed by the sensation which takes cognizance of some bald quality of existence, as much as by the thought which knows everything *about* that quality and its relations to the rest of the world. No physiologist can explain either of these knowledges out of properties of the brain. The most the materialist can do is to borrow them and clap them on, as a ready-made addition, to the brain's other powers. There is only one absolutely unattackable statement, one statement which involves no element of hypothesis whatever; and that is that, as the brain state changes, consciousness floats off, and that each pulse of it is *one* thought as long as it lasts unaltered, no matter whether the object cognized by it be simple or compound. We call it thought proper in the latter case; in the former case, sensation. But the nature of the consciousness is always a function of the *total brain-state* at the time. All talk about "ideas" *composing* the thought, all talk about the share of this or that brain-tract in producing this or that idea, is hypothetical, and goes beyond the empirical facts. The latter, thus simply stated, do not oblige us to invoke any spiritual principle beyond the passing thought as an agent of unification, for the passing thought never was anything but a unit. Much of Prof. Ladd's reasoning thus seems to us to rest on insecure premises. It is only when we seek to go beyond the empirically given correspondence of thought and brain state, and to express it in more elementary terms, that we get entangled. "*Total* brain-state" is not the name of a physical fact at all; and this may end in leading us to considerations which force the notion of a spiritual ego, in spite of its barrenness, on our belief.

BOOKS ABOUT THE STAGE.

The Life and Life-Work of Samuel Phelps. By his nephew, W. May Phelps, and John Forbes-Robertson. London; Sampson Low & Co.; New York: Scribner & Welford.

Mrs. Siddons. By Nina A. Kennard. (Famous Women Series.) Boston: Roberts Bros.

Souvenirs et Études de Théâtre. Par P. Régnier, de la Comédie-Française. Paris: P. Ollendorff; New York: F. W. Christern.

Nos Théâtres de 1800 *à* 1880. Par Alphonse Leveaux. Paris: Tresse & Stock; New York; F. W. Christern.

Les Origines de l'Opéra Français. Par Charles Nuitter et Ernest Thoinan. Paris: Plon; New York: F. W. Christern.

THE portrait of Samuel Phelps contained in the new and exact biography by his nephew and Mr. Forbes-Robertson is very different from that in the recent and more rollicking memoir by Mr. John Coleman, and it is perhaps a little too stiffly drawn to be quite true to nature. It may be doubted whether Samuel Phelps demanded two biographies when we have not one of either Charles Kemble or Thomas Abthorpe Cooper. Yet we have no wish to disparage Phelps, who was, as Mr. William Archer has aptly pointed out, the last of the line of British tragedians trained in the traditions of the British drama. He was an actor of almost the very first rank, a fine tragedian, and even finer comedian. As a manager he did noble work for eighteen years at Sadler's Wells Theatre. Yet he was kept under and forced to play second to Macready in his early manhood, and he was afterward overwhelmed by the splendor of Charles Kean's management. The book before us shows the strife between Phelps and Macready, and the strong dislike they both had for Charles Kean. We see again, as we could see in his 'Reminiscences,' that Macready was desperately jealous and inconceivably afraid of a supplanter; but we see also that he was, in the main, large-hearted and generous. As soon as he and Phelps ceased to be rivals, they became firm friends—united in good works and in contempt of Charles Kean. Like Macready, Phelps had a fondness for the poetic drama; he revived Leigh Hunt's "Legend of Florence," Mr. Browning's "Blot in the 'Scutcheon," and Mr. Boker's "Calaynos"; and he had made ready once to do an "Œdipus" of Lord Lytton's, with music by Mercadante. His career was as honorable to the history of the stage as his character was estimable. The present biography is a solid and substantial volume, making no literary pretence, abundant in dates, rich in reprinted criticisms, and perhaps a little too sparing in anecdote. It is rather the annals of Phelps's adventures as an actor and as a manager than a critical biography. But it is careful and conscientious. It has an index which seems to be sufficient. There are three portraits. In the fifth chapter are many hitherto unpublished letters of Dickens and Macready.

There were three biographies of Mrs. Siddons already existing in print before this new one by Mrs. Kennard, and yet this latest addition to the "Famous Women Series" is welcome, because it is at once briefer and better than any of the other lives of the greatest of English actresses. The authorized biography by Thomas Campbell—if, indeed, Campbell wrote it, which is more than doubtful—was inadequate and inflated. The life by James Boaden was one of a series of biographies into which he was trying arbitrarily to force the whole history of the English stage of the last quarter of the last century and the first quarter of this; and, moreover, it must be confessed that Boaden was not an inspiring writer. The chapters devoted to Mrs. Siddons in Mr. Percy Fitzgerald's 'Lives of the Kembles' are, like all his other writing, inconceivably careless and accidentally interesting. Mrs. Kennard tells the story of Mrs. Siddons's life with the aid of all that her predecessors have written, and of all the numberless references to the great actress in the memoirs and correspondence of the men and women of her day now very generally made public. She has availed herself diligently of all these sources of information, although we do not see that she has read the pages relating to Mrs. Siddons in the recent five-volume series of 'Actors and Actresses of Great Britain and the United States,' which would at least have called to her attention the remarkable notes of the acting of Mrs. Siddons as *Lady Macbeth*, published by the late Prof. Fleeming Jenkin in the *Nineteenth Century*. But, on the whole, Mrs. Kennard has done her work very well. There are but two faults that we have to find with it. One is an excess of quotation from Mrs. Siddons's own not very good letters. The other is a little more serious: it is that Mrs. Kennard, having to write the lives of Rachel and Mrs. Siddons, probably the two greatest actresses who ever lived, did not study more carefully the principles of the art of acting. If she had mastered Diderot's 'Paradoxe sur le Comédien,' if she had read Mr. Henry Irving's preface to Mr. Pollock's translation of Diderot, or if she had digested Lewes's reflections "On Actors and the Art of Acting," she could never have written as she does (p. 157):

"We imagine there is no law to be laid down on the subject of the amount of feeling an actor really puts into the part he is enacting. It must vary. Conventionality must, with the greatest of them, now and then take the place of emotion; or, as Talma expresses it, the '*métier* must now and then take the place of *le vrai*.'"

This is rank heresy, and the quotation from Talma is made to bear a forced and false interpretation. Equally wrong are the views expressed on p. 164:

"An artist gets certain words to utter; he gets the skeleton sketch, as it were, of the character he has to portray; but the emphasis and passion he puts into them, which go direct from his heart to the heart of his audience, must be his and his alone, and *must be as little as possible the effect of study or deliberation.*"

A perusal of M. Coquelin's article in the May *Harper's* or of his lecture on "L'Art et le Comédien" will show Mrs. Kennard what an erroneous view of histrionic art she has taken in the passages quoted. Or she may study with advantage the 'Souvenirs et Études de Théâtre,' a posthumous collection of critical and biographical papers by M. Coquelin's master, the late M. Régnier of the Comédie-Française. The essays having to do with the art of acting are those on Mlle. de Champmeslé, Adrienne Lecouvreur, and Talma. Régnier, who had made his first appearance on the stage in 1811, in an impromptu celebration of the birth of the King of Rome, was taken by his grandmother to the Théâtre-Français April 2, 1814, the first night the house was opened after the return of the Bourbons, and then he saw Talma act in "Iphigénie." Later he became intimate with the greatest of French actors, and there is, perhaps, nowhere any better account of Talma's character, of his private habits, of his ways of thinking as an artist, of his personal peculiarities than can be found in these few pages of Régnier's. Especially interesting is his analysis of the relations between Talma and Napoleon. In considering the career of Adrienne Lecouvreur, Régnier digresses into a curious inquiry as to the effect which the increased facilities of lighting the stage may have had on the art of acting. Mr. Henry Irving is wont to tell an anecdote of the wrath of Edmund Kean when his *Iago* tried to thrust him out of the "focus"—the single position on the stage at which the dim lamps of those days made the actors' features best visible to the spectators. Régnier recalled the stage of the Théâtre Français in 1822, lighted by forty lamps. In 1833 gas took the place of oil; in 1847 the quantity of burners was again greatly increased; since then many devices have been adopted still further to flood the stage with light. "Well," Régnier records, "this steady increase of illumination is for me, I seriously declare, of no appreciable value. It seems to me that I saw Talma and Mlle. Mars as well sixty years ago as I see the actors of to-day." M. Régnier's book is adorned with a portrait etched by M. Blanchard and by five head-band medallion portraits by M. G. Clairin.

M. Leveaux's little book on 'Nos Théâtres de 1800 à 1880' is rather a classified summary of French dramatic productions during this century than the consideration of the theatres of Paris which the title seemed to promise. M. Leveaux has provided here an easy and unpretending account of the changes and developments of the various branches of dramatic art in France. Although now well stricken in years, he is no praiser of past times, but sees much which is better to-day than it was yesterday; and an optimistic old man is likely to take a healthy view of things. So this little book of M. Leveaux's may be commended to the perusal of the pessimists who prate about the decline of the drama. One example of progress that M. Leveaux cites is the great improvement of late years in the quality of the orchestras of the chief Parisian musical theatres. M. Leveaux may be remembered as the author of a pleasant account of the Imperial Theatre at Compiègne, and he was also a partner of M. Labiche's in writing that most delightful drollery, 'La Grammaire,' although he had to sign this with a pseudonym, as the conjunction on a programme of Leveaux and Labiche was not to be ventured on.

M. Charles Nuitter is the librarian of the Opéra in Paris, to whose loving care an admirable and rapidly increasing collection owes its organization and its present commodious quarters in the former Imperial Pavilion. Besides being a librettist of distinction, he is a diligent student of theatrical history. In collaboration with M. Ernest Thoinan, also a conscientious investigator, he has now done for Lulli, Perrin, and the early history of the Opéra what Eudore Soulié did for Molière and the early history of the Comédie-Française. By permission of the Chamber of Notaries, the authors searched through the legal documents of Lulli, Perrin, Cambert, etc., as still preserved in the studies of the successors of the notaries who drew them up. The discoveries thus made were confirmed by references to the official archives at the National Library, at the Prefecture of Police and the Conciergerie, at the Comédie-Française, and elsewhere. In short, instead of copying the blunders of those who had hitherto written ignorantly on the subject, they went to work in a scientific spirit and investigated for themselves, with the natural result of upsetting nearly all the received theories in regard to the founding of the Opéra. Space fails even to indicate the extent of their curious discoveries, chief among which, as we lately pointed out, is a semi-rehabilitation of that wily Italian, Lulli. A word of special praise is due to the introductory chapter on the French court-ballets—closely akin to the English masques in which Ben Jonson and Inigo Jones worked together; from these court-ballets modern French opera may be said to have been evolved.

CENTRAL ASIA.

England and Russia Face to Face in Asia. Travels with the Afghan Boundary Commission. By Lieut. A. C. Yate, Bombay Staff Corps. London: Blackwood & Sons. 1887.

IT was in the spring of 1885 that the long-expected and much-talked-of struggle between Russia and England for supremacy in Asia seemed actually to have commenced. It had been arranged between the two Governments that a joint Commission should meet and mark out the frontier which was henceforth to divide the Asiatic possessions of the Czar from the territories of the Amir of Afghanistan. The British half of this Commission was already on the spot; the Russian half was expected shortly to arrive—when suddenly the world was startled by the intelligence that a Russian force under Gen. Koma-

roff had attacked and defeated with heavy loss an Afghan force. At once rose a babel of recriminatory voices. The Russians protested that the Afghans had no business to be where they were; the village of Panjdeh, which they had occupied, had always been included in the Khanate of Khiva, and its occupation at the present moment was an impudent attempt on the part of the Afghans to prejudge the line of frontier in their favor. Now, as the Afghans had occupied the disputed position at the instigation of the English Boundary Commission, the latter was of course equally loud and positive that they had an unquestionable right to do so; and the position was such that neither England nor Russia could make a concession to the other without seeming to yield to fear. Happily, at the eleventh hour, a collision was averted by the physical impossibility of getting either a Russian or a British army on to the contested ground. This gave time for reflection; reflection, in its turn, led to inquiry; and inquiry convinced most reasonable persons that the Russian General was right in his contention, and the Afghans had no business in Panjdeh. Sir Peter Lumsden, the chief of the English Boundary Commission, was recalled to London, and the marking out of the frontier was then proceeded with.

Lieut. Yate, the author of this book, was attached to the English Boundary Commission, accompanied it on its march from India through an unexplored portion of Afghanistan, and remained with it through the greater part of its adventures in Central Asia. Had he chosen to take the trouble, he might have written a book giving important information of the wild peoples in this little-known portion of the world, and the position of Russia among them; but he has not chosen. He has preferred to bind up in a single cover the letters sent by him from day to day for publication in an Indian paper, and the result is a book of amazing prolixity and dulness. Information there doubtless is to be found here and there, but it is hidden away under such a quantity of insignificant detail as practically to be undiscoverable. As a contribution to the study of the Central Asiatic question, the book is worthless; but, in another way, Lieut. Yate's letters are highly instructive and even amusing. He apologizes, in his preface, for offering these letters to the public in lieu of a continuous composition, on the ground that "the vivid impressions of the moment give often a truer conception of events than a carefully considered narrative written a year later." The statement is highly questionable, but there can be no doubt that "the vivid impressions of the moment give a truer conception" of the *feelings* of an actor in any occurrence than "a carefully considered narrative written a year later." As a description of the feelings with which the English Boundary Commission entered upon their work, Lieut. Yate's narrative is comically instructive, and few who read it will doubt that, if feelings at all similar prevailed among the Russians, the slaughter of the Afghans which took place at the battle of Pul i-Khishti was practically inevitable.

The cardinal doctrine in the political faith of a British Jingo is that the British nation is in possession of a right divine to appropriate for its own use any part of the earth's surface which the protection, real or fancied, of "British interests" may require. This right extends to Paris, New York, Berlin, St. Petersburg, and the like places, although, for obvious reasons it is, as regards these centres of civilization, practically in abeyance. Not so, however, with Upper Burmah, Afghanistan, Persia, Herat, etc. These Great Britain may take over at any moment with a conscience void of offence; but that the right is single and peculiar to herself is seen in the moral indignation aroused in the virtuous British Jingo by the spectacle of Russian aggressiveness. The English Boundary Commission, composed as it was exclusively of Indian officials, were, it is almost needless to say, Jingoes to a man, and, to judge from Lieut. Yate's letters, they entered upon their labors in the spirit of Crusaders about to carry on a holy war. They were resolved not to be overreached by the fraudulent wiles of the Russian. They were filled with a devout enthusiasm for the "legal rights" of the Amir and the liberties of the Turcoman. They knew beforehand that the Russian authorities could put forth no claims which were not unjust, could assert nothing which was not untrue, could attempt no action which was not dictated by a spirit of fraud and aggression. They had, in a word, taken the field determined to believe nothing good, and greedily to swallow all of evil that could be alleged of those with whom they were expected to coöperate peacefully. And if, as is not unlikely, similar prepossessions prevailed in the Russian camp, the collision that ensued can surprise no one. The poor Afghans had unhappily to "pay the piper." They bitterly complained, as Lieut. Yate acknowledges, that they had been "egged on" to fight, and then left to their fate by their instigators. Gen. Kormaroff was really fighting the English Commission when he attacked the Afghans at Pul i-Khishti.

For the rest, Lieut. Yate bears ample, though reluctant, testimony to the good work which Russia is doing in these savage and unfrequented countries. His letters, like all previous accounts, show that everywhere there are indications which prove that the flourishing cities and the abundant populations once supposed to be located there were no mere fables or exaggerations of the old Oriental historians. The vestiges of those better times still survive. The capabilities of the soil are great beyond measure: It needs only to be broken up by the plough. But cities and people have alike vanished before Oriental misrule and the depredations of the raiding Turcomans. The Russian advance suppresses both the one and the other. Thus Lieut. Yate writes:

"In viewing the Russian subjugation of Central Asia, one is apt at times to overlook the immense boon that they have conferred on the population of Northern Persia and Afghanistan by putting a bit in the mouth of those inveterate ruthless marauders, the Turkomans. . . . As an instance of the utter destitution and depopulation resulting from the unbridled rapacity of the Turkomans, Sir Peter Lumsden's party state that between Tarakhs and Kuhsan they scarcely met half-a-dozen human beings. . . . The truth is, that the Persian and Afghan Governments have neither possessed the power nor displayed the spirit and energy requisite for coping with these lawless tribes, which, too lazy to till the soil, and finding pastoral pursuits but little profitable, adopted the simpler and more attractive means of livelihood afforded by looting and selling into captivity their neighbors. . . . To this unequal struggle—affording to the Turkomans all the pleasures of the chase, combined with the risks and excitements of war, and attended by considerable pecuniary gain, and spreading ruin and devastation over the greater part of Khorasan—the Russian advance imposed an effectual check, and the occupation of Merv . . . has finally put an end to it."

And in another place:

"It is not surprising that the subjugation of the Turkomans should have gained for Russia fame throughout Asia. The mere liberation of thousands of Persian and Afghan captives is no small claim to gratitude. Even to the Turkomans, once subdued, she seems to have obeyed with conciliatory moderation. . . . The Russians have remitted, I hear, to all their Turkoman subjects all taxes for seven years from date of annexation, and, after that, a tithe of the produce of the soil and one per cent. of the flocks and herds, will be taken. One cannot find fault with them for seeking to conciliate their own subjects. It is the right policy. . . . I have heard more than one Turk, taken prisoner during the war of 1876-77, laud Russian kindness. This is part of a prescient policy. Even the Afghans wounded at Panjdeh have, I hear, received every care and attention in the Russian hospitals."

The pity of it is that the British people, instead of coöperating with Russia in this beneficent work, should follow it with unceasing distrust and suspicion; should assail her with invective and abuse at every advance in it. Lieut. Yate's letters are, of course, full of the wonted lunacies of the British Russophobists. Among the crazes of these people is a specially rabid one for projecting interminable lines of railway across desert places in order to attack Russia in front, flank, and rear simultaneously. Lieut. Yate maps out about half-a-dozen of these lunatic railways, the joint cost of which, if constructed and adequately defended, would come to about one hundred million pounds. And yet his own reasoning goes to show that if the English in India desire to be absolutely safe from Russian attack, all they have to do is to await it in India.

"Supposing," he writes, "that Herat falls, and a Russian army, 100,000 strong, advances on Kandahar, the most arduous part of its task is but just beginning. It remains to be proved if they can collect transport for the movement of a force of 100,000 men, and if they can feed such a large force. In the Afghan campaigns from 1878-80, the largest British force in the field was about 60,000 men; and with all the resources of India, with its two hundred and fifty millions of inhabitants at Government disposal, it was no easy matter to provide an army even of that size with transport. How, then, is Russia, with nothing but semi-sterile steppes, with some half-dozen millions of settlers to draw upon, to transport 100,000 men from Herat to the Helmund!"

This, beyond all question, is sound reasoning. But if the difficulties of moving a large force from Herat to the Helmund—a distance of 250 miles—be so stupendous, how insuperable would they become if the advance had to be extended 600 miles beyond it—*i. e.*, to the Indus instead of the Helmund. What the British Russophobist cannot be got to understand is, that the difficulties of an invasion of India are diminished in precisely the same proportion that British authority is extended over Afghanistan. His policy—the policy that finds favor in Calcutta and Downing Street equally—is persistently to eat into the dominions of the Amir, and undermine his authority as an independent sovereign. The result of this policy is, that, in the event of a war, the British troops will have to fight with defiles and deserts in their rear, instead of having compelled Russia to fight under those disadvantageous conditions.

Waste-Land Wanderings. By Charles C. Abbott, M.D. Harpers. 1887. 8vo, pp. xii, 312.

In this very pleasant book, the author of 'Upland and Meadow' has given us another chronicle of his observations along the creeks, through the pastures, and by the old "worm fences" of his New Jersey home. The recital is perhaps a little less lively than the one which preceded it, but does not suffer on that account; and, for those who love such flavor of hedge and meadow as may be conveyed through the medium of printed pages, the volume will be equally welcome. Among the numerous matters discussed are the mating of birds, the winter avifauna of the region, Indian modes of fishing, the sense of direction and the burrowing of animals, and numerous quaint and more or less inaccurate natural-history records by early settlers or bookmakers.

Dr. Abbott, like most of us, is somewhat disposed to resent criticism, but there is evidence in the more guarded statements of the present volume that he has profited by criticism on his earlier writings of this kind. If such books are to be regarded as mere literature, which, it is to be presumed, he would deny as positively as any of

his critics, it would not be worth while to discuss whether his work does or does not contain errors of statement which, taken literally, vitiate its reliability as a record. But if it is to be regarded as the observations of a naturalist enshrined in a literary setting, and hereafter to be referred to by naturalists of the twentieth century as a picture of New Jersey faunal life in A. D. 1886, it is perfectly in order to point out that it is sometimes more precise than accurate, and occasionally seriously mistaken. As a naturalist bent on probing the mysteries of nature, Dr. Abbott would doubtless be the last person to object to criticism intended solely to eliminate obscurity and error. We shall therefore proceed to call attention to several points where haste in writing or faulty identification of species has allowed error to creep in.

In his account (p. 180) of the supposed æstivation of Hesperomys (a proposition entirely possible, but as yet unverified by any purely scientific observer, and therefore interesting to establish) it is stated that a family of white-footed mice was found in the torpid state in the summer of 1884. They were seven hours in being waked up by being placed in a cool spot; were replaced in the nest, which they then abandoned, but returned to next day. "Three days later these mice were found in precisely the same condition. Time, noon; thermometer 106° F." They were "taken directly to a cellar forty-two degrees cooler than the open field." "The young died in one hour; the old mouse in less than three hours," of the shock (p. 181). On the next page, however, we read that the author "carefully removed these mice from the field and placed them near a stove, so that the midday temperature could be maintained. The result was the continuance of the dormant condition for eighty-four hours." But, as indicated by the above quotations, the mice had died some nine hours before! Evidently the last-mentioned experiment proves too much.

We read (p. 50) of the blue-bird: "Prominent among our resident birds. . . . Since 1874 I have recorded them 3,400 times." This is possible, but it certainly shows great industry and misplaced activity, in the case of a bird known to be a resident, that its presence should be formally recorded every day, barring Sundays, for ten years, as is required by the numeral given. "A lonely chat" (p. 18) is referred to, under date of July 29, as "perhaps the last of the season," but the chat is a summer resident, as no one knows better than Dr. Abbott.

In his endeavor to uphold his surprising hypothesis that many if not most birds mate permanently, the author (p. 56) is "fully convinced" that the same individual pairs of "song thrushes, brown thrushes, catbirds, chats, house wrens, vireos of three species," etc., reappeared from year to year. As the birds above mentioned have both sexes similarly feathered and only to be distinguished by dissection or extremely critical measurements, most ornithologists will doubt the accuracy of the identification until more weighty evidence is adduced. The records of the observers of bird migration, though still in manuscript, show beyond question that the male Baltimore oriole arrives from five to eight days before the female at a given northern point, the two sexes proceeding separately in successive "waves." When Dr. Abbott (p. 57) observes the male joined by the female "a few hours later," it only shows that the male had been there, or near by, unobserved, at least five days.

"Traill's flycatcher," a bird which is not known in summer in New Jersey, is doubtless an erroneous identification. The note described shows that the bird was the Least Flycatcher. The woodwren (p. 118) is spoken of as having darker feathers than the housewren. It is not clear what species is intended, but the fact cannot be controverted that between the real wood and housewrens, so called, there is not any difference of shade whatever, except such as may be due to accidental soiling of the feathers. On page 200, a frog is represented as having swallowed four young "wood-tattlers." Now the wood-tattler (*Totanus solitarius*) is a bird which breeds in the high north. Its very eggs are unknown from the United States, and the meal of the aforesaid frog was doubtless made on the young of a very different bird. "Green lizard" (p. 255) should be *gray* lizard; the green species only lives much further south. In the list of winter birds "both kinglets" are included (p. 285). The golden-crested kinglet winters in New Jersey, but the ruby-crowned one has not yet been authenticated by winter specimens from that region. The identity of the "grass-finch" (p. 291) is doubtful; if it is the true grass-finch (*Poœcætes gramineus*), it stands in the same category as the preceding. Ornithologists would be grateful to Dr. Abbott for material substantiating his observations, which it is quite possible may not be in error. The occurrence of swarming of red ants in New Jersey in October (p. 88) is so remarkable an incident that more details might have been given. It appears to be as yet unknown to our best formicologists.

The above citations, made in no unfriendly spirit, will, we hope, lead to greater circumspection in the preparation of the future volumes which we may anticipate from this agreeable writer.

Anne Gilchrist: Her Life and Writings. Edited by Herbert Harlakenden Gilchrist. With a prefatory notice by William Michael Rossetti. Scribner & Welford. 1887.

THE artistic taste which is shown in the making and embellishment of this volume confers a certain distinction upon it, and arouses expectations of some unusual charm in the text. It is true that the subject of it, Mrs. Gilchrist, the wife of the unfortunate and talented art critic who wrote the Life of William Blake, contributed nothing to literature; but she left a pleasant memory to her circle, and to attest this seems to be the principal object of her biography. She was herself an attractive person, possessed of a frank and eminently womanly nature; but as this found only a limited expression, one learns to know her rather by Mr. Rossetti's description in his very brief prefatory notice than by her own words or acts. Womanliness is a charm which works so much more powerfully in person, however, than in any description, that one finds himself mostly occupied with what is usually the secondary interest of a biography—the people whom the lady knew. We are taken into the group of artists of whom Dante Rossetti has become the most famous. Some simple, manly letters of his, essentially private, reveal his nature in a kindly light, and there are a few glimpses of other members of the set as well as of the Carlyles and Tennyson. Excepting with the Rossettis, Mrs. Gilchrist's acquaintance with these distinguished men was hardly more than casual, though extremely cordial while it lasted. Her husband's early death left her with four young children to bring up, and she retained the interest and regard of his old friends with exceptional success, so that her home never lost its intellectual character; but her life was necessarily a confined one, and her correspondence deals with personal matters. It is agreeable to observe that all of the irritable race of authors and artists who come on the stage behave themselves with exemplary kindness and good feeling; it is not often that worldly observation steals on such a covey of them at so happy a moment.

The great fact of the book, both in Mr. Rossetti's preface, in the Life, and in the subjoined essays by Mrs. Gilchrist, is her advocacy of the merits of Walt Whitman. She was captivated by the volume of selections by which Mr. Rossetti introduced him to the English, and she then read his works entire; at a later time she made a long stay in this country and formed an intimate friendship with the poet, which continued unbroken until her death. She regarded herself as especially fitted to promulgate Walt Whitman because she was a woman, and her writings upon him show a quick sentiment and a comprehension of the great lines along which his feelings and ideas move; but they cannot be looked upon as criticism. It is to be remembered by those who may judge too hastily of the wisdom of Mrs. Gilchrist's course in this matter, that she had completed her husband's Life of Blake, with Dante Rossetti's invaluable aid, years before, and had consequently long been familiar with erratic notions upon delicate subjects; and doubtless, too, the peculiar moral prepossessions of the æsthetic group to which she was so nearly allied in culture, counted in her judgment upon the tabooed portion of Walt Whitman's works. But it is at least open to debate whether the poet's repute is really served by having a woman champion him, since that very fact only tends to bring out more sharply those parts of his verses which are most likely to offend and are of least value, even were their place to be granted. Mrs. Gilchrist, however, chose to do this, and her friends sustained her, and her son honorably upholds her by setting forth her friendship with Walt Whitman and her public approval of him as one of her most important doings in life. Certainly there seems to be as little harm as good in the affair; but with regard to the chances of posterity being very grateful to Mrs. Gilchrist for this, Americans must still politely but firmly differ from their English friends.

The book is destined to form a readable chapter in the history of the Rossetti group, which is sure to be an important episode of our century in literature and art; and one is glad to know that so excellent an Englishwoman will figure in it.

Mr. Rossetti sums up her life as one "of earnest, warm, and unfettered simplicity, holding an even and sensitive balance between the claims of family affection and those of intellectual activity." As an Englishwoman who linked ordinary duty with a culture strictly limited within very peculiar lines of art and thought, her character has a curious interest. The reminiscences of the distinguished are a good sauce to the volume; its eccentricities are bone of its bone.

Cycling. By Viscount Bury and G. Lacy Hillier. With numerous illustrations by Viscount Bury and Joseph Pennell. London: Longmans: Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1887.

WHAT matter can be named of more ancient or more general interest than cycling? Since Adam's day has not each mother's son and daughter of us been a cyclist, bound as we all are to our rims of latitude, peripheries which whirl us on through space from west to east at a rate which entitles us all to championship honors? Really, what greater distinction has the nineteenth century than that it has found a way to make sport of this everlasting rolling to which we are all doomed? What ought to interest the world more than a good treatise upon cycling? and how singular that until this elegant volume appeared, man, in spite of his long experience as a wheelman, had produced no such book.

The "Badminton Library of Sports and Pastimes," as our readers know, is an English series designed to treat thoroughly the ways in which the Britisher gets his air and exercise. It is edited by the Duke of Beaufort and dedicated to the Prince of Wales. The volume upon 'Cycling,'

written jointly by a Viscount, President of the National Cyclists' Union, and by one of the most noted of English wheelmen, will, no doubt, receive at home a reception adequate to an enterprise so augustly fathered and chaperoned. It deserves also a good reception elsewhere. The information given is accurate and wide in its range. The historical phase of the subject receives attention. How to ride, to race, to tour; how to dress, to prepare racing paths, to form clubs; how the machines are made; how women as well as men may enjoyably and profitably mount the wheel—all these topics are discussed intelligently and fully in the 450 pages. There is often a breezy grace in the literary workmanship, born no doubt of the sport itself; one feels that the hand that shapes the sentences has just pressed the brake in some daring coast, or guided the machine in a vigorous spin. The illustrations are often admirable. The *Century* has made the world familiar with Mr. Pennell's pictures of cycling, and his work in this volume does not fall behind his previous achievements.

As offered to the American public, the capital defect of the book is that it is so exclusively English. American cycling is seldom mentioned, and still more seldom the sport elsewhere. Additional chapters are certainly needed to adapt it to the wants of our wheelmen, and it is strange that a book in which we are so ignored should seek an American market. Cycling has, on this side the ocean, too, an interesting history; we have had our bold riders, whose deeds deserve celebration. Since conditions here are so different from those in the Old World, a consideration of how the machine and the sport should be modified to suit those conditions is very requisite. Aside from this capital defect, there are minor blemishes. The Humber machines are without doubt good, but several other types are, in American eyes, equally good, and do not deserve to be neglected while the Humbers are extolled. The slot in the shoe, a contrivance in this book highly commended, is among us almost entirely out of use, as is also the rat-trap pedal, except for racing purposes. It is strange to find the cinder path so highly commended, American experience showing beyond all question that clay is faster, safer, and in all respects preferable. Almost all world records, except the fifty miles by Falconer, have been made on American clay tracks. The book naturally regards cycling, for the most part, as a means of sport and exercise; while it by no means leaves unmentioned its possibilities as regards the practical purposes of life, it would have been well to dwell upon these still more.

After mentioning these shortcomings, we are glad to say we have found 'Cycling' extremely fascinating, and believe it ought to do much, even on this side of the Atlantic, to foster the love of the exercise. Let it not be thought that the wheel is a thing of interest simply to bounding youth. 'Cycling' gives us the portrait of Lord Bury, mounted upon a Humber roadster—a white-whiskered veteran well on in years, whose athletic grace, however, is no doubt won from the pastime, of which, as head of the N. C. U., he is in England the most prominent exponent. We happen to know that Samuel Rawson Gardiner, in some ways the first historian of England, forsaking his researches in the British Museum and Public Archives, crosses, with his accomplished wife as a companion, to France, and, for a vacation, does a few departments on a tandem; and this, though close upon sixty. We know, moreover, of an American professor on the shady side of fifty, with eyes bleared over strange alphabets, and legs crooked by long cramping under a class-room desk, who almost snook himself back into youth again as he pedalled a tricycle last summer through the English Midlands, drinking in the beauty of the summer landscape, while his shrunk calves, responding to the exercise, distended his knickerbockers to the admiration of all beholders. Henceforth he is a wheelman for this life; and if, for his sins, it falls to him hereafter to receive the doom of Ixion, he is quite reconciled to being a cyclist in more worlds than one.

American Ancestry, giving the Name and Descent, in the Male Line, of Americans whose Ancestors Settled in the United States previous to the Declaration of Independence, A. D. 1776. By Thomas P. Hughes. Vol. I. City of Albany. Albany: Joel Munsell's Sons. 1887. 8vo, pp. 100.

This book, as the initial volume of the proposed enterprise, is surely one of the curiosities of literature. That enterprise apparently is to take every portion of the United States, and to record the pedigree of all Americans coming under the definition of the title-page. Of course, there is no objection to such a work, because that definition really means only the separation of old settlers from new-comers, and points out the interesting fact that in certain parts of the country the records of vital statistics are more full than they are in Europe. That is to say, an Englishman of ordinary condition, an artisan, farmer, or tradesman, can hardly hope to trace his ancestry for eight generations; but, in most of our old colonies, the "American," as above defined, can easily do it. The same difficulty also extends to other parts of Europe, and if the distinction be worth anything, there is no harm in claiming it. Of course, our town histories and family genealogies have been doing the same work. Mr. Hughes varies it by taking a city, that agglomeration of extracts from rural districts, and dealing with the persons living there at the time. In fact, he makes a kind of glorified directory of that city, very much on the plan of 'Our First Families' and similar literature, excluding, however, all personal praise of the present generation. It is needless to add that only subscribers to the book can be recorded in it, because the general circulation must be very limited. While many persons would pay to read scandal against even the grandfather of some aspiring and successful neighbor, few will pay to learn that his progenitors were really very decent and respectable subjects of King George.

The editor seems to be honest and capable, and it may well be that he has struck upon a new and profitable vein of compilation. Of course, no literary talent is exercised, and criticism is limited to the apparent correctness of the pedigrees. In fact, "for persons who like this kind of a book it is just the kind of a book they will like."

The Story of Ancient Egypt. By George Rawlinson, M. A., Camden Professor of Ancient History in the University of Oxford, etc. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1887.

Of all the volumes of "The Story of the Nations Series" that have fallen under our notice, we deem this by far the best written, and, in general, best prepared for the purpose in view. It was, in fact, no great task for the veteran writer on Egypt and kindred subjects of ancient history to collect and arrange an amount of particularly interesting Egyptian lore sufficient to fill a small volume. But he has admirably acquitted himself of the task, especially as regards diction. Some of his descriptions—like that of the country at the beginning—will charm young and old, and all will be found worthy of attentive perusal. As a true history, the book is, perhaps, written with too much enthusiasm for the subject and too great faith in the contents of monumental records—a general failing of Egyptologists and Assyriologists. Yet, kept in check by his reverence for the Bible, Prof. Rawlinson sins in this respect much less than others. Whenever, indeed, Bible and monuments are apparently in conflict, he shyly withdraws from the weighing of the debatable testimony. It is regard for the short chronology of the Hebrews, for instance, which makes him speak so very guardedly of the hoary antiquity of Egyptian civilization: "A consecutive series of monuments carries the date of the first civilization at least as far back as B. C. 2700—probably further." Occasionally a Biblical narrative is broadly introduced, such as the story of Sarah in the harem of Pharaoh, which is related with a serious consideration of motives—"as Josephus thinks" and "as others have surmised"—which is calculated to make critics smile. In writing this book, the septuagenarian author had chiefly young readers before his eyes, but there are lines in which the abominations of Egypt are set forth with too little reserve. All pedantry and dryly learned discussions are avoided. The forms used in rendering Egyptian names are plain and uniform. There was, however, no reason, as far as we know, for clinging to the long-discarded form Shafra, as name of the builder of the "second" pyramid, the Chephren of the Greeks, and Khafra of Brugsch, Lauth, Maspero, Petrie, and other recent Egyptologists. The two small maps contained in the book are poor, that of "the Fayoum" especially abounding in misprinted names: Tamich, for Tamieh; Benisonef, for Benisouef; Hali, for Hati, etc. The illustrations, which are taken from the author's larger 'History of Ancient Egypt,' are, on the other hand, very good.

The Story of the Normans, told chiefly in relation to their Conquest of England. By Sarah Orne Jewett. [The Story of the Nations.] G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1887.

The romantic history of the Normans has found a worthy chronicler in Miss Jewett, who has made out of her material one of the most interesting volumes of the series. The title-page would lead one to fear lest the earlier history of the Normans and their adventures in the South be somewhat neglected for the English conquest. It is not so, however. The whole career of the Normans is well told: their life in the North, the annals of the duchy, and the adventurous conquest of southern Italy and Sicily. Only, our sense of proportion and completeness would have been better satisfied if this last subject had been carried out a little further—to the death of William the Good, the end of the Norman period in Sicily, as the death of Henry Beauclerc was in England. The account of the peasants' revolt we will mention as particularly good. There are many excellent illustrations, especially from the Bayeux Tapestry; but we cannot see the pertinence of a full view of Canterbury Cathedral and the doorway of Chartres Cathedral to a history of the Norman period.

The German Classics, from the Fourth to the Nineteenth Century. With Biographical Notices, Translations into Modern German, and Notes, by F. Max Müller, M.A. 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1886.

This work was originally issued in 1858, but, while the plan of it remains unchanged, it has been thoroughly revised and rearranged in order to accompany Scherer's 'History of German Literature.' The main work of this edition was done by Prof. Franz Lichtenstein of the University of Breslau, who did not live to complete his task. The new selections are largely due to the judgment and taste of Prof. Scherer himself, and it

is only by a large courtesy that the present volumes can bear the name of the original editor. Most of the illustrative extracts previous to the seventeenth century have been changed. In that dreary period of German literature, the jewels were so few that the popular acceptance has dictated a selection, in the main uniform, in the two editions. The second volume, beginning with the reign of Frederick the Great, is substantially a new work. The first edition embraced the classic writers of the eighteenth century; the present edition includes extracts from the writers of the Romantic school, extending to Grillparzer and Heine. Translations into modern German accompany the extracts from the literature before the fifteenth century. The authorship of these translations is not ordinarily given, although it should have been indicated. The translations of Simrock have been most often employed. While opinions may differ as to the value of all collections which can represent only imperfectly, by fragmentary extracts, the masterpieces of literature, especially the drama or longer epics and prose works, a selection of lyric poems may fairly represent the best of their authors.

This collection embraces both poetry and prose, and includes specimens of the Latin poetry and hymns. Its selections from early German are reasonably complete. It would have been well to have included the Strassburg Oaths, both from their historical and their linguistic interest. The 'Merigarto' is omitted here, as is all mention of it in Scherer's History. In general, the leading authors are represented, though occasionally we miss such names as Tatian and Tauler and the Winsbeke, and such works as the Wartburg 'Sängerkrieg.' The introductory notes prefixed to the extracts have been revised and abridged. In these a marked improvement is manifest over the first edition. They contain brief outlines of the author's life, and indicate the standard editions of his works. On the whole, this selection will serve admirably its purpose as a companion volume to Scherer's History, and will be useful to all students as a general reference-book in German literature.

The Dictionary of Religion: An Encyclopædia of Christian and Other Religious Doctrines, Denominations, Sects, Heresies, Ecclesiastical Terms, History, Biography, etc., etc. Edited by the Rev. William Blenham, B.D, F.S.A. Cassell & Co. 1887. Pp. 1,148.

BEGUN, as the preface announces, by the late Rev. J. H. Blunt, this work would appear to have been intended as a combination, revised and enlarged, of his 'Dictionary of Doctrinal and Historical Theology' (London, 1870) and his 'Dictionary of Sects, Heresies, and Schools of Thought' (London, 1874). In turning over his material to Mr. Blenham, the publishers made a happy choice. For the avowed High Church standpoint of Blunt, at least in the volumes referred to, has been substituted an attitude of attempted and remarkably well-sustained impartiality. The editor declares his purpose to be that of describing "doctrines and practices far removed from" his own "in a simply informative rather than dogmatic spirit," and of always finding, "if possible, the point of unity in things differing"; and it must be said that this admirable plan is executed with great fidelity. The different denominations are allowed to speak for themselves. With commendable self-restraint, even the anti-Episcopal arguments of Presbyterians and Independents are stated by Mr. Blenham in their full force, though briefly, and are left unanswered—though the Episcopal position is given, of course, elsewhere. In cases, too, where the two sides have to be considered together (in the article on the "Unity of the Church," for example), we get the summing-up of a judge rather than the argument of an advocate. Most difficult of all, the articles dealing with what the preface calls "The Great Controversy"—Ritualism in the Church of England is meant—are made almost absolutely colorless. Conflicting views and practices are fairly stated; the recent decisions of the ecclesiastical courts, with the grounds of them, are given; and there the matter is left. It would be more than human nature for an author handling living controversies to be able completely to efface himself, and close scrutiny will reveal some evidence, mostly in the use of significant adjectives, that Mr. Blenham's sympathies are against the High-Church movement. In biographical articles such as those on Pusey, Maurice, Kingsley, Stanley, and Colenso, there is almost necessarily a measure of self-betrayal; but a high degree of impartiality must be set down as one of the reasons why this 'Dictionary' is destined to supersede such forerunners in the same field as Farrar, Eadie, and Staunton.

We would also praise its lucid compactness. It has not, of course, the immense range of Herzog, even in the greatly condensed English translation. The lopping off of purely Scriptural topics, which are turned over to the strictly "Bible" dictionaries, makes possible a great saving of space over the last-mentioned work. But, in addition to that, the general reader will be thankful for the display of a happy faculty of putting into a paragraph the essence of many a page. The result is a convenience in consultation (greatly heightened by abundant cross-references) which is sure to make this a favorite book of reference with all who seek condensed information on the subjects with which it deals.

The doctrinal position of the 'Dictionary,' reflected in such articles as those on Atonement, Justification, and Eternal Punishment, is fairly enough described in the preface as being that of the "intelligent members of the Church of England." Mr. Bagehot was probably right in saying that the only one of the Articles seriously taken by them is the one forbidding works of supererogation. The attitude towards science is one of uneasy tolerance. Adam and Eve are very likely allegorical, and Evolution is not so black as it has been painted; but the usual theological muzzles are applied as soon as science begins to utter conclusions which theology has not yet been educated into admitting. Ecclesiastical terminology is very fully explained. The member of the Cabinet who defined an archdeacon as "a deacon who performs archdiaconal functions," would not have been reduced to such straits by the challenge of an Opposition orator if he had had this work at his elbow. Some of the historical articles are written in apparent oblivion of late researches. Thus, under "Polycarp," no reference is made to the new date of his death, so important in its bearing, for example, on the authorship of the fourth Gospel, ingeniously argued for by Waddington twenty years ago, and since adopted by such differing authorities as Renan, Hilgenfeld, and Harnack. This omission is by no means characteristic, however.

On its American side we should naturally expect to find this English 'Dictionary' rather weak. Relative unimportance from the point of view cannot, nevertheless, excuse antiquated knowledge, much less inexactness. It is somewhat surprising that the Protestant Episcopal Church of the United States figures in these pages only incidentally and obscurely in the article, "United States of America, Religion in." In fact, the American Presbyterian Church is accorded more attention—and it would have borne still more, inasmuch as its statistics, as given, are not only belated, but inaccurate. To say that Harvard is "distinctly Unitarian" (p. 547) is to confuse past and present. Under "Missions" we find perhaps the most remarkable of all the deficiencies, as related to the cis-Atlantic reader, in the absence of any allusion to the missionary activities of the American churches. The same title reminds us that no explanation is given of the term "mission," recently imported from Roman Catholic into Anglican usage.

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Benjamin, Fanny Nichols. The Sunny Side of Shadow: Reveries of a Convalescent. Boston: Ticknor & Co.
Besant, W. To Call Her Mine: a Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Birrel, A. Obiter Dicta. Second Series. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Cracker Joe. [No Name Series.] Boston: Roberts Brothers. $1.
Dudley, M. V. Poetry and Philosophy of Goethe, Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co.
Foville, Prof. A. de. La France Économique Année 1887. Paris: Armand Colin et Cie.
Haddock, F. C. The Life of George C. Haddock. Funk & Wagnalls. $2.
Harper, J. C. Law of Inter-State Commerce, especially as applied to the Act to Regulate Commerce, approved February 4, 1887. With Notes of Decisions. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.
Hints on Early Education and Nursery Discipline. Funk & Wagnalls. 60 cents.
Historical Sketch of the South Church (Reformed) of New York City. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.
Jameson, Dr. F. J. Willem Usselinx, Founder of the Dutch and Swedish W. I. Companies. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 479

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS 482

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:
The South and the Commerce Act 484
Protection for Sugar 484
The Question of Church Union 485

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:
The Present Condition of Ireland 485
France and the Armed Peace 487
Weimar and the Goethe-Gesellschaft. — A New Faust 488

CORRESPONDENCE:
The State Debt of Tennessee 489
The Gilman Arms 490
Extreme Longevity 490
"Billion" 490
The Cathedral of Orvieto 490

NOTES 490

REVIEWS:
More Schumann Letters 493
Recent Law Books 495
Haifa 496
George Canning 497
A Philosophical Study 497

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 497

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 9, 1887.

The Week.

SHORTLY after the adjournment of Congress in March, Senator Sherman went to Nashville and made his bid for the Presidency from a Southern platform. He began by ostentatiously folding up the bloody shirt. "Your people," he said, "divided on opposite lines and bore more than your share of the terrible losses and sacrifices of the war. It is over, thank God! but the courage, bravery, and fortitude of both sides are now the pride and heritage of us all." Growing more emphatic as he proceeded, he said: "Think not that I come here to reproach any man for the part he took in that fight, or to revive in the heart of any one the triumph of victory or the pangs of defeat. I did not come to make apologies—nor do I ask any of you. The war was perhaps unavoidable — bound to come some time, and the sooner ended the better." On Wednesday week Senator Sherman was in Springfield, Ill., and there made his bid for the Presidency from a Northern platform. Unless the testimony were overwhelming that the same man made the two speeches, it would be impossible to resist the conviction that there was a case of mistaken identity. Certainly the transformation of Dr. Jekyll into Mr. Hyde was not more remarkable than the change which makes the Nashville apostle of conciliation in March preach the gospel of hate at Springfield in June. "Think not that I come here to reproach any man for the part he took in that fight," said Dr. Jekyll. On the other hand, Mr. Hyde pours forth a long string of reproaches against every man who took part in that fight, and who has since been appointed to office by a Democratic Administration. Dr. Jekyll maintained that the "rebel" of twenty-five years ago should now stand on an equality with the "loyal" man of the same era, and he had no apologies to ask of any man who sought to overthrow the Government. Mr. Hyde condemns all rebels as unfit to hold office under the Federal Government, and declares that "every nation to which these gentlemen [ministers, consuls, etc.] are accredited, may fairly conclude that it was the rebel cause that triumphed and not the Union cause."

Aside from his waving of the bloody shirt, Senator Sherman devoted his speech to the advocacy of paternalism in government. He wants Congress to embark upon the most extravagant schemes of internal improvements; he insists that the Federal Government shall appropriate large sums of money towards the support of schools in the various States. "According to the Confederate idea," he says, "measures like the Blair bill were unconstitutional," and the Confederate idea is the Democratic idea; while, according to the Union idea, they are constitutional, and the Union idea is the Republican idea. Senator Sherman appears to be entirely oblivious of the fact that what he calls "the Confederate idea" is the idea which has been laid down as correct by a Supreme Court all of whose members but one were Republicans. From the decision in the Louisiana slaughter-house cases in 1872 down to the annulling of the Civil-Rights Act in 1883, the whole drift of the highest tribunal has been against what Senator Sherman calls the Union idea that Congress can do anything it pleases. The Supreme Court has declared that the theory upon which such legislation as the Blair bill is based would "make Congress take the place of the State Legislatures and supersede them," and that it is "absurd" to affirm such a theory.

The testimony taken at Boston in the Pacific railroad investigation shows that the Kansas Pacific and Union Pacific consolidation was brought about by the virtual threat of Jay Gould to join the Missouri Pacific and the Kansas Pacific together and extend the line to Ogden, or otherwise invade the Union Pacific's territory. It does not appear that the directors of the Union Pacific, other than Gould himself, got any of the profits of the consolidation. Gould himself resigned as a director just before the consolidation was voted. It was a very cunning device, and has, perhaps, never been surpassed in the annals of railroad witchcraft. The Union Pacific had fought the Kansas Pacific to the point of bankruptcy, and was in a position to have swallowed it on its own terms, when, presto, the Kansas Pacific, in the person of Gould, turned and swallowed the Union Pacific. The Investigating Commission have now got all the facts that were not accessible to them before. The great K. P. mystery is cleared up. If there is any remedy for the wrong done in 1879, we confess that we do not see how it is to be reached, unless possibly by impeaching Gould's resignation as a director of the Union Pacific, and seeking to hold him as a trustee acting in the double capacity of buyer and seller of the Kansas Pacific stock.

Some faint endeavors have been made to discredit Secretary Bayard on account of the release of the two British sealing vessels seized last year in Behring Sea. The theory of Mr. Bayard's critics is, that inasmuch as the Czar of Russia in 1821 proclaimed the waters lying north of the Aleutian Islands as far as the Arctic Ocean a closed sea, and since Russia afterwards conveyed to us her own rights in said waters, therefore no other Power has any fishing rights there. It is in evidence, however, that when the ukase of 1821 was issued, Mr. John Quincy Adams, American Secretary of State, lodged an objection to the Russian claim in St. Petersburg, and that the Russian Ambassador at Washington in due time made a reply that, while Russia might claim the right of sovereignty there, the exercise of it would not be insisted on, or words to that effect. It is acknowledged, also, that spaces of open water as wide as from New York to Bermuda exist between these islands and between the islands and the main land. The question then is, whether the United States can claim or ought to claim exclusive rights in a sea where they denied, or declined to recognize, the exclusive rights of Russia. Is it not pushing the headland doctrine pretty far when it reaches over a space of nine hundred miles of salt water? Undoubtedly cases can be found in the books where exclusive rights of fishing have been claimed in waters not enclosed by land at all, and such rights may have been recognized by maritime Powers for longer or shorter periods. Portugal claimed at one time the exclusive right to circumnavigate the Cape of Good Hope, by virtue of the discovery of that route to India by Vasco da Gama, and her claim was for a time recognized. But such claims gradually disappear and give way to the common rights of mankind in all that part of the ocean beyond a marine league of the shore, and not embraced within clearly marked and definitely limited headlands. There was a time when Spain owned all the lands bordering on the Caribbean Sea and all the islands which fringe it on the east; yet it is not conceivable that the commercial world would, under any circumstances, acknowledge the exclusive right of Spain to sail into the Caribbean Sea, and still less her right to confer the privilege of sailing there on some countries to the exclusion of others. Nor would the strongest naval Power in the world, if thus situated, at this day think of setting up the claim.

The case against Mr. Bayard is sought to be propped up by saying that, unless other fishermen are kept out of Behring Sea, the fur seal will be exterminated. This is a view which the Alaska Commercial Company would be likely to push forward prominently, since they have a monopoly of seal-fishing in those waters so far as our people are concerned. If it is true that the extermination of these useful animals is threatened, that is a reason for coming to a good understanding with other governments for the protection of the fishery. If our rights in Behring Sea are not exclusive, we cannot control the acts of any but our own fishermen. The fur seal does not bear our brand until he comes upon our land. Once it is admitted or established that British or Japanese sailors can go there, the argument that the seal will be exterminated unless we keep the British and Japanese out, becomes impertinent. It is certainly to be hoped that the seal fishery may be controlled and regulated on better principles than buffalo hunting has been in our own exclusive domain. This noble and useful beast has been all but destroyed within the short space of fifteen years, under our very eyes, and within our undisputed jurisdiction. The wild pigeon is nearly exterminated. Whales at one time became scarce, and so perhaps may the fur seal become if private cupidity is left to deal with him unrestrained by scientific regulation backed by sufficient force. The time seems to be propitious for a convention which shall settle the principles of the seal fishery in such manner as may preserve the animals from unscientific destruction, and at the same time preserve peace and concord among the nations

The dark ways of the heathen Chinee have become proverbial, and it will take a good while yet to complete the inventory of them. An addition to it of some importance has just been made through the capture of a letter of instructions to Chinese seeking to evade the operation of our legislation at the port of San Francisco. We refer to the case of Lum Cheong, accused of impersonating another Chinaman under the Restriction Act, who presented to the customs officials a return certificate made out in the name of Ng Ah Qua, and attempted to prove to them that he was the person to whom the certificate was issued. The testimony showed that Cheong purchased the certificate of Quong Yeum & Co. of Hong-Kong for $10, and that a regular business of selling certificates was carried on by the firm. The letter of instructions above mentioned is designed for use in cases like Lum Cheong's. It is a circular intended to be studied by Chinese immigrants during their voyage from Hong-Kong to San Francisco, and gives names of the streets running through "Chinatown," addresses of leading Chinese merchants, a description of the cable-cars and other conspicuous local objects, such as would be familiar to any person who had ever lived in San Francisco, but must be utterly unknown to newly-arriving immigrants, excepting for artful instruction beforehand. The circular, says the San Francisco *News-Letter*, "is brief, concise, and would not make more than one evening's task for an average schoolboy," but it is so ingeniously compiled as to cover all the questions which would naturally be asked concerning local knowledge, and the fresh immigrant, thus expertly "primed," has been able, by his answers, to show quite beyond doubt that he was a former resident who had been abroad and was rightfully returning to his real home. The *News-Letter* says that the only explanation of the prescience by which the Six Companies are able to instruct their people in advance as to the questions the correct answers to which would satisfy the courts and procure their release under writs of habeas corpus, "is one that may well make the goddess of Justice bow her head in very shame"; but we should doubt that this presumption is required in the case of the quick-witted Chinese. They might be trusted rightly to invent the whole scheme.

The testimony of the silver manufacturers on Friday, showing the causes which had led them to the decision to employ no Knights of Labor in future, was very interesting. The chief cause was the threat, repeatedly made by a Walking Delegate or Committeeman, that unless certain demands from their workmen were granted, the whole force would strike. Tiffany & Co. had suffered especially from this kind of interference. In one instance the Committeeman had told them that unless certain demands were granted, a strike would be ordered within half an hour. They refused to listen to him, and within half an hour a signal was given, the engine was stopped, and the men went out. On another occasion, another Committeeman, Dunn, had called upon them, said his name was George, and informed them that the Knights had found out the weakness of the silvermiths; twenty men were able to demoralize the whole business of any one company, and would do it unless their demands were granted. This man Dunn subsequently took the stand and declared his trade to be that of an engineer, but he did not work at it now. He had never been a silversmith. His sole occupation at present was member of the Board of Arbitration of District Assembly 49.

It seems incredible that so intelligent a body of men as silversmiths, from the nature of their work, must be, could be led into such folly as is here disclosed. According to the testimony of all the manufacturers, their men were industrious, well-paid, and apparently contented until the Knights got hold of them. Yet they gave themselves over to the control of men like Dunn, who did not belong to their trade and knew nothing of its conditions. Dunn, according to his own testimony, looked upon his position as a member of the Arbitration Board mainly as an opportunity to levy blackmail on the manufacturers. He had not studied to see what the grievances of the workmen were, but just what number of men would be sufficient to demoralize the business of a manufacturer. Having found out this, he went to the manufacturer and threatened him with a strike of that number if he did not run his business as the Knights ordered. He also confessed that he lied about being a Knight, and had advised others to do so if necessary in order to get work. He is himself apparently living on the profits of his position as an arbitrator, and, like Quinn, the hackman, who was managing the 'longshoremen's strike, is just the kind of a man with whom a self-respecting, industrious workingman would have no sympathy. Yet the silversmiths allow him to throw them out of employment without cause or justification. Dunn remarked complacently on Friday that the laws were defective, and he would like to see a great many changes in them. The kind of labor law most needed now is one protecting honest laboring men from such worthless creatures as the Dunns and Quinns.

The attempt, under the personal authority of General Master Workman Powderly himself, to use the boycott, not to crush a hated capitalistic employer, but to enable one District Assembly of Knights to wreak its vengeance upon another, is the natural outcome of this kind of power. The boycott, as used by the Knights, is nothing more nor less than a weapon for extorting blackmail. Heretofore it has been used by the blackguards and loafers who control Assembly 49, mainly against employers, but now they have attempted to put it in force against a rival assembly, No. 126. This assembly contains nearly all the carpet-weavers in the vicinity of New York. They are industrious men, who earn good wages, and whose sole offence as Knights is, that they refuse to obey the orders which are issued by Assembly 49 to strike in support of various kinds of boycotts. A while ago they struck in support of the coal-handlers' strike, and lost by that operation $27,000 in wages. After that experience, they decided that they did not wish a shoemaker, or a cigar-maker, or an engineer to tell them to strike because some carpenters or coal-heavers in New Jersey or Brooklyn were on strike, and they refused to join No. 49 in any more boycotts. So No. 49 appealed to Powderly, and Powderly has issued an official order boycotting the carpets of Higgins & Co., in whose factory nearly all the carpet-weavers of 126 are employed. As Powderly is on record as orally opposed to boycotting, he does not use the word boycott in his order, but directs the Knights to tell Higgins & Co. that their carpets are not such as the Knights "can recommend," and requests them to send "special committees" to call upon firms handling these carpets, "notify them of the estimation in which these goods are held, and, if deemed expedient, inform them that you will prefer to bestow your patronage with firms that do not handle such goods." This illegal and foolish document will probably put an end to Powderly's right to be considered a sort of social-science reformer of Labor, for it sets him forth in a very clear light as a tricky demagogue.

The announcement is made that the Prison Labor Reform Commission of this State, having failed to secure the approval of "Labor" for the State-account system, are now in favor of putting the convicts at work on jute bags, since most of these articles come from foreign countries, and they are produced here by "only the lowest-paid free labor in the State." There is one objection which will probably confront the Commissioners before the jute-bag plan has gone into force. It may be all very well to throw the entire competition of prison-labor upon the lowest-paid free labor in the State, *i. e.*, upon those least able to stand up against it, but it will soon be discovered that jute bags compete with cooperage to an enormous and increasing extent. It was only a year ago that the manufacturers of barrel staves petitioned Congress to put a differential duty on sugar imported in jute bags, in order to compel the West Indian planters to use hogsheads. It is a solemn fact, too, that a large part of the flour put up at Minneapolis for export to foreign countries is sent in jute bags. Now, is it not plain that if jute bags are made as cheaply as prison labor can produce them, a still greater number of barrels and hogsheads will be thrown out of use? The coopers are far from being the lowest-paid laborers in the State. Therefore they are not to be put upon with impunity. It might be arranged that the convicts should make bags by hand exclusively, so as not to compete with the machine-made goods produced outside, but, after all, the prison bags must be sold in competition with all other bags, even if the State loses money on them. Obviously the only true solution of the prison-labor problem from the labor point of view is to provide ample playgrounds for the convicts, and instructors in athletic games and healthful amusements. Absolute idleness among the prisoners is not thought of by anybody, since it leads to obesity and insanity. The only thing objected to is their earning their own living. The sooner we acknowledge this by an act of the Legislature, and by

corresponding appropriations of money for outdoor exercise for the convicts, the sooner shall we be delivered from a most pestilent form of folly. There are more adult males landed at Castle Garden in a single week to compete with "Labor" than all the inmates of prisons and reformatories in New York in a whole year.

The hostility of the professional politicians in the Democratic party to civil-service reform was shown a few weeks ago, when nearly all the New York Democratic Assemblymen voted to repeal the Civil-Service Law, and the hostility of the same class in the Republican party is shown by the action of the Massachusetts House last week. For two years a scheme has been pushed to exempt all Union soldiers from the necessity of passing competitive examinations, and it passed the Legislature last year, only to be vetoed by the Governor. The measure is ostensibly urged as "the payment of a debt of gratitude to the veterans," but the more honest of its advocates have openly admitted that they were pushing it as a means of breaking down the whole reform system in the State. The Boston *Journal* properly characterized it last year as "an assault upon the State civil-service system, which is every bit as deadly as that which the Democrats in Congress are making upon the national system." Yet this raid of the spoilsmen was endorsed by the House on Thursday by the overwhelming majority of 158 yeas to 37 nays, and the bill appears likely to become a law.

A civil-service-reform bill has been introduced in the Rhode Island Legislature by the Lieutenant-Governor, Col. Honey, and we trust it will be made a law. It is modelled upon the Massachusetts law, but goes a step further than that in dealing with the tenure of office, and, if enacted, will not take effect till the terms of all the present State, legislative, and other officials have expired. After that, the tenure of office of all officials, except a few who are not included in the requirements of the law, is made to continue till "they shall die, resign, or be removed for just cause by the appointing or electing power, which cause shall always be fully expressed in the order or resolution of removal."

What on earth did Mr. Stickney, Jacob Sharp's counsel, mean by saying on Monday in court during the "jury-fixing" proceedings: "We (Sharp's counsel) have made many earnest efforts to induce the friends of Mr. Sharp to remain neutral in this matter, and I supposed we had succeeded"? Is it possible that "the friends of Mr. Sharp" let it be known to his lawyers that they meant to take sides in "this matter," and endeavor to secure Sharp's escape by illicit means? Is it possible that, having heard of these attempts, the counsel treated them simply as expressions of injudicious friendly zeal, and argued against them as such, instead of denouncing them as crimes, and threatening to hand the perpetrators over to the police? Moreover, is "neutrality" not a new and startling term for a member of the bar to apply to abstinence from that form of criminal interference with the course of justice known as "embracery"?

The phenomena attending the O'Brien demonstration in Union Square on Saturday evening seemed at first very curious and, indeed, almost unaccountable. There was a general disposition to regard it as one of those striking mischances that have so often made the Irish cause ridiculous in the eyes of its well wishers. But the completed narrative takes it out of the class of providential occurrences, and enables us to interpret it as a very common piece of political chicane. Mr. O'Brien crossed the ocean in order to worry Lord Lansdowne. He had succeeded in making a great deal of disturbance in Canada, had raised mobs and been pelted by them. Making a disturbance for its own sake is a very large part of the Home-Rule plan of campaign. It is perfectly logical, too, since long experience has proved that British public opinion can only be moved to serious thought upon Ireland by external impressions. John Bull considers Irish questions a tremendous bore, but he likes his ease so much that he will take this nuisance into Parliament, and debate it, and divide on it, and do something about it if his life is made sufficiently miserable on account of it. Mr. O'Brien's mission to Canada was of a piece with the obstruction tactics of Parnell. It was planned to break John Bull's rest, to prevent him from having any peace of his life, to compel him to keep thinking about the Irish question, and debating it in Parliament, and dividing on it, and doing something about it. Hence, although Mr. O'Brien's mission had the appearance of an impertinent errand, it was a logical part of an extensive plan to keep the British Empire in hot water until Ireland gets home rule.

Mr. O'Brien was eminently successful in Canada. He went from one stage to another in the prime object of making a disturbance, until he was shot at. This last occurrence heightened his otherwise captivating qualities (for he is certainly a very able man), and fitted him to "draw well" in New York. Any party that could "capture" him would make a great deal of political capital. It did not occur either to Tammany Hall, or the County Democracy, or the Republican Machine to get up a demonstration for Mr. O'Brien, and here we think they were all caught napping. The George-McGlynn or McGlynn-George party were much more wide awake, and they saw their opportunity. An invitation was offered to Mr. O'Brien, and he accepted it, supposing that its object was to promote the cause with which he is identified, and no other. Common prudence suggested to him to inquire what resolutions it was proposed to adopt; that is, what character was to be given to the meeting. When he found that it was to be a meeting to endorse the Henry George theory of land confiscation, he declined to lend himself to any such purpose, for the reason that it was no part of the Irish Home-Rule policy, but directly opposed to the same, and because his participation in such a meeting would destroy his influence at home, as it had destroyed or largely neutralized that of another Irish leader who had incautiously committed himself to it. In short, Mr. O'Brien considered the Henry George land doctrine a humbug or worse; he knew that the Irish National League detested it, and that any countenance given to it by him would react severely against the cause he had at heart, both in Ireland and in England. So the O'Brien demonstration came off without O'Brien. It was great in numbers, but empty in everything else. There were some small side shows that helped to rob the demonstration of dignity. An attempt was made to drag in Dr. McGlynn's controversy with the Pope, and also to connect the affair with the Phœnix Park murders. The main thing, however, was the plan to annex O'Brien and the Irish National League to the party that nominated Henry George for Mayor last fall. The other incidents resulted from having too many cooks for the occasion.

We find in the London *Spectator* for May 28 an article on "The Irish and British Vote in the United States," in which occurs the following deeply interesting passage:

> "It seems, however, as if the extraordinary power and importance to which the Irish vote has risen in the States would bring its own cure. As long as the Irish vote passively demoralized American politics, it was difficult to form a distinct opposition to its influence. Men had other reasons for choosing their party connections, and could not well make a political creed of opposition to anything so indeterminate in its demands as the Irish party. Now, however, there are signs that such an opposition is forming. The Irish vote has begun to be exercised with a direct object—hatred of England, and the desire to injure her by embroiling her with the United States. This is something definite, and can be fought with. Fortunately, there is plenty of material out of which to form the opposition. Though it may sound at first extraordinary to our readers, it is none the less true that the number of Englishmen, Scotchmen, and Welshmen at this moment in the States is largely in excess of that of the Irish. A correspondent of the Chicago *Times*, quoted in the *St. James's Gazette* of Tuesday last, calculates the number of born British and Canadians in the States at the present moment at 2,090,000, the born Irish at 1,850,000. This gives a majority of 240,000 persons to the British and Canadians."

There is something very perplexing about those figures. According to the census of 1880, the Irish-born at that moment in the United States numbered 1,854,571, while all the born British and Canadians, including not merely those born in Canada but in the whole of British America, numbered only 1,632,871. How the statistician whom the *Spectator* quotes with such oracular complacency has been able to raise this total to 2,090,000 we are unable to comprehend. He may have done it by adding all the newly arrived British and Canadian immigrants since 1880; but if he got it in that way, he ought also to have added to the Irish total its quota of arrivals since 1880. Between 1880 and the close of 1886 there were, in round numbers, over 470,000 Irish immigrants landed here, bringing the total Irish-born population up to 2,325,000. Instead, therefore, of there being a "majority of 240,000 for the British and Canadians," they are, at the lowest estimate, in a minority of about 235,000. We regret to say that the "signs" which the *Spectator* has discovered of the "forming" of this British opposition to the Irish vote are not visible in this country, however apparent they may be in London. In fact, the discovery appears to be one of those hallucinations, now so common, hatched by the Irish question in the brains of British politicians.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, June 1, to TUESDAY, June 7, 1887, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

SENATOR SHERMAN, by the invitation of the Republican members of the Legislature of Illinois, made a speech at Springfield June 1 on national politics. He called the doctrines and the tendency of the Democratic party "Confederate," expressed approval of the schemes to give national aid to education, and to connect at the Government's expense the waters of the Mississippi and of the lakes.

An act to prohibit book-making on races and pool-selling, except within the enclosure of incorporated fair or race-track associations, has become a law in Illinois. It provides a penalty of imprisonment for a period of not less than six months nor more than one year, or a fine not exceeding $2,000, for selling pools or keeping records of bets or wagers upon results of any trial or contest of the speed, power, or endurance of any man or beast, or upon the result of any political appointment, election, or nomination.

Gov. Sawyer of New Hampshire took the oath of office June 2. In his inaugural address he called the recent withdrawal of fifty fire-insurance companies from business in the State "an attempt at coercion," and "in effect a strike and a boycott." He recommended legislation providing for a ten-hour law and weekly payments, and for arbitration of labor troubles, and expressed himself favorable to prohibition and free text-books for the public schools.

A bill providing for a constitutional amendment to forbid the manufacture and sale of alcoholic liquors as a beverage was passed by the Massachusetts Senate June 1 to be engrossed, by a vote of 15 to 10. It has not yet been passed by the House.

A Prohibition Convention to make nominations for the New York State election in the fall has been called at Syracuse August 25 and 26.

One of the counsel of the New York Hotel-Keepers' Association on Sunday, June 5, in company with a police captain, drank liquor at several of the principal hotels, to prepare test cases so that a judgment may be got from a court as to the constitutionality of the Excise Law, by the enforcement of which under Mayor Hewitt's administration Sunday has become so "dry" a day in New York.

Gov. Hill of this State has signed the bill prohibiting the employment of street-car and elevated-railroad employees in New York and Brooklyn for more than ten hours in every consecutive twelve.

Preparations were made by the Labor party in this city for a great demonstration on Saturday evening, June 4, in honor of William O'Brien, the Irish editor who was here, returned from his trip to Canada. But he refused to attend the meeting because John McMackin, who had recently presided at a lecture delivered by P. J. Tynan, the alleged "Number One" of the conspiracy to kill Cavendish and Burke in Phœnix Park, presided over it. He objected also to one of the proposed resolutions, which sought to identify the Irish land movement with the Henry George agitation for the abolition of private ownership in land. The Central Labor Union the next day passed resolutions condemning his action. At a large meeting of the "Anti-Poverty Society" in the Academy of Music, McMackin made a speech attacking O'Brien, and so did Dr. McGlynn, who declared that "Mr. O'Brien is a landlord at heart," and that "between him and Lord Lansdowne there is a difference of only 20 or 25 per cent." On the other hand, O'Brien has received approving despatches from many Irish organizations, and cheers for him were given at an Irish meeting in this city which was largely made up of members of the Tammany organization. The political effect of this alienation of some of the Irish from the Labor party may make the incident of far-reaching importance.

Six Circuit judges were elected in Chicago June 6. Grinnell and Clifford, candidates of a citizens' organization, were opposed by Kraus and English, who were the candidates of the United Labor party, which recently made a red flag campaign against Roche for Mayor. The Labor candidates received less than half as many votes as the others.

The Board of Health at Key West, Fla., has declared the yellow fever epidemic there. At noon June 7, eighteen cases and six deaths had been officially reported. The National Marine Hospital Service has $80,000 in its yellow-fever fund, but its expenditure is so hedged about by restrictions that the fund cannot be used until the Treasury Department is satisfied that the State authorities cannot control the disease. The Government will use part of it to send trained nurses to Key West.

In the trial of a Chinaman in San Francisco on June 3 for impersonating another Chinaman, and thereby evading the Restriction Act, testimony was given which showed that a regular business of selling return certificates for $10 each, to gain admission into the United States, is done by a firm in Hong Kong.

The State Department has officially been informed that Russia has raised the import duty on iron and steel, and on articles manufactured in whole or in part from those metals, from 25 to 30 per cent.

The United Presbyterian Assembly, in session in Philadelphia, after a long discussion on June 1, voted, 107 to 54, in favor of the use of organs in the churches.

Bishop Potter has revived the project, with promise of success, to erect a great Protestant cathedral in this city, which shall give to "all men, of whatever condition or fellowship, the ministrations of religion in a language understood by the common people, bidding to its pulpits the ablest and most honored teachers, free for meditation, devotion, or rest at all hours, without fee or restriction," and thus be "a witness to the brotherhood of humanity in the bond of the Divine Nazarene, and of the need of the human heart for some worthy place and voice for the expression of its deepest needs." A subscription has been opened to a fund to erect it, and several large sums have already been subscribed.

A monument to actors was dedicated in the Evergreen Cemetery June 6, in the presence of many eminent members of the theatrical profession. The choruses of different opera companies sang a hymn, the words of which were composed by George Edgar Montgomery; Edwin Booth spoke briefly, and William Winter read a poem written for the occasion.

An earthquake was felt over the greater part of northern California and western Nevada on June 3, which shook the plaster from walls and made fissures in the earth. A slighter shock was felt about the same time in South Carolina. On June 6 a shock was felt near Quebec.

By the explosion of three kegs of powder at the Cambria Iron Company's quarries at Birmingham, Pa., a fall of the rock was caused whereby eight men were killed and another was fatally hurt, on June 4.

A Texas and Pacific east-bound train was stopped by four masked men at Benbrook, ten miles west of Fort Worth, on June 4, and the express and mail cars were robbed.

A steam tricycle has been exhibited at an athletic club in Philadelphia. It carries enough water and oil to run three hours, it has been run fifteen miles an hour, and it weighs 175 pounds, or seventy-five pounds more than a similar tricycle without a steam-engine.

The transatlantic steamship, the *Umbria*, which arrived here June 4, came from Queenstown to Sandy Hook in six days, four hours, and twelve minutes. The time of the *Etruria*, which had made the best time ever made before this trip of the *Umbria*, on the westward passage, was six days, five hours, and thirty-six minutes, and her best eastward passage was six days, five hours, and eighteen minutes—more than an hour longer than the *Umbria's* voyage required.

News has been received at Manson, Ia., that the Rev. Dr. Reid, who left that place last winter to become a missionary in Central Africa, has been eaten by cannibals.

William A. Wheeler, ex-Vice-President of the United States, died at his home at Malone, N. Y., on June 4, after a period of feebleness, in his sixty-eighth year. Mr. Hamlin is now the only survivor of those who have held the Vice-Presidential office. Chief-Justice Mercur of the Supreme Court of Pennsylvania died at Wallingford, June 6, from congestion of the lungs. Henry Meigs, once President of the Stock Exchange and for many years a well-known broker in this city, died June 7, in his seventy-ninth year.

FOREIGN.

An important movement in British politics was a conference at Birmingham on June 1 of the Radical Union, where the difference between the Unionists and the Gladstonians was discussed. Lord Hartington wrote that the action of the Gladstone Liberals had caused an indefinite postponement of the settlement of the Irish question. The alliance of the Gladstone Government with the Parnellites had daily weakened Parliamentary authority. Mr. Chamberlain regretted that Mr. Trevelyan had doffed his armor when the fight was the hottest. The Liberal-Unionists had been taunted with their alliance with the Tories. There was satisfaction, however, in knowing that their allies were English gentlemen, and not subsidized agents of a foreign conspiracy. The time seemed to be approaching when the formation of a new party would be found necessary. The conference was attended by 2,000 delegates, representing all parts of Great Britain. The tone of all the speeches was bitterly anti-Gladstonian. It was the first representative Unionist meeting where irreconcilable hostility to the Gladstonians was the rallying cry. It was resolved to appoint a new electoral committee for London, and a large amount of money was promised for expenses. At an evening mass meeting of Unionists in the Birmingham Town Hall, a letter was read from Mr. John Bright, which was a long and fierce denunciation of the Gladstonian policy. Mr. Gladstone has made an offer to the Unionists which amounts to this: Pass the Home-Rule Bill, and satisfy the Irish people; then make all the provisions desirable for maintaining the continuity of the Imperial Parliament. But they have rejected it, and the two factions of the Liberal party are further apart than ever.

Mr. Gladstone meanwhile has been making home-rule speeches in Wales, where he has aroused the greatest popular enthusiasm.

Lord Randolph Churchill made a speech at Wolverhampton June 3, wherein he sharply criticised the extravagant management and the inefficiency of the war and naval equipments of Great Britain. He advised the Unionists to make a solid stand, and show Gladstone that they were as determined as he is in the matter of the Irish question. He was gratified to believe in the power of the Government to smash obstruction at any moment they pleased, and when Parliament reassembled he thought that strong measures ought to be adopted to prevent the Crimes Bill from being amended till it became useless.

Mr. Parnell, about whose health much concern has been felt, was in the House of Commons June 7, looking much improved. He has gained flesh during the recess.

In the House of Commons, in committee on June 7, when a Parnellite member moved an amendment to the Crimes Bill, Mr. Parnell interposed, saying that, owing to the advanced stage of the session and the large number of important matters that had not yet been debated, he would suggest that his friends move only such amendments as they regarded as indispensable. Several amendments were thereafter withdrawn, several others were rejected, some of them by the use of the closure rule, and then Mr. Smith's motion that the third clause of the bill be adopted was carried—211 to 83.

The evictions of tenants at Bodyke, Ireland, were begun again June 2. The Sheriff was protected while doing his work by 600 policemen and troops. At one house, in which the inmates were barricaded, the officers made a hole through the wall with crowbars, and then removed the furniture. The tenants offered all the opposition in their power. In some of their houses cayenne pepper was burned, the fumes of which nearly choked the bailiffs. At others boiling water was thrown from the windows upon the evicting force. At two houses fights occurred between the police and the people, and a number of arrests were made. No other recent evictions have caused so much excitement. Michael Davitt addressed a meeting in the Bodyke district, and urged the people to offer the utmost resistance and to retake possession of their houses. He has begun an agitation to rebuild every house demolished, and he has suggested that a fund be opened to carry on the plan of campaign upon a more extended basis.

Mr. Davitt's advice to the tenants at Bodyke to resist eviction has not met the approval of the National League. At the regular fortnightly meeting, at Dublin June 7, the opinion was freely expressed that this advice was not wise.

When Queen Kapiolani of the Hawaiian Islands arrived at Liverpool, June 2, the Mayor and a guard of honor met the royal party at the wharf.

Windows on the route that the Queen will take from Buckingham Palace to Westminster Abbey on June 21 are letting for £30, and single first-floor rooms for £50.

The President of the Cambridge (England) University Boat Club has made a public appeal to the students to subscribe to a fund to pay the expenses of sending a crew to America to row against the Harvard University crew

Prof. Thomas Spencer Baynes, the well-known English teacher of Logic and one of the editors of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' died June 1.

Dr. Mackensie, the English surgeon, has written that a microscopic examination made by Dr. Virchow shows that the German Crown Prince's disease is not cancer, but a non-malignant growth. Dr. Mackensie left London June 6 for Berlin and has made another examination. The German Emperor has been so ill as to postpone contemplated visits to watering-places.

The Sultan of Turkey has ceded the island of Cyprus to England.

Count de Montebello and M. Nelidoff, the French and Russian Ambassadors at Constantinople, have lodged objections of their Governments to the ratification by Turkey of the Anglo-Turkish Convention relative to Egypt. M. Nelidoff indirectly charged England with bribing the Grand Vizier with £600,000 and other palace officials with large amounts, to secure their approval of the convention. Russian suspicion of England has shown itself also in the comment of the St. Petersburg *Novoe Vremya* concerning Bokhara. It warns England that intrigues there, instead of rendering Russia more pliable in accepting the proposed settlement of the Egyptian question, will have a contrary effect.

Native warriors recently invaded British settlements in Sierra Leone, pillaging and burning villages and torturing and killing the native inhabitants and taking 300 prisoners. They tried to capture factories which were stored with valuable merchandise, but were beaten back after a severe loss of life.

The war continues between the troops of the Amir of Afghanistan and the Ghilzais, who are in revolt, but the two armies have for some time retained the same positions, trying to starve each other out.

A chest has been washed ashore near Calcutta that belonged to the captain of the steamer which, with 730 passengers, was recently reported to have been lost in the Indian Ocean. It is thought that they all perished. Most of them were native ladies, who were going to Juggernaut, in Orissa, to celebrate the Juggernaut festival. All the best Hindu families in Calcutta are in mourning for relatives or friends among them. A collision occurred June 6, in the English Channel, between the British bark *Hamburg* and the British steamer *Tern*. The steamer was sunk, and her captain and four seamen were drowned.

A ukase has been issued forbidding foreigners to acquire estates on the western frontier of Russia, which is aimed chiefly against the Germans. There are many German factories, workshops, warehouses, and farms there, and most of those who live by them are members of the German Army Reserve.

During a circus performance at Neschen, Germany, June 5, a storm arose and a part of the roof of the circus structure was blown off. The hanging lamps were broken and caused a panic, and the building collapsed. A number of persons were burned, some were trampled to death, and as many as 300 others were more or less hurt.

A fire at Hamburg on the morning of June 1 burned many quays and warehouses and two British vessels, the *City of Dortmund* and the *Gladiator*. The loss was several million marks.

The breaking of the dykes of the Theiss River in Hungary has submerged fifty miles of the Alford Plain, near Szegedin, and destroyed much property. In Banat there are 300,000 acres inundated. Many thousands of families are in destitution.

Phylloxera have appeared at Fünfkirchen, in the midst of the Baranda vineyards, the finest in Hungary.

Many houses have been destroyed by a landslip on Spitzen Mountain, near Spiringen, Switzerland, covering an area of two square kilometres. Ten persons were killed and a number were seriously wounded, and many herds of cattle were destroyed.

A plague of locusts has visited the central provinces of Spain. The insects are so thick that gangs of men have been sent to clear the railway lines. The crops are so greatly damaged that the Cortes has been asked to vote a credit for the relief of the sufferers.

The clearing away of the débris from the site of the Opéra Comique was finished June 1, and the number of bodies found was officially reported to be seventy. Some of the Parisian newspapers have declared that there were many more than seventy victims, and that the police have purposely made the number reported far too small.

A motion in the French Chamber of Deputies June 2 that the debate on the Army Bill be postponed until next session, was opposed by Premier Rouvier, who said that the Government intended to maintain the measure as a necessity in the interest and for the honor of the country; and the motion was rejected by 446 to 60.

The Belgian Senate, June 1, by a vote of 38 to 23, approved the bill imposing import duties on cattle and meat.

The King and Queen of Italy attended the ceremony of unveiling a monument at Rome on June 5 to the Italian soldiers who fell in the recent battle at Dogali with the Abyssinians.

The Greek Chamber of Deputies adjourned on June 6, after passing the budget and the bill empowering the Government to contract a loan of $30,000,000.

It was reported from Madrid June 6 that treasure to the value of £95,000,000 had been discovered in the palace of a deceased vizier at Rabat, Morocco, and that the Sultan had confiscated it and was having it conveyed to the imperial coffers.

It has been reported that there were at Santiago de Cuba, on May 27, 280 cases of smallpox known to the authorities, and that perhaps there were 100 more. The deaths from May 1 to 27 numbered 40, not one of the victims having been vaccinated. The disease has appeared at Guantanamo, and it is feared that it will spread to all Cuban ports. The people are ignorant blacks, and are inclined to prayers rather than to vaccination.

The explorers sent out from Hermosillo, Mex., report that there is an active volcano near Bavispe, Sonora, in the Sierra Madre Mountains. The party could not approach nearer than four miles. The crater was pouring forth an immense volume of smoke, fire, and lava, and boiling water was issuing from the side of the mountain, which had destroyed all vegetation in the valleys in the vicinity, and large boulders were hurled down from the crater. The noise was terrific, like a number of engines at work accompanied by sounds of thunder, and the air was dense with smoke and cinders. There are chasms in the earth, and all the roads and trails are wiped out. Not a bird or living thing could be seen within ten miles of the volcano. The town of Bavispe is a complete ruin. The people have all moved out on the high plains, and are living in tents in mortal fear. There has been a constant tremor and a continual series of shocks since the first earthquake.

Two women and three children were killed and a number of people were hurt in a rush of the panic-stricken congregation from the Cathedral at Chihuahua, Mex., June 1, caused by the blazing of inflammable material about the altar, which caught on fire from a candle.

The report was published in the City of Mexico, June 2, on "authentic private intelligence," that a vast organization exists within the Clerical party for the overthrow of the republic and for setting up a throne and placing Don Carlos on it. A number of wealthy Spaniards, infatuated with the wild hope of restoring the days of Spanish ascendency, are said to be implicated, but the prime movers are the priests. Most of the Mexican newspapers and politicians ridiculed the paper which published the report.

In the Canadian Parliament on June 6 the Minister of Justice strongly opposed the motion for a general jail delivery in the hour of the Queen's jubilee. He thought that there could be no more foolish way of celebrating the jubilee than by freeing those whose sole aim was to inflict injury on the community. Action on the motion was indefinitely postponed.

There has been little English comment on the increase of Canadian customs duties; but the London *Standard*, June 6, called it "a selfish policy," and said that it can only tend to sunder the colonies from the mother country.

A farmers' institute at Drayton, Ont., June 3 adopted a resolution favoring the removal of all restrictions on trade between Canada and the United States.

The trial of the cases of the seized American fishing schooners *D. J. Adams* and *Ella M. Doughty* was begun in the Admiralty Court at Halifax June 2.

The request of the captain of an American fishing schooner to be allowed to procure ice at Halifax, N. S., has been refused by the customs authorities.

THE SOUTH AND THE COMMERCE ACT.

THE testimony taken by the Inter-State Commerce Commission at Atlanta, in reference to the suspension of the fourth section of the Commerce Act in the Southern States, shows pretty clearly why the temporary suspension was granted so soon after the act took effect, and why the suspension applied to so large an extent of territory. The secret is, that the railway traffic of the entire South, except Kentucky, Tennessee, and Arkansas, is governed and controlled by the coastwise steamship lines. This fact, although well known to persons immediately interested as merchants or carriers, was certainly not appreciated by the public generally. It could, of course, be perceived by anybody that if the railroads were to carry any goods from New York to Mobile, the rate must be no higher than the steamship rate between the same points. But it was not generally perceived that the same rule would govern as to all interior points in the South which Mobile could supply. At Montgomery and Selma, for instance, the railroad rate from New York was made by adding the New York-Mobile rate to the Mobile-Montgomery rate—that is, the rate which the railroad could charge and did invariably charge to Montgomery was the same that would be charged to a shipper who sent his goods by water to Mobile and thence by rail or river to Montgomery. The same principle was followed in shipments to smaller points for which Montgomery was the natural source of supply. The through-rail rate to one of these third-class towns was the water rate to Mobile, plus the land rate to Montgomery, plus the local rate to the small town. In fact, the whole trade of the coast States from the Potomac to the Rio Grande was moving upon this basis, and indeed, has never, since the war, moved upon any other basis. It was built up according to this plan. It was a perfectly natural plan. It was the same that would have existed if there had been no railroads at all. Mobile would in that case have had the lowest rate. Montgomery would have had a higher rate, but not so high as the small town that received its supplies from her, and so on. It is not to be wondered at, therefore, that the Commission took time to consider whether the whole structure of Southern trade and industry should be shaken to its foundations by a sudden reversal of existing business arrangements.

It is useless to anticipate the finding of the Commission upon the investigation which they have undertaken in order to determine whether the suspension of the fourth section shall be continued or not. There are some general considerations, however, which no one can fail to take account of. The first is, that no act of Congress or of the Commission can prevent Southern trade from being dominated by the water lines. The railroads may be compelled to work for less money—it is a question whether they can do so or not. But the highest endeavors of the political branch of the Government cannot prevent Mobile from getting her goods carried at lower rates than Montgomery, except in the improbable event that transportation by land becomes cheaper than by water. What is true of the seaport towns is true of the country adjacent to them. These will always get their goods carried on better terms than the towns more remote from the coast. Compelling the railroads to abandon Mobile to the steamships entirely will not cheapen the rate to Montgomery. That will still be the resultant of the New York-Mobile and the Mobile-Montgomery rate, and the small-town rate will be this plus the local tariff from Montgomery.

Another consideration, and this is of the greatest importance, is, that the business of the South has accommodated itself to the existing arrangement. This is not saying that there may not be special and particular abuses under the general system. Probably there are many such; it would be wonderful if there were not. Not only has business accommodated itself to the system, but the system has to the greatest possible extent made business what it is. The South at the end of the war was *tabula rasa* in a business point of view. Its resuscitation was very much like settling and building up a new country. All the railroads were in a state of wreck, and all the industries were in like condition. The dominance of the water lines in the matter of transportation was the one fact about which commerce grew and by which the movements and concerns of civilized life were resumed. The then existing railroads adjusted themselves to this fact, and, indeed, could not have done otherwise if they had wished. The newer ones have been built with reference to it. Now, it is exceedingly dangerous to disturb the economic arrangements of a whole country by an act of arbitrary power. Whether these arrangements are right or wrong in themselves, they are part of everybody's daily life. The chances of doing harm by disturbing them are a hundred-fold greater than the chance that the arrangements themselves will work injustice.

Probably the course of future legislation will run something in this way: An effort will be made to enforce the long-and-short haul clause by taking from the Commission the power to suspend it at all; the lesser interests of the South and of the Pacific Coast being preferred for the time being to the greater. After much groaning on the procrustean bed, there will be a relaxation of the long-and-short-haul clause to meet cases of great and glaring hardship, and gradually the Commerce Act will become, what it should have been in the beginning, a correction of injustice, and not an attempt to cure one wrong by committing another and perhaps a greater one.

PROTECTION FOR SUGAR.

SENATOR SHERMAN, in his Springfield speech, reaffirmed his conviction that a reduction of the duty on sugar was necessary to reduce the revenue. Being a firm believer in the doctrine of protection, he proposed to pay a direct bounty to the home producers of sugar to compensate them for the loss of the indirect bounty of the tariff; or, rather, he said that some persons propose to do so. As he was the first one to suggest that policy, it may be inferred that he is included in the number who now propose to introduce the bounty system into American fiscal policy. We have had no direct bounties since the fishing bounties were repealed nearly a quarter of a century ago. Their renewal now would give a spice to politics which has long been lacking. We cannot say that we should lament the introduction of a bill to pay bounties to the sugar-growers. It would cast a new light on the system of State socialism which passes current under the phrase "protection to American industry." The applicability of the system to other industries besides sugar-growing would be immediately apparent. Here, for example, are the fishermen who have got us into a turmoil with Canada, all about a duty on salt fish. It would be so easy to repeal the duty and renew the Washington Treaty by the simple payment of a bounty on all cod and mackerel taken in American bottoms. The complicated strife between the wool-growers and the woollen-manufacturers could be settled in the same way; the duty on wool being repealed, and the shepherds being put on the pension list according to the size of their flocks and the magnitude of the clip produced by each.

There are a great many industries to which the bounty system is peculiarly applicable, but to which protection has failed as yet to apply its invigorating impulse. There is, for example, the tin-plate infant, struggling for life with the meagre protection of 1 cent per pound. Time and again has it presented itself to Congress with a petition for more tariff. It has been met and overcome by the unreasonable protest of the tinsmiths and tin-canners all over the country, the packers of fresh beef, fish, vegetables, and fruits, the condensed-milk men, and scores of narrow-minded people who have contended that their industry was just as "American" as tin-plate making, and more too, because there is more of it. Now a bounty would suit the tin-plate infant exactly. The tin-canners could not object to it because it would not perceptibly increase the price of tin plates. All the benefits of a high tariff would enure to the infant, and he would be spared the vexation and cost of a yearly struggle in Congress with the selfish people who are now repressing his growth. These struggles are always deleterious to the young. Older industries are apt to look upon them as the Knights of Labor look upon apprentices, admitting them only one at a time, and very grudgingly at that. We all remember what trouble the copper-mining infant on Lake Superior had in getting recognized as an infant. Indeed, he never did get recognized until he became a giant. If the bounty system had been in force instead of the tariff system, so that no copper and brass founders and smelters had been particularly incommoded by listening to the cries of the Lake Superior infant, the Calumet and Hecla mine might have been put on the pension list the very day that it was opened.

We have not observed, however, among the other disciples of protection any hearty endorsement of Senator Sherman's proposed sugar bounty. Here is Judge Kelley, for example, quoted in the *Manufacturers' Record* as greatly impressed with the advantages of Florida as a sugar-producing State. The Judge is convinced, says the *Record*, "that if proper protection is afforded to the sugar interests of the country, Florida will become the seat of an immense sugar industry that will enrich the whole nation." No mention

is made of bounties to enrich the whole nation. Protection is a phrase which has come to have a definite meaning in politics. No voter would understand it to signify the same thing as a pension. Therefore, we may assume that Judge Kelley, so far from intending to "largely reduce this tax," as Senator Sherman proposed at Springfield, and to substitute a bounty in place of it, would perhaps increase it, to the end of enriching the whole nation by making it worth while to plant sugar-cane in Florida. There are other signs of coming disagreement among the champions of protection, but this one relating to sugar is the most threatening. Some of them favor the repeal of the whole internal revenue system as a means of getting rid of the Treasury surplus. This plan is opposed by the greater number, who apprehend trouble with the temperance men, and fear lest the tariff reformers should raise the cry of "free whiskey against taxed sugar." We shall not attempt to decide between them, but we think that the next Presidential campaign will not be devoid of interest if it shall require from those who talk magisterially about protection to American industry some definitions of that phrase, and some particular applications of it to particular industries.

THE QUESTION OF CHURCH UNION.

THE annual meetings of several denominations have been held since the Episcopalians and the Congregationalists were in conjunction—or collision, it is hard to say which—at Chicago last fall, and in all of them, we believe, the question of church union came up in one form or another. The enthusiastic advocates of union will no doubt see in this new and widespread interest in the matter a proof that their hopes are speedily to be realized; but to an outsider it seems difficult to decide whether the various deliverances of official bodies, and the different bases of union put forward, are really parleyings before a truce or sparring before a fight. In a similar way, it is uncertain whether the announcement that the Congress of Churches—that recent organization devised for the very end of church coöperation—will hold no meeting this year, is an indication that its managers consider its work done, or that they see serious obstacles in the way even of such harmony as in the past.

This new movement for coöperation among the churches as a first step and for union as the final result, springs from two classes of impulses. Sentiment of one sort and another has much to do with it. There is a feeling of shame on the part of many at the divided condition of Protestant Christendom, especially at the fact that its divisions are almost wholly traditional, as they believe, and without a present justifying ground. This feeling sometimes emerges in regretful comparisons of fragmentary Protestantism with the solidarity of the Catholic world. Sometimes it arises from a sense of the vast forces in the modern world opposed to the Church, or at least indifferent to it, and of the need of uniting against a common enemy. With some this sentimental longing for a consolidation of the sects is due to their studies in the history of the Church, and their conviction of its essential oneness through all the centuries; in others it is caused by their conception of a National Church, embracing all Christians, as essential to the idea of a church at all. In Mr. Maurice this tendency of thought was clearly marked, and from him it seems to have passed to many others. Practical considerations are also behind the movement. The unnecessary cost of maintaining several distinct and antagonistic churches where one would suffice, is beginning to be felt. The business sense of the managers of church boards and missionary societies is rebelling against the manifest waste involved in present methods. The business men in the churches, so far as their attention has been drawn to this aspect of the case, are unanimous in thinking that a remedy should be sought for the extravagance of the existing competitive system in a scheme of comity, alliance, or, if need be, union.

With such a two-fold force back of it, it is not surprising that the movement should be gathering headway and gaining importance. It seems to us, however, that one vital element in the whole problem has been for the most part curiously overlooked. We mean the thoroughly different attitudes, towards the question of church union, of churches in the city and of those in the country. The former, as a class, are for union, or something approaching it; the latter, as a class, are against it. This difference springs, of course, out of the different conditions of social and thus of religious life, to be encountered in city and country. The great massing of people in the large cities has of itself done much to obliterate denominational distinctions there, and to bring about a state of general tolerance and good feeling. With such a vast population in reach, especially with such great numbers not reached at all, the rivalry of churches along the old lines becomes absurd. And practically it is far less the denomination of a church than its location, the eminence of its pastor, or the attractiveness of its choir, that operates in its favor. In the small towns, however, of stationary or diminishing population, the case is wholly different. Denominational preference is there a matter of inheritance as truly as the family name. The stratified prejudices of generations are built into the foundations of the separate churches. Open strife between the sects is now rare, it is true, even in the country, but a keen rivalry, a suspicious watchfulness, a petty jealousy, are still common. More than this, it is a frequent thing for church relationships to accompany and mark rank in the social scale. To belong to a given church is to be in "society," to be a member of another is to be under social disqualification.

All this is well known, we presume, and it is clear that to substitute for such a state of things a union of churches would be equivalent to a sweeping social revolution. Any new idea is proverbially slow in finding lodgment in the rural mind, and that mind would be simply aghast at the prospect of a change of the nature proposed. As the villages of the country, stranded at one side of the stream of population, are exactly the places where the need for church union is most crying, so they are also the places where opposition to such union is and will be the most intense. Anything to exalt and emphasize denominational peculiarities the country may be depended upon to advocate; anything to minimize them it is certain to oppose. It was noteworthy at the Episcopal Convention that the dioceses whose delegates voted most solidly for the change of the name of the Church into something which would be generally taken as exclusive, were the feebler and less populous ones. Of like significance is the fact that the Chicago *Interior*, the organ of the provincial Presbyterian churches of the Northwest, fairly foams at the mouth when it speaks of the action of the New York Presbytery ("ministers with rich wives, and professors," it calls that body) in "hailing" the action of the Bishops looking towards church union.

We refer to these matters only to remind those interested that they will have to be reckoned with. It seems plain to us that it will be long before the social traditions of the country churches can be so broken up as is implied in the proposition to wipe out sectarian lines. As the strength of church life at present is dependent in a very large degree upon social relations, it is evident that a great social obstacle in the way of a church movement such as is the one we refer to, must be a serious obstacle.

THE PRESENT CONDITION OF IRELAND.

DUBLIN, May 21, 1887.

A RAILWAY journey in the south of Ireland, with a sojourn of a few days in Cork and Waterford, has set me thinking much upon the actual condition of the country, especially as compared with the past. It is the cue of the inhabitants of most countries to make the best of the spot of earth "wherein it has pleased Providence to cast their lot." Here the opposite tendency prevails, and I cannot but think it has a materially depressing effect upon our fortunes. All parties speak as if it were their interest to represent affairs in the most miserable condition possible, and worse now than ever before. Nationalists desire to show the blighting effects of British rule; Protestants maintain that real progress is impossible in a country where priestcraft prevails; and adherents of the Government generally throw all the blame upon the machinations of a horde of needy agitators distracting a naturally well-inclined people from their legitimate occupations. "Bad as the state of Ireland has been since the Union, it never was worse than at present—has not our once happy population of 8,000,000 been reduced below 5,000,000 by landlord greed and alien rule?" "Infamous as has been the course of Irish agitation from O'Connell downwards, never before has Ireland been coerced as it is at the present moment by Parnell and his gang—little wonder that business is at a standstill, that our cities are falling into ruins, and that the life-blood of the country is leaving our shores."

The truth is, apart from political acerbities, Ireland was never, upon the whole, in a better condition for those living in it than it is at the present moment. There is much distress among evicted tenants and those who are holding on in despair to little pieces of land, from which under any Government or social arrangement they could hardly wring a living. The profits of farming are greatly reduced. There is no little distress among landowners—helpless ladies and the like—due to legal reductions of rent, and fair and unfair refusals to pay on the part of tenants. Consequent on the importation of American flour, and the increased output here by the

larger mills through the general adoption of roller machinery, the flour millers of Ireland (once the staple manufacturers of the country) are in considerable difficulties. Most of the smaller mills have been permanently closed, and with the larger mills, unless some unlooked-for turn comes in the flour trade, it has almost become a question of the survival of the fittest. Nevertheless, upon the whole, the mass of the inhabitants of Ireland are in a happier condition than before. We cannot reasonably wish to recall our population of 8,000,000 living in the squalor and wretchedness which prevailed within my memory between 1840 and the famine of 1846-47. Ruined homesteads and depopulated villages may appear mournful, but how did their inhabitants live? How could they ever have lived here; and how are their descendants now living by the Hudson and the St. Lawrence? That the change was beneficial for them and their descendants in no wise justified the coercive legislation and the agrarian oppression by which it was effected. There is something appalling in the depopulation which has gone on in Ireland during the Victorian era. It remains to be seen under home rule to what extent this has been due to natural causes, to what extent it can be prevented or modified by political institutions.

Meanwhile Ireland was never more profoundly discontented than at present, mainly because she never was stronger or better educated. An English statesman once proposed, as a panacea for Irish discontent, a bridge connecting her with England, or a steam ferry free at the expense of the Government. But, in fact, our discontent has increased with increased communication with Great Britain and the United States. Political subjection has become intolerable to the Irish peasant and artisan since they have been enabled to compare the institutions under which they live with those which their expatriated fellow-countrymen enjoy elsewhere. The Irish land system has been doomed since the peasant-proprietary and simple-transfer systems of your country have been brought within ten days of our shores.

I saw nothing in the south of Ireland indicative of widespread and general distress. I was impressed with the superiority of the poorer class generally in and about Cork to the more mixed race here in Dublin; the former striking me as more pure-blooded and capable. I particularly noticed the comfortable, decent appearance of the emigrants who, at Mallow and other stations, were taking the train for Queenstown—pleasing, bright, well-dressed girls; fine, able young men clad in strong garments. I could not but contrast them with the wretched-looking Irish emigrants of twenty years ago, and contrast the short and well-appointed ocean passage of to-day with the long weeks of misery endured in the "coffin" sailing ships that, in the famine times, took in their human cargoes at our ports. The cheerfulness of our present emigrants contrasted strikingly with the anguish which used to characterize our departing exiles. America is, in truth, now as near to us in idea as Belfast was to Cork a few years ago. The voyage is little dreaded, and America is, in familiar thought, almost a part of Ireland.

What is the cause of the increased exodus which has marked this spring? The Unionist papers say that some are fleeing from the tyranny of the National League, and others because they dread the baneful operations of the Crimes Act. It is really due to various causes: the apparent revival of trade in the United States, the continued agricultural depression here, the deferment of the hope of a speedy settlement of the agrarian and national question. No doubt, this continued depopulation of our country arises largely from causes beyond our control; no doubt, most of these emigrants will be far happier with you than would be possible in Ireland; but it is hard to bear philosophically the permanent departure from us of our young men and women, such as crowded the cars in which I travelled from Thurles to Cork.

The Irish Catholics ought to feel proud of the beautiful churches, cathedrals, monasteries, and schools with which they have covered the country since their emancipation under O'Connell. We Protestants cannot like the system, but to them it is everything elevated, pure, and holy, and we should try to regard it from their standpoint and remember the good effect it has had upon them. Probably no other people so poor, entirely out of their own pockets, and without Government assistance, ever in like time erected so many beautiful buildings. Fifty years ago Catholic churches, as a rule, were slated, meeting-house-like buildings—in towns, generally hidden away in back streets; now they are handsome cut-stone erections, often of stately proportions, crowning hill-tops and dominating our villages and towns. They have cost much money. They have withdrawn millions sterling from reproductive investment. I have heard Catholic priests and laymen question the good results of such outlay upon the economic condition of the country. Yet, no doubt, on the whole it has had an elevating and educating influence and added to the people's self respect. It would be hard to foretell the results of such an establishment of the religious orders as has been going on and is still going on over Ireland. Protestants may safely leave it to be dealt with by the Catholic people themselves. If by Catholics considered desirable, the Church will be curbed here as it has been in other Catholic countries, and this will be done all the sooner and more effectually if Protestants only have the sense not to interfere.

It would be hard to estimate the educational effect which the establishment of the National League branches is producing in Ireland. Our people generally never had any previous similar training. They form little parliaments, where the people learn and are learning the conduct of affairs. They are carried on for the most part by the people themselves—often, it is true, with the help of the Catholic clergy of the locality (not always the men most apt for worldly affairs); generally without any assistance from the upper or better-educated classes. These societies are often crude and narrow; their proceedings are sometimes rather wild, liable to be mixed up with all sorts of affairs, and frequently, no doubt, are turned to private ends by designing individuals. If passing resolutions could remedy the ills of humanity, there would be little to complain of in Ireland. Membership in these branch societies would be intolerable to many Nationalists who are members of the Central League in Dublin; still, they have, upon the whole, a most beneficial effect.

One sign of the increasing spirit of the people is the general establishment of foot ball and hurling clubs, and the Gaelic athletic associations. Our old games had almost died out; we never, as a people, took to the close playing necessary for cricket and such amusements. Within the last few years hurling has been revived, and the thud of the foot-ball is now a common sound in spare hours, and on Sundays and holidays, all over the country. It was most interesting in Cork to see the thousands who poured out every Sunday to the race-course to witness play between clubs from neighboring districts. Shut out from any general military discipline and volunteering, and from the management of our affairs, we are, of all the peoples I know, most untrained, the least accustomed to meeting and learning to contest and differ without loss of temper. The increase of manly exercises among the people is to be regarded as a distinct gain, and in itself a moral discipline. Another old Irish, or Anglo-Irish, game is (under the present policy of the police to interfere as little as possible with ordinary offences not savoring of agrarian agitation or politics) coming again into vogue. I refer to the bowling by opposing parties along the roads from one town or village to another, especially in the south of Ireland. Iron balls of one-pound to two-pound weight are used. It is a game requiring great skill and dexterity, frightfully dangerous to vehicles and foot-passengers when a proper lookout ahead is not kept, and strictly forbidden by law, but universally practised. The balls are openly sold in our country towns.

So long as I can remember, it has been the tendency of the trading and mercantile classes here to make out that they were on the verge of ruin. This discourages possible competitors and applications for subscriptions. They now declare themselves worse than ever—"Parnell and the National League have undone the country;" yet during all these years the requirements and style of living of these classes have been rising, and the men who now say they are being ruined are living in a way that to their grandfathers would have appeared princely. Compared to what is called "progress" in other countries, there is little in Ireland. Upon the whole, nevertheless, I fail to see that the classes to which I refer, and among whom I live, are in a worse condition than they have been. We cannot be always increasing our scale of comfort, we cannot expect greater and greater luxuries, and the many distractions now within our reach, without paying for them. Our sons and daughters cannot avoid the competition in life now inevitable with the sons and daughters of our workpeople, who by their education at the national schools are as well qualified, and by their rougher bringing up in some respects better adapted, for the battle of life.

With reference to this outcry of general ruin, I have been interested in looking up the latest available statistics:

	Total profits of the business, trades, and professional classes in Ireland returned for income tax.	Total poor-law expenditure in Ireland, considerably increased of late years by the free distribution of outdoor relief.
1877	£8,382,823	£ 780,326
1878	8,642,722	845,608
1879	8,711,456	847,955
1880	8,365,578	929,967
1881	8,210,397	965,128
1882	8,192,482	967,483
1883	8,288,571	1,042,845
1884	8,536,104	945,930
1885	8,588,948	887,906
1886	Not published	904,018

From these figures it would appear that upon the whole the better class of traders who pay income tax have not suffered appreciably; while the poor are better off than they were a few years ago.

Dublin, where for the most part the non-absentee aristocracy and landowners deal, is said in especial to have been ruined by the agitation. I cannot see it, either in the general appearance of the city or in the mode of life of those around me. The condition of the poor in Dublin mainly depends upon that of the middle and upper classes. The following figures show the average

rate per pound on the valuation for poor relief in the city for the past ten years. No alteration has occurred in the valuation of the city or the incidence of the tax to take away from the value of these figures for comparison.

1878	2s. 4d.	1883	2s. 9d.
1879	2s. 3d.	1884	2s. 9d.
1880	2s. 4d.	1885	2s. 5d.
1881	2s. 4d.	1886	2s. 1d.
1882	2s. 9d.	1887	1s. 10d

According to this table there is now less poverty in Dublin than for the past ten years. D. B.

FRANCE AND THE ARMED PEACE.

PARIS, May 19.

WE have just gone through a second war panic, and this time it may be said without exaggeration that the emotion, though of shorter duration than that which accompanied the late elections in Germany, was even more acute. In truth, the state of Europe is most painful. It is probably difficult for an American to realize the condition of a country like France, where military service has become obligatory, where every man between twenty and twenty-five belongs to the active army, every man between twenty-five and thirty to the reserve of the active army, every man between thirty and thirty-five to what is called the Territorial Army, and, finally, every man between thirty-five and forty to the reserve of the Territorial Army. And this reserve, this Territorial Army, are not myths, they are not merely on paper: the reservists must serve terms of twenty-eight days, the territorials terms of thirteen days. Every man has his *livret*, a little pocket-book in which his duty is set down; he knows where he has to go in case of a mobilization, after how many days he is expected to be in the ranks. The work of mobilization has been prepared in the minutest details; it is thought that the first combatant ready will have great advantages over his adversary, and in consequence everything has been arranged in view of this sudden preparation.

It is hardly possible to imagine what would be the social effects of a mobilization. One of my friends, who is director of a coal mine, has just studied the effects of a mobilization merely in the mining districts. His statistics show that more than half the miners would have to leave their work immediately, the youngest and the strongest, those who work in the depths of the mine; he calculates that the home product of all the French coal districts would necessarily be diminished more than half; the importation of foreign coal might, in case of war, become an impossibility, and in that case there would not be coal enough in the country for the railroads and for the necessities of the special industries which war would not arrest. This is only one instance of the great trouble which a war would produce, and many others could be found.

Besides the economical and the social aspects of the question, there is the political aspect; and here I know that "incedo per ignes." But surely the history of the last war and of the Commune which followed it is not reassuring; and, if I speak of the Commune, it is necessary to say that, though this terrible and bloody movement of the Commune only broke out after the preliminaries of peace had been signed, the Commune had a virtual existence during the whole siege. I would advise all those who wish to have distinct proofs of it to read a very remarkable little volume, 'Memories of the late Franco-German War' ('Récits sur la dernière guerre,' etc.), by M. Sarazin, Head-Surgeon of the First Corps of the French Army. Sarazin followed the *corps d'armée* of Gen. Ducrot; he was in the midst of Wissembourg, of Reichshoffen, of Sedan, and escaped by way of Belgium to Paris. His testimony is very valuable, being that of a brave soldier and a true patriot. He shows, for instance, that the only two regular regiments of the line which were left in Paris during the siege lost as many men and officers as the 350,000 national guards who paraded before Trochu. Would the male population of Paris, between twenty and forty, consent to leave the capital, in case of a new war? Would there not, at any rate, be a refractory nucleus, composed of the worst elements of Paris, and determined to remain near the centre of government, all ready for revolution and for disorder? It is impossible not to put such questions, nor to see their relation to the character of future events.

For the reasons which I have rapidly set forth, it may be affirmed that the French, as a nation, have no desire for war. It is asking too much to ask them to forget altogether what they suffered and lost in 1870; but, till a very recent period, it cannot be denied that the French, though they reorganized their army and altered their military institutions after the Prussian model, have not been a perturbing element in European politics, and have not shown an undue desire to form alliances, to foment intrigues, and to prepare difficulties for their neighbors. There has not been, in the complicated division and subdivision of French parties, a party which could be called a war party. We have lived, in some sense, very quietly for a number of years, and we have enjoyed for a long time a certain sense of security.

It must be confessed that this sense of security is gone; it would be difficult to explain exactly why. Such changes cannot be laid entirely to one man: they are somewhat like changes in the atmosphere. Of course some men have assumed responsibilities of a dangerous character, but would they have assumed them if they had not felt that they could do so? There is certainly no real war party in the country, but the generation now coming to the front is not exactly in the same state of mind as the generation which saw the war and the Commune. No man has ever learned much from another's experience. The youngest generations hardly believe in the possibility of a new Commune. They admit willingly that in time of war every man between the ages of twenty and forty would enter the ranks of the army, and that Paris, inhabited for a while only by older people, would be as easy to keep in order as any other town. They believe that France is better prepared for a war than she was in 1870; but the prevailing sentiment is a sort of wearying of the present uncertainty. It was thought after 1870, when France paid so readily the enormous ransom which had been put upon her, that her resources were almost endless; some foolish people went so far as to say that our milliards had not enriched Germany, but had impoverished her. It became a sort of axiom that the system of armed peace could be better and longer borne by France than by Germany; the two countries had to run a sort of race of expenditure, and we flattered ourselves that in this race we should be first in the end. But figures do not lie, and for some years our budgets have been less and less satisfactory. Certainly, the great armaments, the perpetual changes in the army, have not been the only cause of the decadence of our finances: the democratic government has not been a cheap government; the number of functionaries has augmented in an alarming proportion. Electric railways have been built in quiet districts which had excellent roads; every village has had a new school-house, built in the most pretentious style; expeditions have been made to distant countries; the experiments of the navy have been extremely costly. Still, it cannot be denied that the chief cause of the deficit has been the perpetuation of what can only be called the system of armed peace.

At the present moment the financial question has become the most pressing; everybody feels that the weight has become too heavy, everybody speaks of retrenchment and reform, but there is no minister strong enough to impose a good financial policy. People speak of retrenchment in the abstract, but when it comes to any special and particular form of retrenchment, the Deputies are afraid to vote it. They keep promising all sorts of things to their electors, and every electoral district is willing that the promises made to other districts should not be kept, but it insists on the full execution of the promises made to itself. It would be unjust to say that the finances of the country are in complete disorder. There are fortunately old administrations which preserve certain traditions; the public functionaries are, on the whole, remarkably honest; the organism is still sound; the disorder is not in the executive department, it is in the Legislature. The Chamber of Deputies has no financial policy, it is constantly led away by political passions, it is in a state of complete anarchy as regards financial questions. The dangerous state of our finances is somewhat hidden to the eye by the high quotations of our public funds. A great banker told me only a few days ago that, for himself, he deplored these high quotations; they are due to the fact that the French have completely given up, even in the remote country districts, the habit of hoarding their money (a habit which, by the by, enabled the country to pay the five milliards of the war indemnity with a rapidity which surprised the world). Great banks of deposit exist now, which have agencies in all the departments; these banks receive all the small savings of the people, they constantly drain the country, and pay a certain interest on sums which in old times earned no interest. The saving disposition of the people has contributed to the success of these great banks; they have now enormous sums in their hands, and, so far, no great crisis has contributed to shake the confidence of the country in their solvability. In prosperous times, a great part of these deposits would be used by the banks for new enterprises, but nobody dares now to enter into any combinations which require time for their development; money is idle, and, as the banks are obliged to invest their deposits in order to pay interest to the depositors, they look for the safest investments, and they buy nothing but public funds, railway bonds guaranteed by the State, and treasury bonds. The banks have in this manner made an artificial price for the public funds, as a sudden crisis would soon show; and the fall in the public funds would become alarmingly rapid. The quotations of the Bourse cannot, therefore, deceive the economists; the state of the public finances is not sound, the burden of the French budget has become too heavy even for a frugal and laborious nation.

The danger of the situation which I have tried to describe, in a political sense, lies in this: a time may come when the nation will feel that war may be as easy to bear as armed peace. War does not last long. It may end in defeat, it may also end in victory; in any case it must bring a settlement, a period of rest during which the war establishment can be reduced. A man may be more willing to endure great sufferings for a few hours than to bear a constant pain; war can be looked upon by the nation as a dangerous operation is looked upon by a patient. There was a time when we believed that France could bear the burden of armed peace better than Germany; the study of the budget of the German Empire has dispelled this notion. All those who have examined this budget know that the burden of

Germany is by far the lightest, that the Empire has, so to speak, no debt. The *Journal des Économistes* published a few months ago an excellent article on the German finances, showing very conclusively that Germany has organized herself as an Empire at a comparatively small cost. We cannot expect to see her crushed by degrees under the weight of debt; we must reconcile ourselves to the idea that she can continue for an indefinite period to make the sacrifices she is making now. France is not yet fairly aware of this important fact; those only who can read a budget and compare budgets, know exactly the state of things. It is perhaps as well that this knowledge should not become too general, as it might create a feeling of despair, and inspire the nation with an imprudent desire to try the fortune of war rather than to continue a financial struggle which to many eyes seems hopeless.

WEIMAR AND THE GOETHE-GESELLSCHAFT.—A NEW FAUST.

WEIMAR, May 22.

SAINT-MARC GIRARDIN described in 1830 his impressions of the relation between German literature and Goethe. With this literary monarch, he thought, the old literary régime would descend to the tomb. And after visiting Weimar, where he beheld Goethe, no longer in the fulness of his powers, with the majestic brow that seemed "weary of thought," he felt a subtle association between the failing sage and the decadent capital, type of a decentralized land. The passing traveller to day can scarcely avoid at first the same impression. Sown in a hollow of the rolling hills around it, Weimar seems to withdraw itself from the inquisitive eye. One finds a fringe of suburbs where the stucco fronts, now so common in German domestic architecture, play a principal part; but the heart of the town is as yet lightly touched by modern inroads. Alleys guiltless of sidewalks still loiter among the leading streets; the travelling booth is seen in the public square; and the taverns, consequential, possibly, in their day, have degenerated into respectable mediocrity. But Weimar is merely faithful to itself and to the early and unspoiled simplicity of life which has been noted and admired by many observers. The ghosts and traditions of the past continue all-powerful, although the living links with Goethe's time are fast breaking. Few persons, indeed, remain alive who can speak of seeing the poet in their youth, fewer still who had personal relations with him. A life-long resident of Weimar could recall but one or two such in his native place and in adjacent Jena. Bancroft and Calvert in America are probably the sole survivors of the host of foreigners who crossed the friendly *Salve* of Goethe's threshold.

The central point of interest for the visitor is, of course, the Goethe house, now transformed into a museum for the preservation and exhibition of Goethe's cabinets of natural history and rich art collections, which, as is now well known, possess not only a personal, but a scientific interest. Preliminary descriptions have already appeared on both sides of the Atlantic, and Robert Keil's readable sketch affords for the present a useful guidance. Hofrath Ruland, however, the experienced director of the ducal museum, who has also charge of the Goethe collections, is preparing a thorough catalogue, which will be based upon the original family documents, and will present an accurate history of the house and all its contents. Accompanying this catalogue a series of fine photographs of the more important objects will be published with descriptive text. Among the recent discoveries made by Director Ruland may be mentioned a death-mask of Schiller and an extensive collection of sketches and drawings done by Goethe and carefully pasted into a huge blank book, forming a kind of illustrated diary of his Italian journey. The task of arranging and assorting the contents of the house has been rendered doubly difficult, as no one now remains who could afford definite information or reliable reminiscences. The eccentric grandsons, possessed as they were by a species of pious mania, kept even those who were near to them in friendship (perhaps preferably such) aloof from the ancestral treasures, which they yielded up only with their lives; and carried to the grave whatever recollections of the past they may have retained.

The Goethe archives, bequeathed directly to the Grand Duchess, are at present lodged in a wing of the palace in which her own apartments are situated. The wealth of manuscripts which they contain has been already indicated in the *Nation*, and certain specimens have appeared in print. Their full importance, however, will be appreciated only when the great and final edition of Goethe's works, which will comprise perhaps one hundred volumes, is completed. No one anticipates that the prevailing estimate of Goethe and his productions will be essentially modified; but, on the other hand, additional light will be thrown upon a great variety of episodes in his life, and the elucidation of many of his writings will be materially furthered. An illustration of this may be cited in the recent publication of a portion of the original letters from Italy to Frau von Stein and Herder in 1786–87, which form the basis of his 'Italian Journey,' appearing thirty years later. Here is still the same fresh, limpid early utterance which was first revealed to us a few years ago in the Bernays edition of the ante-Weimar period. An examination of these original letters gives an instructive view of Goethe's method of literary workmanship in the editing of his own materials, and also permits us to obtain a more distinct conception of his feelings during that time toward Frau von Stein.

The mention of this final edition of Goethe calls up involuntarily the name of its guiding spirit, William Scherer. In Weimar his death was felt as keenly as in Berlin, and his loss has necessitated a general rearrangement of functions. His place as member of the executive committee of the Goethe Society is taken by Prof. Herman Grimm. Erich Schmidt, the former director of the archives, although remaining one of the various editorial collaborators, has been called to Berlin in Scherer's stead as professor of German literature, having, like Scherer, previously filled a similar position at Strassburg and Vienna; and Prof. Suphan comes from Berlin to Weimar in the place of Prof. Schmidt. If it be added that Prof. Geiger, editor of the *Goethe-Jahrbuch*, is a member of the philosophical faculty of the Berlin University, and that Herr von Loeper, the accomplished Goethe commentator, has been drawn from Berlin to Weimar in the interests of the new edition, it becomes manifest how leading a rôle the German capital is taking in this great literary enterprise. Prof. Suphan is favorably known as the editor of the final edition of Herder's works, the concluding volumes of which will appear within the next two years: and the experience which he has acquired in this undertaking admirably equips him for his present task.

The annual meeting of the Goethe-Gesellschaft, with upwards of two hundred members present, was held on the 21st of May. A shade of seriousness pervaded the assembly, owing to the deaths of Prof. Scherer and (recently) of Herr von Loën, the general manager of the ducal theatre and an officer of the Shakspere, Schiller, and Goethe Societies—a kindly and helpful character, under whose administration of twenty years the Weimar stage was distinguished for the early and elaborate presentation of Wagner's operas to the German public, and for the production of the second part of "Faust." A preliminary meeting of the Executive Committee had been held on the previous day, after which the members of the Committee, the officers of the Society, and a few others were invited to dine at court. The proceedings of the general meeting were of varied interest. The usual routine reports were made on the condition of the different activities of the Society, and the increasing prosperity of the organization was satisfactorily established. The total membership is not far from 3,000, including the 200 members of the auxiliary English society, none of whom, however, were present. Berlin has alone over 400 members, Austria over 300, Russia 54, America 46, Switzerland 29, Italy 21, the Netherlands 11, France 9, while 16 members are scattered through Norway and Sweden, Denmark, Belgium, Spain, Greece, Turkey, India, China, and Australia. It was announced that the Cohn Library, a small but exceedingly choice collection of original editions of Goethe and of other rare volumes essential for the proper editing of his writings, had been purchased for the Society. The price paid for the 800 works was stated to be 16,000 marks. As the library of the Society also comprises a number of purchases from the Hirzel auction and the Goetheana in Wolfgang von Goethe's collection, the work of editing may now be advantageously prosecuted. The next publication of the Society will be a facsimile edition of an album of twenty-two leaves containing sketches and drawings by Goethe, and illustrating, to quote his own conviction, his artistic powers, desires, and deficiencies. It was his wish that the leaves should remain intact, and he had provided a brief introduction, to be included in the publication, which will be under the judicious charge of Director Ruland. The further announcement was made that during the coming year half-a-dozen volumes of the Goethe edition would appear, embracing portions of the poems, the diaries and correspondence, and "Faust."

The special address for the occasion was made by Prof. Suphan, who spoke with much feeling and acumen of the personal and intellectual relations existing between Goethe and Herder. For Erich Schmidt, who is to edit the "Faust," was reserved the pleasure of communicating to the assembly the discovery of a copy of probably the earliest version of Goethe's "Faust," including twenty scenes, principally of the *Gretchen* tragedy, which he was fortunate enough recently to unearth. Students of Goethe are aware that, whereas the first part of "Faust" was not published until 1808, an earlier fragment appeared in 1790, portions of which were undoubtedly done in the old Frankfort days, while other passages were evidently worked over at the time of the Italian journey. Conjecture has long been rife regarding the period of production of the several scenes, and Scherer even maintained the probable existence of an original prose sketch. Writing from Rome March 1, 1788, Goethe refers to the "Faust" manuscript which, years before, he had brought from Frankfort to Weimar, and to which at that time we find frequent allusion. He speaks of having just made a scheme for "Faust," an operation in which he hoped for success.

"To be sure," he adds, "it is another matter to finish the piece now instead of fifteen years ago; I fancy that it will lose nothing thereby, especially since I believe that I have now recovered the clue. I have already completed a new scene (*die Hexenküche*), and if I smoke the paper a little, I think that no one would detect it among the others. The old manuscript often gives me food for reflection when I see it before me. It is the very first, and written off in the principal scenes without plan; it is now so yellow with time, so jumbled up, so worn and ragged on the edges, that it really looks like the fragment of an old codex."

The present treasure trove is a copy of that earlier and fundamental version, and will necessitate a revision of the textual criticism of the whole first part, with a date as starting-point antecedent by many years to 1790.

Scarcely less interesting than the discovery itself was the way in which it was brought about. Every reader of Goethe's biography will recall the lively little maid of honor, Fräulein von Göchhausen, with whom, in the first wild days at Weimar, Goethe and the Duke were wont to play such pranks. Members of her family now living in Dresden possessed a quantity of apparently unimportant papers which had been handed down from generation to generation. The Grand Duchess, making inquiries among acquaintances in Dresden for Goethe memorabilia, learned of the existence of these papers, and, through her intercession, the family permitted access to them. Prof. Schmidt was despatched to examine the collection, and observed among other documents of little consequence a large blank book or album filled, after the current fashion, with copies of various popular specimens of German literature. Turning over the leaves, he suddenly came across some absolutely unknown lines from "Faust," and here at last, preserved by the pious hand of the much-abused little dame, appeared an apparently faithful copy of the precious document, the famous time-stained codex of the Italian journey, the lost manuscript of the modern scholiasts, for which in the Goethe archives search had so long and fruitlessly been made. For the second part of "Faust" abundant material has been found, as its composition occupied, of course, the closing years of Goethe's life; and the cycle may now be considered to be in a measure complete. A detailed description of this fragment would attract, perhaps, only the smaller circle of those devoted to the closer study of Goethe; but the "kecker Wurf" and the broken and rugged vehemence of many of the passages from the dialogue between *Mephisto* and the student, the carousal in *Auerbach's* cellar, and above all the thrilling prison scene, which was declaimed by Prof. Schmidt with marked effect, form a vivid reminiscence of the storm-and-stress period of Goethe's life, and contribute a number of characteristic and striking touches to the picture of his tempestuous development.

The twenty scenes from the first part of the drama which the manuscript comprises are a mixture of prose and verse, and embrace especially those in which *Gretchen* appears. The order is nearly the same as in the later editions, beginning with the monologue of *Faust*, the opening lines of which, preserving more faithfully the system of rhyming couplets, deviate slightly from the subsequent version:

> "Hab nun ach die Philosophey,
> Medicin und Juristerey,
> Und leider auch Theologie
> Durchaus studirt mit heisser Müh!"

The scene with the earth spirit is included, a dialogue with *Wagner*, and the interview between *Mephisto* and the student, which is drastic in its execution. The revel in *Auerbach's* cellar is almost entirely in crude sophomoric prose, a noteworthy feature of which is that here as in the *Volksbuch* it is still *Faust* and not *Mephisto* who outwits and befools the students. Between *Auerbach's* cellar and the first meeting of *Faust* and *Gretchen* comes the short scene before the cross on the highway. ("Was giebt's, Mephisto? hast du Eil?") The entrance of *Mephisto* is lacking, as well as the attempt at suicide, the Easter promenade, and the later scenes between *Mephisto* and *Faust*. Of *Gretchen* at the first view *Faust* says:

> "Das ist ein herrlich schönes Kind,
> Die hat was in mir angezünd't."

In the scene in *Gretchen's* chamber, her exclamation at sight of the jewel-case is peculiarly naïve:

> "Was Guckguck mag dadrinne seyn!"

The ballad of the "König in Thule" is given, and several scenes between *Faust* and *Gretchen* ensue, the scene at the fountain, before the Mater Dolorosa, and in the Cathedral. In the *Valentine* scene much is wanting—for example the serenade by *Mephisto*. The prose scene (*Trüber Tag, Feld*), and the prison scene, which, save the snatch of song at the beginning, is also in prose instead of verse as later, end the series. The whole fragment will appear in the edition of the first part of "Faust" to be published in the fall, and will probably be exactly reproduced afterwards in a special reprint.

After the general meeting, followed a banquet under the guidance of the presiding officer of the Society, Judge Simson, the President of the Imperial Court of Law, and himself an honored member of the small band of those who knew Goethe in their early years. In the evening the Society became the guests at the ducal theatre of the Grand Duke, who, with the Grand Duchess, had been present at the morning session. The scene in the auditorium was an appropriate termination of a noteworthy occasion, and seemed fittingly to continue the traditions of an older day. One beheld there, among other members of the court, the grandson of Karl August, and his wife, who display the same fostering care for art and letters which distinguished their predecessors a century ago; the Prime Minister, Stichling, who is a grandson of Herder; the Baron von Gleichen-Russwurm, a grandson of Schiller; Frau Grimm, the daughter of Bettina von Arnim, and her gifted husband, whose father and uncle are the *par nobile fratrum* of German learning. Scattered about the house could be observed the faces of many eminent students and admirers of Goethe whom the event had summoned from all quarters of Germany. From the stage, where Goethe's efforts as director had formerly been all-influential, were heard the classic and noble lines of his 'Iphigenie,' in which, as *Orestes*, he himself had once made a memorable appearance. Above the stage was a well-executed fresco depicting groups of the poets and composers before whom Shakspere appeared, leading towards the Muse Schiller and Goethe, with the latter a little in advance; but, on leaving the theatre, one was confronted without by Rietschel's familiar and colossal bronze looming darkly in the night, and representing the two poets in an attitude of friendly and reciprocal abnegation. H. S. W.

Correspondence.

THE STATE DEBT OF TENNESSEE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In speaking, on page 417, of the compromise offered the State of Virginia by her creditors, you say: "The noble State of Tennessee, for instance, scaled its debt heavily, with the consent of its bondholders, and, after one year, defaulted on its interest, and has been in default ever since."

Here are two errors. Tennessee scaled her debt *without the consent of her creditors;* and it was a difference of opinion as to her right to do just this thing, which divided the Democratic party from 1877 to 1883, and led to the election of one Republican Governor during that period.

In May, 1882, the State Legislature passed an act to fund the debt at sixty cents on the dollar, with interest beginning at two per cent. and gradually rising to six per cent. But this compromise was never accepted by a majority of the creditors, and was superseded by an act passed in March, 1883. By this act, the bonds were divided into two classes. One class was to be paid in full (less four years of war interest—a deduction made also from all private debts), with six per cent. interest. The other class was funded at fifty cents on the dollar, with three per cent. interest.

A letter just received from Hon. Atha Thomas, State Treasurer, says: "Most of the bonded debt of the State has been funded under this act, as of July, 1883, and all the interest thereon since July, 1883, has been promptly paid in semi-annual instalments. To do this the State borrowed some money, each time, to meet the interest due in July, 1886, and January, 1887."

I find in to-day's paper that Tennessee bonds are quoted in New York at 104 for sixes and 75 for threes.—Yours truly,

Campbell Brown.

Spring Hill, Tenn., May 29, 1887.

[Our correspondent evidently supposes we were speaking of the second scaling act, whereas we were speaking of the first. It is natural that he should have been misled by our loose expression, as the fact that there were two scaling acts has almost been forgotten in Tennessee; but it is natural that we should have spoken as we did, since the betrayal of the creditors who funded under the first act is far from being ancient history in this part of the country. If our subject had been repudiation in Tennessee, we should, of course, have spoken more specifically, and said that the State scaled its debt 40 per cent., and, *after many of its creditors had consented to it*, defaulted on the interest and has been in default ever since; but we were writing of Virginia, and wished to cite Tennessee, in as few words as possible, as an example of the fate awaiting creditors who accept a scaling act.

On May 20, 1882, Tennessee passed the "Compromise and Funding Act," which scaled its debt more than 40 per cent. and, by a refinement of meanness, required (Acts Tenn., 1882, p. 8, sec. 6) its creditors to pay the expenses of exchanging the old bonds for the new. According to the *American Almanac* (1887, p. 191), some $8,000,000 of these new bonds were issued up to 1883—that is, creditors to that extent were reluctantly persuaded into exchanging their securities by the hope of prompt payment of interest to which the "faith, credit, and honor of the State" were "solemnly pledged" (Acts Tenn., 1882, May 20). Nothing but their consent could have brought about the exchange. Now, what did these creditors profit by accepting the scaling act of the State and paying $2 (Acts Tenn., 1882, p. 8, sec. 6) into the pockets of the State officers for each new scaled bond? On this point we should rejoice to refer our correspondent to the opinion of certain individuals who went through this operation. Their feelings about it are such that, though they will invest East, West, and North, and even in Mexico, they will not invest in any State south of Mason and Dixon's line and east of the Rio Grande.

A single coupon of 1½ per cent. was paid under this settlement, and then the State defaulted and has never made a payment under it since. On the contrary, by March 15, 1883, or before the year was out, the Compromise and Funding Act was repealed,

and a new act which scaled the principal and accrued interest of the debt 50 per cent. and reduced the future interest to 3 per cent. was substituted, and it is this act which has been held out to the creditors ever since for acceptance, with the alternative of getting nothing. It is perfectly true that under this alternative the majority of the creditors have been forced to accept the last act, and it is true, too, that the pitiful interest has been paid, but this does not alter the fact that the State betrayed within a year creditors whom it had persuaded into a heavy sacrifice. Virginia has done no worse than this. It too holds out a last scaling act, and those who have funded under it have been paid interest regularly. The difference is this: the creditors of Tennessee were wholly within its power, the creditors of Virginia, owing to the tax-receivability of their coupons, are not. As if to emphasize its avarice and meanness, Tennessee actually forced its creditors to pay for the second exchange of bonds. This insult was too much for many of them. They preferred to sell on the open market for what they could get, or to retain their old bonds. Another wrong, it is to be hoped, arose from an inadvertence which will be remedied. The State expressly exempted educational and charitable institutions within the State from the effect of these two acts, but made no provision for such institutions outside of the State.—Ed. Nation.]

THE GILMAN ARMS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In reviewing 'Crazy Heraldry' in the *Nation* of May 5, you mention a "serious misquotation" in that book from Mr. Whitmore's 'American Genealogist,' and connect it with the statement that "the Gilman arms are without foundation." The impression is given that Mr. Whitmore made the latter remark.

As there is incidental mention of the "Gilman arms" in my genealogy of the family, I have been asked about this matter. Mr. Whitmore writes to me that, in his book mentioned, he intimates "that as some of the English descendants of Edward Gilman of Caston [England] used the Gilman arms, I [he] presumed other descendants *here* had an equal right."

The fact is that *all* the English Gilmans bear the arms given in my book, and they are found on tombstones (in the old church at Hingham, Eng.) over the remains of members of the family who lived two centuries ago, at a time when such things were much more carefully guarded than they are now. In the *Nation* it is said "there is no good proof of the [Gilman] arms as yet"; but exactly what is meant, I am unable to understand. As I profess no skill in such matters, I gave in my book what was given to me by accredited members of the family in Norfolk, Eng; and if there be any virtue in arms, probably there is as much in those on the Gilman tombs as in any others.—Yours truly,

Arthur Gilman.

Cambridge, June 1, 1887.

EXTREME LONGEVITY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of May 26, p. 447, you express the opinion in the case of William first Lord Cranston, who died in 1627, and Gov. John C., b. in 1626, great-grandson of Lord William and yet born in his lifetime—"if not impossible, it was at least almost incredible."

I am familiar with several such instances. A few years ago we had in our family a laundress, of French Canadian descent, who had several grandchildren, and whose grandmother was then living, a hale, hearty woman of over ninety years. Also, my mother had a cousin, a highly educated lady, with two grandchildren between the ages of two and eight years and a grandmother who afterwards died in her 99th or 100th year. I was acquainted with these families from the old grandmother to the great-grandchildren, and have heard of so many other instances—one, the McElraths of Cleveland, Ohio—that I cannot consider such instances either "impossible" or "incredible."—Respectfully, M. G. F.

Saginaw, Mich., June 3, 1887.

"BILLION."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: With the exception of a mathematician here and there, few Americans, I apprehend, are aware that with the English a *billion* now signifies—and, as to its prefix, etymologically—"a million millions," which it signified originally. It would be curious to know when our countrymen adopted the meaning which they at present attach to the term, a term unrecognized by Dr. Johnson, and also by the eccentric Dr. Richardson. According to Bailey's Dictionary (ed. 1730) it was used as "intimating that the word millions is twice mentioned, as 6666666600." This blind definition, which Dr. Murray does not refer to, evidences, by its estimating *a billion* as we estimate it, that in England the sense of the expression has varied. Bailey's explanation of *a trillion* shows that there is no mistake in the string of figures given above.—Your obedient servant, F. H.

Marlesford, May 21, 1887.

THE CATHEDRAL OF ORVIETO.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I must acknowledge one error in my letter on Orvieto, though not one of any significance as to the church, viz., the substitution of Boniface VIII. for the Guido Farnese assigned by the guide-books as the ecclesiastic who said the first mass. I took the statement from the architect of the church as of his competence to determine, but it would appear that Boniface VIII. was dead when the mass was said. When I get to Orvieto again I will investigate the question, but I can find no Pope on the lists at hand here at that date who could have been in Italy, the See being then at Avignon.—Yours truly,

W. J. Stillman.

Florence, May 16, 1887.

Notes.

Ginn & Co.'s summer and fall announcements include 'The Arabian Nights,' edited in their "Classics for Children" by Edward Everett Hale; Chaucer's 'House of Fame,' edited by Prof. T. R. Lounsbury; 'The Art of Reading Latin: How to Teach It,' by Prof. Wm. Gardner Hale; 'Introduction to the Study of the Middle Ages,' by Prof. Ephraim Emerton; 'Historical Outline Series,' by Albert Bushnell Hart, in six issues—Practical Introduction to the Study of United States History, History of the Colonies, Formation of the Union, the Period of Federation, the Slavery Contest, Administrative History; 'Washington and his Country,' abridged from Irving by John Fiske, with historical introduction and summary continuation to the close of the war; 'Pilgrims and Puritans,' sketches for children by N. Moore; 'A Science of Mind,' by President Seelye of Amherst; Notes to his 'Sanskrit Reader' by Prof. C. R. Lanman; 'Cæsar's Army,' a military study, by Prof. Henry P. Judson; and 'The Order of Words in the Ancient Languages compared with the Modern,' translated from Henri Weil by Prof. Charles W. Super.

Readers of the *Magazine of American History* have been prepared for the announcement that Mr. William Elliot Griffis has composed a life of 'Matthew Calbraith Perry: a Typical American Naval Officer,' which is to be published in September by Cupples & Hurd, Boston, in a single volume, finely illustrated and well indexed. This work rounds out the list of those relating to Japan produced by the same popular writer—popular in the best sense—and its readability is assured.

A. C. Armstrong & Son will be the American publishers of 'The Story of the Life of Queen Victoria told for Boys and Girls all over the World,' by W. W. Tulloch, son of the late Principal Tulloch, with the Queen's personal revision.

J. B. Lippincott Co. have arranged to publish the 'Report of the Commission appointed by the University of Pennsylvania to investigate Modern Spiritualism, in accordance with the bequest of the late Henry Seybert.' The same firm announce 'Bellona's Husband,' a new novel by Hudor Genone, author of 'Inquirendo Island.'

Brentanos have in press 'Tales before Supper,' from the French of Gautier and of Mérimée, by Myndart Verelst, with an introduction by Edgar Saltus.

'The Sailing of King Olaf, and Other Poems,' by Alice Williams Brotherton, will be published directly by Charles H. Kerr & Co., Chicago.

Mr. Robert Louis Stevenson has just completed a memoir of the late Prof. Fleeming Jenkin. It will be published early this summer.

To Mr. David Douglas's beautifully printed series of little books by American authors there have been added recently Mr. Howells's 'Indian Summer,' in two volumes, Mr. Cable's 'Madame Delphine' (in one volume with 'Carancro' and 'Grande Pointe'), and Mr. Stockton's 'A Borrowed Month,' with six other of his short stories.

'Le Transport par les Chemins de Fer: Histoire—Législation,' by Arthur T. Hadley, translated into French by MM. Raffalovich and Guérin, and with a preface by the former, has just been published in Paris by Guillaumin & Cie. (New York: F. W. Christern).

Worthy of the occasion is the noble volume, from the press of John Wilson & Son, that embalms the proceedings at the 250th anniversary of the founding of Harvard College last November ('Harvard University, 1636-1886: A Record of the Commemoration,' etc., Cambridge). It is an unadorned general account of the preparations, the programme, and the performance of those memorable four days, followed by the full text of the literary exercises, the speeches of guests, alumni, etc. The official personnel, the registration lists of graduates and others in attendance, and the names of the recipients of honorary degrees, enhance the value of this permanently interesting publication. For embellishments, there is a facsimile of the earliest existing record of the College, pertaining, as it happens, to the College seal; a reduced facsimile of the original charter of the College, 1650, probably the oldest (unmodified) of any university in the world; and two views of the College yard in 1821, after paintings.

We may fitly notice in close connection with the foregoing 'The New Education: Three Papers by George Herbert Palmer, Professor of Philosophy in Harvard University' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.). These papers, as they originally appeared in the *Andover Review*, at-

tracted marked attention and invited much discussion. Prof. Palmer sought to show how the elective system of Harvard differed from the *laissez-faire* method with which it was confounded; and whatever may be thought of his success, it is past question that these papers are among the most quickening educational essays of the three years in which they respectively saw the light. Prof. Palmer's exposition of general principles and his engaging style must cause this little volume to be read long after the debate is closed by the logic of accomplished facts. We recommend it to teachers of every station and degree.

Mr. Justin Winsor's antiquarian romance, 'Was Shakespeare Shapleigh? A Correspondence in Two Entanglements' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) originally appeared in part in the *Atlantic*. In book form it contains a second paper, dealing with the voyages of the early discoverers on the west coast of America, and with the Shapley family in New England. Shakspere is identified with Sir William Shapleigh, by verbal tradition recorded in a journal, and by the rather tame expedient of filling out the "W. Sh." of the title-page of the King John Quarto, 1611, in a copy found in the Shapleigh library. It is all very complicated "fooling," and such as only the wise can find extravagantly laughable nonsense. It is refreshing for the laity to observe the names of the Boston local antiquaries figuring seriously in such an escapade of learning.

The second volume of Messrs. McGibbon & Ross's 'Castellated and Domestic Architecture of Scotland' ends the work by bringing their history down to the beginning of the eighteenth century, in the full and careful manner of the first volume, which was noticed a few weeks ago in the *Nation* (No. 1135, March 31, 1887). Their researches bring out an immense number of castles still standing, in better or worse preservation. The surprise which the reader feels in looking through their descriptions of two hundred and fifty of these castles grows to amazement when he sees subjoined a list of seven or eight hundred more which have been omitted, till he begins to wonder whether the whole mediæval population of Scotland lived in castles. The authors are willing, if they can procure the necessary information, to publish a complete guide-book, or *catalogue raisonné*, of all the ancient domestic architecture of Scotland. We hope it may be done.

In the fifth series of the Johns Hopkins Historical Studies an account of the city government of St. Louis is furnished by Prof. Marshall S. Snow. It is a rather slight production, the period prior to 1875 being disposed of in ten pages, while that subsequent occupies but twenty-five. Bulk is given to the pamphlet by the addition of more than twenty pages of advertisements. It would appear from this sketch that, until within four or five years, there were no paved streets in St. Louis. The chief peculiarity of the present charter seems to be the provision "by which the important offices filled by the Mayor's appointment are not vacant until the beginning of the third year of his term of his office, so that, as rewards for political work done during a heated campaign, they are too far in the dim distance to prejudice seriously the merits of an election." We should apprehend that this provision would also destroy all responsibility, especially as the appointments of the Mayor must be confirmed by the Council. The Police Commissioners are appointed by the Governor of the State, but the Mayor is *ex-officio* a member of the Board.

The June number of the *Book-buyer* contains an engraved likeness of H. Rider Haggard.

A new weekly critical review of literature and art is projected to be published in Boston, with the name (probably) of the *Twentieth Century*. The editors and promoters are largely Boston journalists; Mr. Ralph Adams Cram, art editor of the Boston *Transcript*, being manager.

In the *American Architect* for May 28 Mr. Sylvester Baxter describes with great particularity, and with the aid of numerous illustrations, the remarkable collection of Japanese pottery owned by Prof. Edward S. Morse of Salem, Mass. One of the two rooms in which it is stored is also shown in a general (heliotype) view.

Archbishop Theodore of Canterbury (669 to 690) organized an annual church assembly to be held at Clovesho, "a now forgotten place," says Stubbs (i., p. 231), "in the Mercian kingdom, probably near London." The much-disputed situation of this place appears, from a contribution by C. R. Manning to *East Anglia* for May, to have been determined at last by Mr. E. J. L. Scott of the British Museum. He has discovered some charters of the time of Henry III., relating to the parish of Mildenhall, Suffolk, and finds the name in question twice, as belonging to a portion of that parish—*ad viam Clouenhoe* and *in campo de Clouenhowe*, while allusions to "the old road," "the four roads," etc., show the neighborhood of a Roman road where four ways met. "The 'howe' was, no doubt, a hillock at the 'cloven' ways, where open-air meetings of the Synods of the Saxon Church might be held." There is no trace of the existence of the name at present at Mildenhall. Lying "in the wild heath land on the Ely side of that extensive parish, near the borders of the Mercian kingdom, and within easy reach of the Bishops of Dunwich and Elmham," "such a border tract, a no-man's land, was the very place for such a meeting."

L'Art for May 1 (Macmillan) opens with a first notice of the Salon. It is mostly taken up with unmitigated censure of M. Puvis de Chavannes, and his "toile kilométrique," "Le Soir de la Vie." A few words of hearty praise are given at the end to M. Lucien Laurent-Gsell's "Le Premier Septembre." The artist is a nephew of M. Pasteur, and his picture represents the vaccination of a young child for rabies. Two fragments of it are reproduced in *L'Art*, including the full-length figure of the savant whose claims are still so much in dispute; and they justify a favorable opinion of the design. Specimens of the engraving of the lamented François Gaillard give a further value to this number.

A population map of Ceylon, in the latest Proceedings of the Berlin Geographical Society (vol. xiv, No. 4) accompanies a discourse on this ever interesting island by Dr. F. Sarasin, who, together with a relative, traversed Ceylon in every direction for two and a half years in pursuit of zoölogical inquiry. The prosperity of the coffee-growing period has not been overtaken, since the blight in the seventies, by tea, cacao, or quinine planting, or by rice culture with the help of the repaired Singhalese tanks. For the hunter and the naturalist, Ceylon is still a paradise. Dr. Sarasin tells of the scanty reverence shown by the Veddahs for the bones of their nearest kindred, which they barely inter, and the removal of which by our scientists charmed them as saving the toil of fresh grave-digging. An extraordinary resemblance between the Veddahs and the negroes of Australia is manifest in a comparison of photographs of both races; but the question is a moot one, and an appeal must be taken to the bones.

The second number of the Supplement to Brockhaus's Conversations-Lexikon contains extended articles on Asia and Bacteria, illustrated with a colored plate. It ends with a notice of the late Dr. Geo. M. Beard of this city, and a list of his works.

The Biblioteca Nazionale Centrale di Firenze, having published a *Bolletino* of Italian works received by it during 1886, has now issued a "Tavola sinottica" (pp. 97–120) showing which of them are to be found in twenty-six other public libraries of Italy. The method is simple and compendious. The titles in the *Bolletino* were numbered from 1 to 11,068. Against these same numbers are now set down the initials of the libraries which also have the work. If no library has a particular work, its number is omitted from the list.

The story of Savonarola possesses undying interest, and it is only necessary for us to indicate to students that the classic 'Storia di Girolamo Savonarola e de' suoi tempi,' by Signore Pasquale Villari, has received at his hands a thorough revision, bringing it up to a level with the latest researches made by himself and other scholars. The first volume has just seen the light in Florence, and the second, it is to be hoped, will not be long delayed. For twenty-five years the book has been universally known as the fullest and most accurate account of the meteoric career of Frà Girolamo, and the sources of information have now been so thoroughly explored that, in view of the conscientious labor bestowed on the new edition, we may safely predict that it will not be superseded.

MM. Anatole Cerfberr and Jules Christophe have made an index to Balzac's works, containing a biography of all the characters that figure in the 'Comédie humaine,' indicating the relations they bear to each other and their points of contact. This is published under the title 'Répertoire de la Comédie humaine' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof). It is uniform with the complete octavo edition in twenty-four volumes published by the same house, and has an introduction by M. Paul Bourget. All those who have tried to follow a personage of Balzac through the maze of his semi-connected novels will be glad of this publication.

We have had occasion several times of late to call attention to very cheap series of French books. The new collection entitled "Auteurs célèbres," begun by Marpon & Flammarion, Paris (Boston: Schoenhof), promises to be one that will provide readers of French with some of the best productions of contemporary authors. It is published at sixty centimes a volume, and there have already appeared in it Zola's 'Thérèse Raquin,' Malot's 'Une bonne Affaire,' Theuriet's 'Le Mariage de Gérard,' Eugène Chavette's 'La Belle Alliette,' etc. Among others is Daudet's 'La Belle-Nivernaise,' with all the illustrations of the ten-franc edition, and the addition of five of the same author's charming southern French legends, the whole forming a neat volume of 250 pages, very clearly printed.

A series of studies upon the literary, artistic, and other celebrities of the Romantic movement in France is about to be begun by the Paris publishers, Ed. Monnier & Cie., under the general title, 'L'Âge du romantisme.' These are to appear in weekly quarto numbers of twelve pages, with portraits, etchings, lithographs in black and colors, both in the text and separately, and reproductions of rare or unpublished vignettes of the period. M. Philippe Burty will have the direction of the *critique artistique*, and M. Maurice Tourneux of the *critique littéraire*. The first of the weekly numbers has just been published—'Célestin Nanteuil,' by M. Th. Burty; the second was announced to appear June 1—'Gérard de Nerval,' by M. Maurice Tourneux, both with portraits and numerous illustrations. If the publication cannot be considered an exclusively artistic work, it will at least be a very luxurious, instructive, and curious one in both an artistic and a literary sense. At the same time with these studies of the celebrities of the period the publishers will issue some of the characteristic works of the times, reproductions of original edi-

tions, with illustrations and explanations of all kinds. The first of these, which is now in preparation, is 'La Bohème galante' of Gérard de Nerval, a large 8vo volume with more than forty engravings in black and in colors of "pièces uniques, inédites et rares."

On the 16th of May there was sold by auction at the Hôtel Drouot in Paris, for 5,500 francs, an autograph manuscript History of Corsica by the Emperor Napoleon I. It was written in 1790, during a leave of absence spent at Ajaccio. It consists of eight large folio pages of two columns each, in a very fine and compressed writing, making an account of considerable length. The manuscript contains many erasures, corrections, and changes, which add to its interest by enabling the reader to follow the youthful author in the composition of his work.

Apropos of the letter from Germany on another page, our readers may like to be reminded that any person can become a member of the Goethe Gesellschaft by sending ten marks to the treasurer, Dr. Moritz, at Weimar. For this sum annually renewed, they get the *Jahrbuch* and at least one publication—*e. g.*, this year the interesting album described by our correspondent. Members are also privileged to buy the Goethe edition at reduced rates. *Per contra*, American members will be called upon to pay a little duty at the post-office, and this, as usual, will contribute to the public sentiment that will ultimately sweep away the barbarous tariff on books.

Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, sends us a panel portrait of the late Richard Newton, D.D., of Philadelphia, that will commend itself to the friends of this well-known clergyman. It possesses the customary excellence of Mr. Gutekunst's photographic work.

The nineteenth annual session of the American Philological Association will be held at Burlington, Vermont, in the Marsh Room of the Billings Library of the University of Vermont, beginning Tuesday, July 12, 1887, at 3 o'clock P. M. Members intending to be present are requested to send their names to Prof. William H. Deering (Burlington, Vt.), Secretary of the Local Committee, as early as possible.

The Deerfield (Mass.) Summer School of History and Romance, begun experimentally in 1886, will attempt this year a permanent organization. Its lectures will open on July 16 with one by G. W. Cable on "Fiction as a Vehicle for Truth." Sessions will be held on Wednesdays and Saturdays, beginning July 13 and ending August 27. Address L. J. B. Lincoln, Deerfield.

—We find in the *Revue Bleue* for May 21 the most interesting and important announcement for students of French literature that has appeared for many years. Under the general title, 'Les Grands écrivains français,' the Paris house of Hachette is about to issue a series of studies upon the lives, the works, and the influence of the principal authors of France, by some of the first writers of the day. The selections of subjects and essayists in this "French Men of Letters" series are so felicitous that it would almost seem as if some one had amused himself by making out an ideal list. M. Ferdinand Brunetière is to write upon Boileau and Voltaire; M. Jules Lemaitre upon Alfred de Musset; M. Paul Bourget upon Balzac; M. Anatole France upon Racine; M. de Pomairols upon Lamartine; M. E. M. de Vogüé upon Joseph de Maistre. These are subjects to bring out all the best qualities of the writers, who are in every case especially sympathetic with the author of whom they will treat, and to show at the same time the delicacy and the depth of their critical appreciations. The volume on Montesquieu is to be by the historian of the French Revolution, M. Albert Sorel; that on Guizot by M. G. Monod of the *Revue Historique* and the *Revue Critique;* that on Agrippa d'Aubigné by M. Guillaume Guizot; Turgot by M. Léon Say; Victor Cousin by M. Jules Simon; and what a delightful volume he will make of it every one must know who has read his articles upon Cousin in the *Journal des Débats* for the last year or two. Other philosophical writers who will contribute to the series are M. Ernest Havet, who will write on Pascal, his special subject; M. Gaston Boissier on Mme. de Sévigné; M. E. Caro, who has already published at least one interesting article on the same subject, on George Sand.

—One of the most brilliant numbers of the series will be the Rousseau of M. Victor Cherbuliez, whose few slight external similarities of position would not seem to counterbalance his profound mental and moral unlikeness to his famous compatriot. The subject, however, lends itself readily to the malicious gayety of the usual manner of M. Cherbuliez, and his volume will certainly be a novel and interesting treatment of the author of the 'Contrat Social.' Again, the gratitude of all who are interested in French literature is due to the house of Hachette for inducing M. Taine to lay aside his historical work long enough to produce the volume promised from him on Sainte-Beuve, which will be awaited with more eager expectation by many than any other in the long list announced. The Villon of M. Gaston Paris is also an unexpected pleasure, although he has been busied with the poet for some time and has recently been lecturing upon the subject. He so seldom steps aside from the paths of pure erudition that such a work as this will be doubly welcome. Only once before, in the volume of short essays collected under the title 'La poésie du moyen âge' (noticed in the *Nation* for June 18, 1885), has he published anything specially addressed to the general reader. The little notice in the *Revue Bleue* speaks of the works we have mentioned as "actually in press or almost completed," and this is only the beginning of the series.

—All Shaksperians are glad to hear of a new booklet, however small, by Halliwell-Phillipps. His last issue, "for private circulation and presents only," seems to have been called forth by the strange discovery of Shakspere's title-deeds "in a family mansion near Shrewsbury." Accident having unearthed these papers, that had been given up for lost, Mr. Phillipps's faith redoubled that other unexpected finds concerning the personality of Shakspere would reward research in unexplored recesses, and especially in places visited by the itinerant theatrical company of which it is known that Shakspere was for twenty years a member. Napoleon and his staff, fording an arm of the Red Sea after dark, got beyond their depth. They might have perished had not their chief, halting his own horse, ordered his officers to swim theirs in lines radiating in every direction from him as a centre. Of course some of them soon struck land. Mr. Phillipps has for twenty years made thorough search through a radius of forty miles around Stratford, but now calls for co-workers to do likewise in fresh fields and pastures new beyond that limit. As a guide to those who shall undertake such a labor of love, he has published 'Shakspere's Tours,' or the visits of the company of actors to which it is certain that he belonged for twenty years, to the provincial cities and towns of England. The places thus visited were fifteen, and the number of visits no less than thirty-five. The date of each visit, the sums presented to the players by the local magistrates, and various other particulars, are given in extracts from corporate records. In research concerning English theatrical itineracy, Mr. Phillipps discovers that dramatic entertainments were prevalent during Shakspere's youth to such a degree as would naturally develop his dramatic genius. Sir Thomas Lucy is commonly thought to have been only an unconscious patron of the drama, and that through his driving Shakspere as a suspected poacher to take refuge in London. But, as Mr. Phillipps has shown, he had been patron of a body of itinerant actors who went by the name of "Sir Thomas Lucy's players," before Shakspere was twenty years old. Mr. Phillipps rejoices in having just come across a legal document in Worcestershire which appears to throw a side light on Shakspere's ancestry, and says that 30,000 documents in the Probate Court there still demand examination. As actors were always getting into trouble with local authorities, there is room to hope the investigators on the lines Mr. Phillipps points out may light upon a deposition attested by Shakspere himself—nay, why not some *rencontre* of the poet with the original *Dogberry?* Mr. Phillipps has the more reason for such hopes since the indisputable evidence he has gained that Will Squele of Cotswold and Stephen Sly of Stratford-on-Avon were veritable contemporaries and neighbors of the great dramatist.

—The remarkable portrait of Count Tolstoi which is the frontispiece of the June *Century*, bears the look of the religious dreamer to a degree that makes it seem less satisfactory, in point of naturalness, than those which have already made his features familiar to his readers here. It illustrates a very interesting account of a visit to him by George Kennan, who went on the humorously incongruous errand of carrying Nihilistic literature to the prophet of non-resistance, with a view to engage him in the cause. The article is much broader in scope than a mere sketch of Tolstoi's surroundings and personality, and sets him against the whole Russian background of suppressed revolution, the peasant-nature, the Church, and other great elements of society there, so effectively as to make his position more intelligible in its practical relations. Mr. Kennan writes from the point of view of a hard-headed American, who is interested by the audacity of Tolstoi's convictions, and nonplussed by the simplicity with which he accepts impossible conclusions; but he succeeds in giving a life-like impression of the man and something of his spirit. Tolstoi told the incident of his trying to intercede with the Czar for the prisoners who killed his father—an act which, perhaps, exhibits his character more strikingly than any other; but the Procureur refused to deliver his letter, in a reply which Tolstoi called "terrible." It is worth noting that on the subject of Darwinism he remarked that he was not well informed, but he had been told "that a Russian scientist named Danilefski has written a book which will completely demolish the Darwinian theory." Mr. Kennan dropped the topic. In the second paper of Prof. Atwater upon the Food Question he takes occasion to explode the error that fish is distinctively brain-food because of its proportion of phosphorus, though on other accounts he recommends it to sedentary persons. Mr. Munger contributes a readable reactionary article on Education, thickly studded with half-truths.

—The *Saturday Review*, noting that last year Carl Rosa did not produce a single opera of Wagner's, not even "Lohengrin," which he has just revived with so much success, adds that "even in Germany the only operas of Wagner which still seem to interest the public are 'Lohengrin,' the 'Walkyrie,' and 'Tristan und Isolde.'" On what preposterous ignorance, if not deliberate desire to misinform the reader, this statement is based, may be interred by referring to the statistical tables printed in Kürschner's 'Richard Wagner Jahrbuch,' pages 460-465. It is there shown that in twenty-eight German towns and

cities, during 1885, "Rienzi" had 24 performances, the "Flying Dutchman" 73, "Tannhäuser" 109, "Lohengrin" 123, "Tristan" 25, "Meistersinger" 48, "Rheingold" 22, "Walküre" 71, "Siegfried" 19, "Götterdämmerung" 10. No other composer reached a figure as high as "Lohengrin" and "Tannhäuser." Bizet comes next with 105 for "Carmen." Then come Beethoven's "Fidelio," 94; Verdi's "Trovatore," 92; Weber's "Freischütz," 88; Meyerbeer's "Huguenots," 82; Flotow's "Martha," 72; Mozart's "Don Juan," 71; Rossini's "Barber," 68, etc. Nessler's "Trompeter von Säkkingen," which had 300 performances, is omitted from this list because it is a work of the flimsiest kind, which owes its vogue entirely to the popularity of the poem on which it is based, and which, there is not the least risk in predicting, will have entirely disappeared from the repertory in five years.

—The *Gazette Anecdotique, Littéraire, Artistique et Bibliographique* (Paris, Librairie des Bibliophiles; New York: Duprat & Co.) is far from being as well known here as it deserves to be, although it is now in its twelfth year. It is a little mine of information for matters literary, theatrical, and artistic in France. It is especially what the first adjective in its title indicates, anecdotical, with no long criticisms of books, etc., but with much chit-chat about authors, artists, and others and their latest productions. That it is under the direction of M. G. D'Heylli is a sufficient guarantee for the taste displayed in what may be called personal revelations. The *Gazette* is published with the *concours* of prominent men of letters, fourteen of whose names are given in the title-page with an *etc.* To convey a correct idea of the publication it must be added that there are in it a couple of pages, headed "Les mots de la quinzaine," filled with a selection of the brightest, if not always the most proper, clever sayings culled from such papers as the *Gil Blas*, the *Événement*, and others not specially noted for their prudery. These pages are entirely different from the rest of the magazine, which really contains many of the most interesting items of a light literary character that could be learned only by reading a great number of daily papers. The *Gazette Anecdotique* is printed with a great deal of taste, as are all Jouaust's publications. There are two numbers a month, each of thirty-two pages, very small octavo. From the issue of April 30 we learn that the "Mme. X.——" to whom so many love letters are addressed in Flaubert's correspondence, of which the first volume was noticed in the *Nation*, was no other than Mme. Louise Colet. The letters were written in the years 1846 and '47, she being then thirty-six years of age and he twenty-five. This lady acquired a rather unenviable notoriety through the attacks of Alphonse Karr, Barbey d'Aurevilly, and others, and in 1859 she published her novel entitled 'Lui,' thereby playing her part in the George Sand-Musset controversy called up by the publication of 'Elle et Lui.' It seems that about twelve years ago Flaubert was informed that Mme. Colet was about to publish the whole correspondence that had been exchanged between him and his "tenth muse." Terrified by this prospect, he immediately sent to the editor, Dentu, to put a stop to the publication. What his posthumous feelings would be at the present bringing to light of his not very interesting effusions of tenderness, we may imagine from a fragment of an unedited letter, dated 1877, quoted by the *Gazette:* "Du Camp and I," he writes to a friend, "have just burned all our letters, not wishing for anything in the world that they should be published after our death."

—Adolphe Racot, the novelist and brilliant writer for the Paris press, died about the middle of May in the hospital of Sainte-Anne, where he had been taken two weeks before, suffering under a sudden acute attack of mania. He was only forty-six years old, and in the midst of the most active literary labors. As a journalist he was best known by his long connection, beginning in 1875, with the *Gazette de France*, for which, under the signature of "Dancourt," he wrote the "Courrier de Paris," and, later, the weekly dramatic feuilleton. He was also connected with the *Figaro* for almost ten years, and with various other newspapers and periodicals. Readers of *Le Livre* will remember his very interesting articles upon Buloz, Gustave Planche, etc. He was for a long time one of the *collaborateurs* of the 'Grand dictionnaire universel du XIXe siècle,' of Larousse, for which he wrote literary, historical, and archæological articles. Racot was one of the earliest French writers to show the influence of the Russian novelists, in a powerful book which appeared in 1885, 'Le Crime de Darius Fal.' Since then he has published two other excellent novels, one of which, 'La Brèche aux loups' (Paris: Librairie Moderne; Boston: Schoenhof), received from the Académie Française, May 17, at the last distribution of the fund for the Montyon prizes for literary works "utiles aux mœurs," the highest prize given to works of fiction at the distribution of this year, 1,500 francs. The other, published at the beginning of the year, 'Le Capitaine muet' (Paris: Jules Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof), is a very successful attempt to revive the historical romance of adventure of Alexander Dumas. In this the scene is laid in the time of Charles IX., and the House of Guise is opposed to that of Valois in France, Flemings to Spaniards in Flanders, and Protestants to Catholics throughout the story, with a brilliancy and unexpectedness worthy of the great Alexander.

MORE SCHUMANN LETTERS.

Robert Schumann's Briefe. Neue Folge. Herausgegeben von F. G. Jansen. Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel.

THIRTY years having elapsed since the death of Schumann, the copyright on his compositions has expired, and the market has in consequence been flooded with cheap editions of his works—a circumstance which cannot but exert a most wholesome and quickening effect on the progress of musical culture. The best edition is still that of the original publishers of most of Schumann's works—Breitkopf & Härtel—since it has the benefit of a careful revision by the composer's widow and other famous musicians. The same publishers a year ago issued a collection of Schumann's letters, covering the period from 1827 to 1840, of which a second edition has already been called for; and this favorable reception has promoted the publication of a new series, extending to 1854, two years before Schumann's sad death in the lunatic asylum near Bonn. The present collection includes a considerable number of business letters to his several publishers. In one of these he confides to Dr. Härtel his plan of collecting and revising his musical criticisms, and publishing them in two volumes. But as this letter was, a few months later, followed by a similar one addressed to the publisher Wigand, who subsequently printed the essays, it is to be inferred that Breitkopf & Härtel, though assured of the future of Schumann's compositions, doubted the financial value of his musical essays—an attitude pardonable at a time when there was still a ludicrous popular prejudice against literary utterances by a musician. In 1883, however, after Wigand had issued a third edition of the 'Collected Writings on Music and Musicians' (which have also been translated into English by Mrs. Ritter), Breitkopf & Härtel atoned for their error by purchasing the copyright.

Schumann's letters to his publishers show that he used to suggest his own terms, which were commonly acceded to without protest. For his famous quintet he asked twenty louis d'or, or about $100; for "Paradise and the Peri," $500; the piano concerto, $125; Liederalbum, op. 79, $200; "Manfred," $250. He frequently emphasizes his desire to have his compositions printed in an attractive style, and in 1839 writes to Härtel that he cannot describe his pleasure on receiving the "Scenes of Childhood": "It is the most charming specimen of musical typography I have ever seen." The few misprints he discovers in it he frankly attributes to his MS. In a letter to his friend Rosen he writes that "it must be a deucedly comic pleasure to read my Sanskrit." But his musical handwriting appears to have been nearer to Sanskrit than his epistolary, if we may judge by the specimen facsimiles printed in Naumann's 'History of Music.'

The promptness with which all the leading music publishers of Germany have issued complete editions of Schumann's vocal and pianoforte compositions, shows how profitable they must be. But during his lifetime it was quite otherwise, and in a letter to Kossmaly he adduces the following four reasons for this state of affairs: "(1) inherent difficulties of form and contents; (2) because, not being a virtuoso, I cannot perform them in public; (3) because I am the editor of my musical paper, in which I could not allude to them; (4) because Fink is editor of the other paper, and would not allude to them." Elsewhere he remarks, concerning this rival editor: "It is really most contemptible on Fink's part not to have mentioned a single one of my pianoforte compositions in nine [seven] years, although they are always of such a character that it is impossible to overlook them. It is not for my name's sake that I am annoyed, but because I know what the future course of music is to be." It was in behalf of this tendency that he toiled on his paper, which at first barely paid its expenses, having only 500 subscribers several years after its foundation. And he not only avoided puffing his own compositions, but even inserted a contribution by his friend Kossmaly in which he was placed in the second rank of vocal composers! Yet, though he printed the article, he complains about it in a private letter: "In your article on the Lied, I was a little grieved that you placed me in the *second* class. I do not lay claim to the first; but I think I have a claim to a place of *my own*, and least of all do I wish to see myself associated with Reissiger, Curschmann, etc. I know that my aims, my resources, are far beyond theirs, and I hope you will concede this and not accuse me of vanity, which is far from me."

Many of the letters in the present collection are concerned with the affairs of Schumann's paper, the *Neue Zeitschrift für Musik*, detailing his plans for removing it to a larger city than Leipzig, and the atrocious red-tape difficulties and delays he was subjected to when he finally did transfer it to Vienna. Although the paper was exclusively devoted to music, the *Censur* apparently took three or four months to make up its mind whether the state was in danger or not from the immigration of a new musical periodical. The editor confesses that he did not find as much sympathy as he had expected in Vienna; yet the city—as he writes some years later at Düsseldorf—"continues to attract one, as if the spirits of the departed great masters were still visible, and as if it were the real musical home of Germany." "Eating and drinking here are incomparable. You would be delighted with the Opera. Such singers and such an ensemble we do not have." "The admirable Opera is a great treat for me, especially the chorus and orchestra. Of such things we have *no conception* in Leipzig. The ballet would also amuse you." "A more encou-

raging public it would be difficult to find anywhere; it is really too encouraging—in the theatre one hears more applause than music. It is very merry, but it annoys me occasionally." "But I assure you confidentially that long and alone I should not care to live here; serious men and affairs are here in little demand and little appreciated. A compensation for this is found in the beautiful surroundings. Yesterday I was in the cemetery where Beethoven and Schubert are buried. Just think what I found on Beethoven's grave: *a pen*, and, what is more, a steel pen. It was a happy omen for me, and I shall preserve it religiously." On Schubert's grave he found nothing, but in the city he found Schubert's brother, a poor man with eight children and no possessions but a number of his brother's manuscripts, including "a few operas, four great masses, four or five symphonies, and many other things." He immediately wrote to Breitkopf & Härtel to make arrangements for their publication.

It is anything but complimentary to the discernment of the Viennese publishers and musicians of that period that, eleven years after Schubert's death, another composer had to come from Leipzig and give to the world the works of a colleague who not only had genius of the purest water, but the gift of giving utterance to his musical ideas in a clear style, intelligible to the public. Schubert died in 1828, and in 1842 Schumann could still write to one of his contributors: "It is time, it seems to me, that some one should write something weighty in behalf of Schubert; doesn't this tempt you? True, his larger works are not yet in print. But his vocal and pianoforte compositions suffice for an approximate portrait. Consider the matter. Do you know his symphony in C? A delightful composition, somewhat long, but extraordinarily animated, in character entirely new." To a Belgian friend who intended to write an article on the new tendencies in pianoforte music, he wrote: "Of older composers who have influenced modern music I must name above all Franz Schubert. . . . Schubert's songs are well known, but his pianoforte compositions (especially those for four hands) I rate at least equally high."

Of the numerous criticisms of well-known composers contained in this correspondence, a few more may be cited. They are mostly favorable in tone, but concerning the "Prophète" he writes: "The music appears to me very poor; I cannot find words to express my aversion to it." "Lortzing's operas meet with success—to me almost incomprehensible." To Carl Reinecke he writes that he is "no friend of song-transcriptions (for piano), and of Liszt's some are a real abomination to me." He commends Reinecke's efforts in this direction because they are free from pepper and sauce *à la* Liszt. Nevertheless, those of Liszt's song-transcriptions in which he did not indulge in too much bravura ornamentation are models of musical translation, and the collection of forty-two songs published by Breitkopf & Härtel should be in every pianist's library. "Of Chopin," he writes in 1836, "I have a new ballad [G minor]. It seems to me to be his most enchanting (though not most *genial*) work; I told him, too, that I liked it best of all his compositions. After a long pause and reflection he said: 'I am glad you think so, it is also my favorite.' He also played for me a number of new études, nocturnes, mazurkas—everything in an incomparable style. It is touching to see him at the piano. You would be very fond of him. Yet Clara is more of a *virtuoso*, and gives almost more significance to his compositions than he does himself."

Brendel having sent him some of Palestrina's music, he writes that "it really sounds sometimes like music of the spheres—and what art at the same time! I am convinced he is the greatest musical genius Italy has produced." Nineteen years previous to this he had written from Brescia: "Were not the Italian language itself a kind of eternal music (the Count aptly called it a long-drawn-out A-minor chord), I should not hear anything rational. Of the ardor with which they play, you can form no more conception than of their slovenliness and lack of elegance and precision." Handel appears to be mentioned only once in all of Schumann's correspondence ("I consider 'Israel in Egypt' the ideal of a choral work"); but Bach is always on his tongue. The following is one of the profoundest criticisms ever written: "Mozart and Haydn knew of Bach only a few pages and passages, and the effect which Bach, if they had known him in all his greatness, would have had on them, is incalculable. The harmonic depth, the poetic and humorous qualities of modern music have their source chiefly in Bach: Mendelssohn, Bennett, Chopin, Hiller, all the so-called Romanticists (I mean those of the German school) *approximate in their music much closer to Bach than to Mozart*."

To Wagner there are several references, betraying a most remarkable struggle between critical honesty and professional jealousy. Thus, in 1845, Schumann writes to Mendelssohn of "Tannhäuser":

"Wagner has just finished a new opera—no doubt, a clever fellow, full of eccentric notions, and bold beyond measure. The aristocracy is still in raptures over him on account of his 'Rienzi,' but in reality he cannot conceive or write four consecutive bars of good or even correct music. What all these composers lack is the art of writing pure harmonies and four-part choruses. The music is not a straw better than that of 'Rienzi,' rather weaker, more artificial! But if I should write this I should be accused of envy, hence I say it only to you, as I am aware that you have known all this a long time."

But in another letter to Mendelssohn, written three weeks later, he recants:

"*I must take back* much of what I wrote regarding 'Tannhäuser,' after reading the score; on the stage the effect is quite different. I was deeply moved by many parts."

And to Heinrich Dorn he writes a few weeks after this:

"I wish you could see Wagner's 'Tannhäuser.' It contains profound and original ideas, and is *a hundred times better* than his previous operas, though some of the music is trivial. In a word, he may become of great importance to the stage, and, so far as I know him, he has the requisite courage. The technical part, the instrumentation, I find excellent, incomparably more masterly than formerly."

Nevertheless, seven years later still, he once more returns to the attack, and declares that Wagner's music, "apart from the performance, is simply amateurish, void of contents, and disagreeable; and it is a sad proof of corrupt taste that, in the face of the many dramatic master-works which Germany has produced, some persons have the presumption to belittle these in favor of Wagner's. Yet enough of this. The future will pronounce judgment in this matter, too." Poor Schumann! His own opera, "Genoveva," was a failure, while "Tannhäuser" and "Lohengrin" were everywhere received with enthusiasm. This was a quarter of a century ago; and the future *has* judged.

What caused the failure of Schumann's only opera was not a lack of dramatic genius, but of theatrical instinct. He believed that in "Genoveva" "every bar is thoroughly dramatic"; and so it is, as might have been expected of the composer of such an intensely emotional and passionate song as "Ich grolle nicht" and many others. But Schubert, too, could write such thrilling five-minute dramas as the "Erlking" and the "Doppelgänger" without being able to compose a successful opera. Like Schumann, he could not paint *al fresco*, could not command that bolder and broader sweep which is required of an operatic composer. It is characteristic of Schumann that he did not write an opera till late in life, whereas born operatic composers have commonly begun their career with their specialty.* Indeed, it was only ten years before he composed his opera that Schumann wrote to a friend: "You ought to write more for the voice. Or are you, perhaps, like myself, who have all my life placed vocal music below instrumental, and never considered it a great art? But don't speak to any one about this." Oddly enough, less than a year after this he writes to another friend: "At present I write only vocal pieces. . . . I can hardly tell you what a delight it is to write for the voice as compared with instruments, and how it throbs and rages within me when I am at work. Entirely new things have been revealed to me, and I am thinking of writing an opera, which, however, will not be possible until I have entirely freed myself from editorial work."

Like other vocal composers, Schumann suffered much from the lack of suitable texts. In one letter he suggests that Lenau might perhaps be induced to write a few poems for composers, to be printed in the *Zeitschrift:* "the composers are thirsting for texts." In several other letters we become familiar with some of his plans which were never executed, owing, apparently, to the shortcomings of the librettists. One of these was R. Pohl, who in all seriousness sent Schumann a *serious* text in which *the moon* was introduced as one of the vocalists! Schumann mildly remonstrated that "to conceive of the moon as a person, especially as singing, would be too risky." So the project of "Ritter Mond" was abandoned, and it is to be regretted that Schumann did not reject his "Genoveva" libretto, which was largely responsible for the failure of the opera. In general he realized fully the immense importance of having a good text, not only for its intrinsic beauty, but because of its inspiring effect on the composer's creative powers. Thus he writes in regard to his "Faust": "The general impression it made seemed to me a good one, and surpassing that of the 'Peri,' presumably in consequence of the superior grandeur of the poem, which roused me, too, to a greater exertion of my strength."

One project of Schumann's is mentioned which it is to be very much regretted he never carried out. "I am at present [1840] preparing an essay on Shakspere's relations to music, his utterances and views, the manner in which he introduces music in his dramas, etc., etc.—an exceedingly fertile and attractive theme, the execution of which would, it is true, require some time, as I should have to read the whole of Shakspere's works for this purpose." His object was to send this to Jena as a dissertation for a Doctor's degree, with which he hoped to soften the heart of the obdurate Wieck, who opposed his marriage with Clara, and at the same time to make an impression on the public. Schumann had had painful experience of the fact that for genius itself there is little recognition in Germany unless it has a handle to its name—a "von" or a "Herr Doctor." Clara, however, loved him for his genius, and for the impassioned pieces and songs he wrote to express his admiration of her and of woman in general; and, like other German men of genius, he had his reward—after death. "No tone poet," says Naumann, "has been more enthusiastic in the praise of woman than Robert Schumann; he was a second Frauenlob. This was acknowledged by the maidens of Bonn, who, at his interment, filled the cemetery, and crowned his tomb with innumerable garlands."

RECENT LAW BOOKS.

AMERICAN readers will welcome the translation of Dr. von Holst's 'Constitutional Law of the United States of America' (Chicago: Callaghan & Co.). The author apologizes for consenting to its appearance in this country. It is, he says, but a sketch, written as part of a larger book for German readers—Marquardsen's 'Handbuch des Oeffentlichen Rechts.' He was limited, moreover, to a very inadequate space, and had to compress his material unduly, and wholly to throw out much; and "my only literary resources were my private library and the notes previously taken in the British Museum and American libraries." These explanations are, indeed, helpful in getting at the right point of view for judging of the book. But the reader will, after all, wonder at the extent and accuracy of the writer's knowledge and the general justness of his observations. Three "Parts" on the "Genesis of the Constitution," "The Federal Constitution," and the "Constitutional and General Law of the Separate States," fill up the three hundred pages and more which compose the volume; the second part takes up more than two-thirds of the whole.

From a pretty careful examination of this volume we are inclined to think it one of the best brief accounts of our constitutional system that have been published. It has the sort of merit that is usually found in the comments of a competent foreign observer upon the institutions of any country. Things that attract little attention, and so are often not at all remarked or understood by those who live under a given system, strike a stranger with the charm of novelty; they are tacitly compared with other institutions, and their true character is often more keenly perceived and brought out by such observers than by any others. De Tocqueville's book, parts of Prof. Dicey on 'The Law of the Constitution,' and such a treatise as Cottu on the 'Administration of Criminal Justice in England,' are instances of this. Much of this sort of merit is found in this little book by Von Holst. An illustration of it may be seen in his striking note at pp. 136, 137, on the Indians. "The first cause of the failures and mistakes," he keenly remarks, and it is as true to-day as it ever was, "has been in no small degree the lack of knowledge of and care for the fundamental question of Law." It is a shrewd remark that "the constitutional law as to the obligation of contracts made by legislation is still in embryo, despite the numberless decisions upon it." The merits and the true bearing of the excellent proposal to bring the Cabinet officers on the floor of Congress are well recognized and stated. The limitations upon the power of courts, in judging of the constitutionality of legislation, are more keenly discerned by Von Holst than they are by some of our own writers. The fulness of the statistics in regard to various important topics is very satisfactory. We have observed but few errors; the author is not accurate in some of his statements about the legal-tender cases in the somewhat ill-judged note on p. 62. And it is a very misleading statement on p. 231 that "Unquestionably Congress can as little impair the obligation of contracts as a State." No court could declare a law of Congress unconstitutional merely upon the ground that it impaired the obligation of a contract. There is sometimes a certain vagueness and lack of confidence in our author's manner of discussing controverted questions, *e. g.*, as regards the subject last mentioned, which is probably traceable to the circumstances under which his essay was composed.

Mr. Henry Campbell Black's 'Essay on the Constitutional Prohibitions against Legislation Impairing the Obligation of Contracts, and against Retroactive and Ex-post-facto Laws' (Little, Brown & Co.), is a small octavo of a little more than three hundred pages, containing a careful statement of the law on the topics named. It is a good and conscientious piece of work, and will be found useful in any examination of the difficult subjects of which it treats. The term "essay" is not particularly descriptive of the book. The author raises the hopes of his readers higher than the performance justifies when he says, "The historical method of treatment has been adopted wherever practicable." But perhaps he did not intend by this term to indicate the development of his subject by a consideration of the cases in the order of time. Mr. Black might, with advantage, impart to his discussions a little of that vigorous criticism of the judges which gave value to Pomeroy's books. He lets them off altogether too easily. But, with all drawbacks, it is a very good book.

Mr. Webster Elmes's 'Treatise on the Law of the Customs' (Little, Brown & Co.) is a book of a good deal of merit, and deals with a subject of much importance on which there is no recent treatise; indeed, the author hardly goes too far when he says that his book "enters upon a new field of legal exposition and is comparatively a pioneer undertaking," for, as he truly adds, "the work of Mr. Andrews, published over a quarter of a century ago, although a standard work at the time, dealt with the subject at a period when, unlike the present, the field of research was of limited extent." It can hardly be called a field of unlimited extent now; but the enormous growth of business during the last generation, and the influence of our barbarous customs legislation, have vastly swollen the volume of controversy and of litigation. Not merely lawyers, but merchants and importers, will find this careful treatise extremely useful.

Mr. Joel Prentiss Bishop's 'Commentaries on the Law of Contracts, upon a New and Condensed Method' (Chicago: T. H. Flood & Co.), is further described upon the title-page as "a new work, superseding the author's smaller one." Mr. Bishop's "Prefatory Explanations" are full of that racy, unconventional discourse about his own methods, principles, and successes with which the readers of his books are familiar. And all through the book, notwithstanding his prime doctrine of condensation, he finds time and room for a cheerful sort of preaching and comment like this: "On a just view of things, a judge would better serve the State, and more adorn his office, to go round with blacking and brush, 'shining' the boots of the officers of his court, than to sit on the bench enforcing a wager." The book is "addressed as well to readers wholly unacquainted with the law as to advanced students and lawyers." It states compactly, in 600 pages, with much more than ordinary ability, what the author conceives to be the result of the cases, with a certain amount of reasoning—what the author calls "the law's reasoning," as contrasted with any reasoning of his own. The citations are numerous, particularly from the American cases. The book, like the other writings of this author, shows signs of much conscientious labor; it is a convenient hand-book, and will be found helpful as a guide to the cases and as a summary presentation of current doctrines; but it will not, in our judgment, add to the deserved reputation of this highly valued writer. The subject of Contracts has been very thoroughly treated in recent years; no treatise upon the topic can now be satisfactory which does not indicate a more profound analysis and a fuller knowledge of the historical development of the subject than Mr. Bishop has brought to bear. Let any man, for instance, read the first nineteen cases in Prof. Langdell's book on Sales, and then turn to §1316 in this book, and he will see how much the *genetic* method (to use a phrase of the scientific men) might do for an author, and how little profit there is in such a statement as Mr. Bishop makes on the topic which those cases illustrate.

The eighth edition of Taylor's 'American Law of Landlord and Tenant' (Little, Brown & Co.) is prepared by Mr. Henry F. Buswell, already favorably known to the legal profession by his own original work, especially his treatise on Insanity. Mr. Buswell has added to the excellent work of the last editor, Mr. Joseph Willard, what was necessary to bring down the cases to the present time. He has also made a convenient change of a practical nature in prefixing "to each paragraph a brief statement of its subject-matter; and these lines are collected into analytical Tables of Contents prefixed to each volume of the work." About a thousand cases have been added. In point of form, the book presents an unusually attractive appearance.

The large constituency of people who are concerned in knowing all about the recent national statute in regard to railroads will find a very serviceable guide in Mr. J. C. Harper's 'Law of Inter-State Commerce, especially as applied to the Act to Regulate Commerce approved Feb. 4, 1887, with Notes and Decisions' (Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.). The author describes it as, "for the most part, a collection of the statutes and decisions, both in this country and in Great Britain, which bear upon the questions arising out of this law. . . . Some of the most important provisions of this law, including sections 2, 3, 7, and 16 of the Act, and the provision for the Commission, have been, in essential particulars, imported from the English statutes which have been for many years in operation in England and the subject of constant adjudication by the English courts." The citations are very full, the cases being classified and arranged, with a brief statement of what they purport, after the different sections of the act. The book begins with a like annotation of a few clauses of the national Constitution, and ends with a brief appendix, containing the substance of the leading English statutes. The author apologizes for a certain haste in preparing his book; but it appears to be exactly what is needed at the present moment.

A collection of 'Arguments to Courts and Juries, 1846-1874, by William Johnston, formerly a Judge of the Superior Court of Cincinnati' (Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.), furnishes interesting reading. There are ten of these arguments; and an address is added on "The Right of Secession," delivered in March, 1861. The volume will preserve the memory of an able and honored lawyer, who still lives at an advanced age. The first argument was delivered in Kentucky before a Circuit Court, in an extradition case, in 1846. A slave had been carried into Ohio in the course of business, by one who had hired him. By the law of Ohio he was thereby free; but the law of Kentucky still held him to be a slave. He was afterwards carried back to Kentucky. On returning to Ohio, he refused to go again to Kentucky. Thereupon two men, employed by the slave-owner, abducted him and returned him to his master. These men were indicted in Ohio for kidnapping a free colored person, and their extradition was demanded of the Governor of Kentucky. By a law of 1820 the State of Kentucky required its Governor in such circumstances to send the alleged fugitive from justice before a circuit judge, and if he should be of opinion that the fugitive was owner of the slave or acted by the owner's authority, it was his duty to discharge him from custody. Mr. Johnston argued that this law was unconstitutional. The Kentucky Judge, however, held, in an opinion which is preserved at p. 41, that "it must rest with the Executive to decide whether

he will recognize these restrictions as binding on him." As he had so recognized them in this case, the Court deemed its office that of a mere "auxiliary to the Executive," and that its only duty was to ascertain whether the negro was an *escaping* slave, and whether the accused were duly identified and had acted by the owner's authority. The kidnappers were discharged. The reader is reminded of the well-known later case in which the position of these two States was reversed, and when Kentucky vainly endeavored to secure extradition from Ohio of a fugitive from justice, who was charged with assisting slaves to escape—the case of Kentucky v. Dennison, 24 How. 6.

In an argument for Gov. Bebb, in Illinois, charged with manslaughter, there are preserved curious details of the rough practices of earlier times in our Western States when a neighbor was newly married—the *charivari* and the *anirugian serenade*, pp. 128-129. Here is a striking touch of the old frontier patriotism, in the speech on the "Right of Secession":

"It is over half a century since my venerable father threaded the gaps of the Allegheny Mountains and took up his abode in Ohio. I first found myself in a log cabin in the wilderness, where night was made hideous by the howling of the wolf, and the paths of the woods dangerous by the prowling of savage beasts. I have seen and felt all the poverty, privations, hardships, and toils of backwoods life, when shabby little pack-horses did the work of commerce now performed by canals, steamboats, and railroads. There were in those days no cities, no crowded marts, no splendid feats [*sic*] and shows to dazzle the vision of poor boys. We had but two wonderful things to gaze upon and admire—the SUN shining in the heavens above, and the FLAG OF THE UNION floating over our heads. As I grew older and more thoughtful, I still associated these wonders. I looked upon the sun and said: This is the lamp which God in his power has hung out to the universe. I looked upon the national banner and said: This is the beacon light which God in his providence has hung out to the struggling, bewildered, and faint-hearted votaries of freedom throughout the world."

Mr. Edmund P. Dole's 'Talks about Law' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) has for its main object "to give the non-professional reader, in a simple way, some idea of what law is and how it is administered, such general information . . . as all intelligent persons are expected to have in regard to other subjects." But the trouble is that the person for whom this book is meant will not read it; it is hopelessly dry. The book is an attractive one to look at; it has been prepared with a good deal of labor; and it appears to be accurate—certainly in the main. But of insight, of historical research, of any deep knowledge of the subject or skill in presenting it, there is small trace. A student of law might perhaps get something from it; but it would not quicken him.

'Outlines of International Law, with an Account of its Origin and Sources and of its Historical Development,' by Prof. George B. Davis of West Point (Harper & Bros.), is a book which has been prepared with excellent judgment, and is well calculated to interest and inform the class of readers for whom it was intended. "It has been my purpose," says the author, "to provide a work sufficiently elementary in character to be within the reach of students and others who may desire to gain some knowledge of the general principles of international law." The book is well and carefully written, and presents the subject and the development of it in a manner that will meet the requirements of the legal student and of the thoughtful general reader.

Haifa; or, Life in Modern Palestine. By Laurence Oliphant. Edited, with introduction, by Charles A. Dana. Harper & Bros. 1887.

MR. DANA'S introduction to Mr Oliphant's letters is very brief, being hardly more than a recommendation of them to the reader as the work of one whose judgment and accuracy may be entirely relied upon. As originally printed, they passed through Mr. Dana's hands, and at his urgency they have been brought together in a book. It would have been still better if their contents had been made into a book with some division of subject and order of arrangement. Whatever loss of freshness this would have entailed, would have been more than made good by the greater clearness of impression certain to result from such a method. As it is, the letters jump about from place to place in a somewhat bewildering manner. Moreover, Mr. Oliphant is betrayed by the fulness of his own knowledge into an under-estimate of his readers' ignorance. He does a good deal of "thinking under ground"—starts in the middle of a thing as abruptly as Robert Browning, allowing the reader to orient himself as best he can as he goes on. But the letters are of much greater value than any that could be written by a vacation tourist, however much on the alert. They are the outcome of a three-years' residence in Palestine, much of it in Haifa, a few miles east of the projecting point of Carmel, but including many journeys to and fro, much exploration, and an occasional stay of months in other places than Haifa, with a view to the most perfect possible assimilation of alien customs, manners, modes of thought and life.

The tone of the book is very different from that of books of Palestinian travel generally. Mr. Oliphant is not easily ecstatic. He is as little superlative as Mr. Emerson could ask. His temper is not that of Browning's traveller who

> "saw the ark atop of Ararat,
> But did not climb there since 'twas getting dusk,
> And robber bands infest the mountain's foot."

Conventionally, if not profoundly, he accepts the New Testament record of events as historically true; but if the record is not consistent, his sense and not his sensibility helps him to a conclusion. For example: Matthew locates the story of the devil in the swine in the country of the Gergesenes; Mark and Luke, in the country of the Gadarenes. Of course there were two miracles, says the average apologist. But if there was one in the country of the Gadarenes, says Mr. Oliphant, the swine must have descended twelve hundred feet to the Yarumk, swum that river, clambered up the opposite bank, and then raced about six miles across the plain before they could reach the margin of the lake. Of course a herd of swine with the devil in them might do almost anything; but Mr. Oliphant inclines to the reading "Gergesenes," because it is exactly suited to their country in the vicinity of Kersa. The reader who goes to Mr. Oliphant's book for the charm of sentimental association will be grievously disappointed. In a cold, dry way, he indicates the connection of this or that place with New Testament persons and events; but he is never deeply moved, nor does he attempt to move his readers. His interest in Palestinian exploration is very great, but it is archæological, not emotional. The negative results of the explorers do not trouble him at all. He does not pretend to have done anything considerable himself in the way of archæological discovery. He has availed himself freely of the publications of the Palestine Exploration Fund Society of London, which are not accessible to the general reader. Not the least of his service is his popularizing these costly and elaborate publications.

The interest of Mr. Oliphant's letters is far less that of pious association or archæological discovery than that of social and political conditions existing at the present time. The modernness of the situation is the continual surprise. Mr. Oliphant finds that Palestine, in spite of many drawbacks, has attractions as a residence superior to those of any other country in which his lot has been cast. If the many colonists who are flocking there are of the same opinion, Daniel Deronda's scheme, in which George Eliot had a very real interest, may have been less chimerical than many of her readers thought it at the time. The colonizing tendency is at the front in the majority of Mr. Oliphant's letters. One of the most interesting and important of the colonial enterprises is that of the German Christian Adventists, followers of Prof. Christopher Hoffman of Würtemberg, who, after studying at Tüöingen, became a minister of the Lutheran Church, which he vainly endeavored to reform from the inside, and then broke away to set up the kingdom under his own personal supervision. The conjunction of fanatical piety with industrial prudence has often been observed. These German Adventists in Palestine afford a new example. Their principal obstacle has been the determination of the Government to prevent the legalization of their land titles if possible. This obstacle has at length been surmounted, and the colonies, four in number, the principal one at Haifa, are entering on a period of comparative prosperity, while the influence of their enterprising and industrious spirit on the surrounding Arab population is already evident. There are seven or eight colonies of Russian and Rumanian Jewish refugees. They are working hard against such odds as only the Turkish Government can oppose to any decent enterprise, but they do not make such good agriculturists as the Jews who are native to the country. The Haluka, *i. e.*, the tax of all Jews outside of Palestine for the support of Palestinian Jews, is a greater obstacle, in Mr. Oliphant's opinion, than Government obstruction. It is simply a premium upon mendicancy. The agglomeration of different nationalities is remarkable. In some places there are eight or nine varieties living together with a good deal of mutual toleration. Mr. Oliphant is not nearly so pessimistic about the possibilities of progress in Palestine as many writers whose acquaintance with the matter is far less than his. Three common prejudices against Jewish settlement in Palestine he considers about equally unsound. They are that Jews cannot be agriculturists; that the country is infertile; and that it is unsafe. A railroad from Hauran, the grain district east of the Jordan, to Acre is likely to be built, surveys for it having been made. This will be a great industrial advantage. A more astonishing scheme for bringing Palestine into active relations with the outside world is that for a ship canal from the Red Sea to the Mediterranean, which, commencing at Haifa, should be cut through the plain of Esdraelon to the Valley of the Jordan, and connect the lower end of the Dead Sea with the Red Sea by a section debouching at Akaba. But this is not calculated to disturb M. de Lesseps's peace of mind.

Mr. Oliphant has several letters on the Druses, their characteristics, their beliefs, their festivals. There are three groups of them, one in Upper Galilee, one in the mountains of Lebanon, and one east of the Jordan. They furnish the Sultan with 25,000 of his best fighting men. They have some very trying ways, but were, on the whole, the best people to live with whom Mr. Oliphant found in Palestine, and he gave them a fair trial. There is some likelihood that the three groups will coalesce in the region east of the Jordan. Of the letters dealing with the archæological side of Palestine and its historical associations, that upon the Sea of Galilee in the time of Christ is one of the most interesting. Mr. Oliphant here urges the consideration, of which little is made by the average Christian tourist, that the most flourishing period of Jewish history was subsequent to the time of Christ. His style has seldom so much warmth and glow as where he endeavors to reconstruct for the imagination the shores of Ge-

nesareth as they appeared to Jesus. Of the two places which dispute the site of Capernaum he inclines to Tell Hum, the more southern of the two, which are only a few miles apart. A chapter on "Traditional Sites at Jerusalem" arrives at the conclusion that "the Holy City of the world, *par excellence*, contains within its walls more sacred shams and impostures than any other city in the world." It is impossible to avoid the feeling that the results of Palestinian exploration so far have been much more largely negative than positive. For those who like to be fooled there is no lack of holy places, but Mr. Oliphant's temper is indicated by his question when shown the stone on which Lazarus sat when the dog licked his sores—"Where is the dog?" Bethlehem, Bethany, the Mount of Olives—these can be identified; but there are two Gethsemanes in dispute between the Greek and Latin Churches; the rock-hewn tomb of Jesus is certainly not where it is commonly wept over, and the same is true of Calvary. Of the possible identification of the former, Mr. Oliphant is perhaps too easily persuaded. The site of the Temple has been determined, though not the area it covered. The Pool of Siloam has been successfully identified, and the course of the city walls prior to the siege of Titus is well agreed upon "except by those who are fatally affected by their religious sentiments." Much more has been done to identify places spoken of by Josephus than to identify those mentioned in the New Testament. It seems not unlikely that the tomb of Nicodemus, so called, is the tomb of the early Hebrew Kings, though here, again, Mr. Oliphant impresses us as too easily persuaded. But it is sufficiently certain that the tombs of the Kings are not where they are generally shown, on the hill of the upper city, where there are no ancient tombs at all.

Much of the most attractive part of Mr. Oliphant's letters is purely incidental, so that no idea of it can be got except by going to his book.

George Canning. By Frank H. Hill. [English Worthies Series.] D. Appleton & Co. 1887.

Of Canning most people know nothing except that he was an "English worthy." His name is familiar enough, but his achievements are only vaguely associated with his name. He is the author of one historic sentence, "I called the New World into existence to redress the balance of the Old"; and we apprehend that his best claim to enduring remembrance will be found in the results of the policy thus indicated. Nor is this remembrance altogether a grateful one. Canning's influence enabled the Spanish-American colonies to achieve their independence; but he seems to have cared little for that result. As he himself says, he was determined that if France conquered Spain, it should not be Spain with the Indies. The South American republics were tolerated, therefore, because it was not for the interest of England that they should be subject to a rival Power. The policy of Canning was beneficent, but he was not meritorious.

His part in the suppression of the slave trade was a more honorable one. It is true that, early in his Parliamentary career, he made a speech in which he said that if he were a negro he should prefer slavery in the West Indies to having his throat cut in Africa. But he was really in earnest in his efforts to induce the great Powers to unite in the suppression of this iniquitous traffic, and he procured at least a formal adhesion to his views at the Congress of Verona. The real obstacle was the greed of France. Four years later, at Paris, Canning urged upon the Bishop of Hermopolis (Minister of Worship) the desirability of obtaining a Papal bull against the slave trade. He gave the following account of his success: "When, after describing its anti-Christian character and all its horrors in practice (most eloquently, as I flattered myself), I ended by saying, 'And it is now with Catholic countries only that the shame and criminality of this monstrous traffic rests,' my convert (as I hoped to find him) answered, with the greatest mildness and simplicity, 'Apparemment ils en ont plus de besoin.'"

We may also attribute to Canning some share in the credit of freeing Greece from the barbarous oppression of the Turks, although the battle of Navarino was fought two months after his death. But here, as well as in the matters already referred to, we do not find Mr. Hill's treatment sufficiently thorough. If he had set before himself the definite object of explaining Canning's relation to these affairs, he would have left a more distinct impression upon his readers. As it is, we lose ourselves among details, and fail to get a satisfactory idea of the nature of Canning's influence. He clearly ranked with Pitt and Fox as an orator, but his oratory was that of an actor. As a public man he could not have been so generally disliked and distrusted as he was without good cause. He seems to have been his own worst enemy, to have been the victim of his own selfish ambition. Had he thought more of principle and less of himself, he might have won greater fame than that of Pitt; but his vanity blinded him to his opportunity, and the control of the destinies of his country passed into other hands. He was responsible for the destruction of the Danish fleet in the harbor of Copenhagen; but this brilliant exploit was almost upon a par with that proposed by Themistocles to Aristides, and characterized by the latter as equally advantageous and dishonorable.

So far as the internal history of England is concerned, it is hardly too much to say that Canning deserves to be remembered chiefly for his clever satirical verses. Mr. Hill gives some of these, which are of different degrees of merit. The chapter entitled "Attacks on Addington" contains many entertaining specimens. The "Friend of Humanity and the Knife-grinder"—which, by the way, is not mentioned here—is a good example of Canning's talent for this sort of work, and is of its kind a classic. Mr. Hill evidently understood that he had a very difficult task before him in writing this life, and he has not spared his labor. Nevertheless he does not seem to us to have mastered his subject. His style, however, is spirited, and it is convenient to have so readable a sketch of a man really little known.

A Philosophical Study: Grammar and Language. An attempt at the Introduction of Logic into Grammar. By Ed. L. Starck. Boston: W. B. Clarke & Carruth. 1887.

Mr. Starck is a self-taught linguist who describes himself as knowing seven languages so far as to be able to use them with understanding—six modern languages and Latin. He has been much troubled by the grammars. They do not agree about the number of the parts of speech, or the moods, and many other things. They are not profound enough. Mr. Starck wishes to ground them on more solid foundations. It would seem at first as though he could hardly hope to do it. He divides grammar into phonetic, morphology of words and of forms, construction, and syntax. As to "phonetic," he says, "I know nothing about it." He might say the same of "morphology" also, for he expressly disclaims all knowledge of philology. As to "construction" and "syntax," he is suffering from an embarrassment of riches. He says "the frequent occurrence of faulty constructions and of defective arrangements of words finds in my case an explanation in the handling of several languages at one time." His syntax, it seems, is "a kind of a *mixtum compositum* of several languages," due to the structure of his *sensorium*. In these conditions it is plain Mr. Starck could not make a grammar, since he knows nothing about some of the subjects treated in a grammar, and has only a hotchpot of the others. But a good head is better than a full one. Mr. Starck sees certain advantages in his position. "The fact that I do not possess any philological knowledge," he says, "and that the heavy weight of numberless volumes of phonetic facts and historical details does not keep my head down, enables me much better to survey the linguistic field before me and to discover its general lexicographical features." What he can do he is willing to do. He proposes to introduce philosophy and logic into grammar; not any particular system of philosophy or logic, apparently; there is no indication that he knows any. He thinks, most likely, that a man with a good head can think sagaciously and profoundly on any subject. Mixing brains with grammar seems to be what he means by introducing logic and philosophy into it. The book consists of four essays—on classification, the sentence, forms and inflections, the order of words. A large part of it is a statement of the facts which give rise to certain linguistic phenomena, and contains nothing new or specially striking. But the author thinks that he has struck an idea which will reduce grammar to a system. This idea is the Duality of Language. Language is partly subjective and partly objective. He calls the pronouns subjective nouns and subjective adjectives, the conjunctions subjective abbreviations; other words are objective. He talks about the subjective and objective in connection with moods, numerals, prepositions, the arrangement of words, and other topics, as philologists do. But no particular illumination comes from it. The whole working out is fragmentary and crude. It is a pity that he cannot endure philologists. He would have found the subjective and objective elements of the Indo-European speeches philosophically and logically set forth and expounded in their pages. But he rages at the thought of learning from philologists. He empties on them all the hard words of his seven languages, *janotism*, *galimatias*, and *amphigouri*, *Sprach-Pfuscher*, and *Philologaster*, all in a heap. It is good luck that he knows no Greek.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

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Bastin, Prof. E. S. Elements of Botany; including Organography, Vegetable Histology Vegetable Physiology, and Vegetable Taxonomy, and a Glossary of Botanical Terms. Chicago: G. P. Engelhard & Co.
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Browning, R. Red Cotton Night-Cap Country, etc. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.75.
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Buckley, Arabella B. History of England for Beginners. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Choate, L. The Romance of a Letter. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.
Diaz, Mrs. A. M. The John Spicer Lectures. D. Lothrop Co.
Erichsen, Dr. H. The Cremation of the Dead. Illustrated. Detroit: D. O. Haynes & Co. $2.
Fogazzaro, A. Daniele Cortis. Henry Holt & Co. 30 cents.
Hale, Prof. W. G. The Art of Reading Latin. Boston: Ginn & Co. 30 cents.
Harvard College, 1636-1886: A Record of the Commemoration Nov. 5-8, 1886. Cambridge.
How to Make a Saint; or, the Process of Canonization in the Church of England. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Ingersoll, E. Down-East Latch Strings; or Seashore, Lakes, and Mountains by the Boston and Maine Railroad. Illustrated. Boston.
Lectures delivered before the Students of Phillips Exeter Academy, 1885-1886, by Messrs. McCosh, Walker, Bartlett, Robinson, Porter, and Carter, and Drs. Hale and Brooks. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
McCray, F. T. Environment: A Story of Modern Society. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.25.
Munger, Rev. T. T. The Appeal to Life. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Palmer, Prof. G. H. The New Education. Three Papers. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Thackeray, W. M. The History of Henry Esmond, Esq. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 499

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS 502

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:
Prohibition as a Solvent of Parties 504
Socialistic Platitudes 504
Forests as Playgrounds 505
The Bachelors of Art 505

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:
"Alcestis" in Oxford 506
The Duomo of Florence 507

CORRESPONDENCE:
The Goethe Society 508
The Beverly Incident Once More 508
How to Keep an Inn 508

NOTES 508

REVIEWS:
Admiral Blake 511
Price's London Guildhall.—I 513
Scherer's Essays on Goethe 514
A Criticule Rampant 515
Recollections of my Mother 516
The Egyptian Campaigns 516
Familiar Studies of Men and Books 517
American Home Rule 517
From the Forecastle to the Cabin 517
Central America 518

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 518

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 16, 1887.

The Week.

THERE are indications here and there that the high-tariff men of the North and the "Moonshiners" of the South intend to make common cause to repeal the whiskey tax at the next session of Congress. Mr. Randall and Judge Kelley are at one on this point. They have frequently advocated the sweeping away of the whole internal-revenue system as a "relic of the war." This is the only fiscal relic of the war that they care to get rid of. Most of us remember how the tariff was raised a second time to compensate the manufacturers for the internal-revenue tax on their goods, and how, when this tax was repealed, the tariff was not lowered correspondingly or lowered at all. "Relic of the war" is a very taking phrase just now. It is quite the fashion to bury our animosities. Even Senator Sherman performed this ceremony at Nashville a few weeks ago with much solemnity. It is true that he attempted to dig them up again at Springfield, but he did not succeed in giving them any lively appearance or attractive guise. But with all the prevailing enthusiasm for burying relics of the war, we hear of no movement to bury the war tariff, or none later than 1883, when the Hayes-Oliver Commission, on page 6 of their report, said: "It would seem that the rate of duties under the existing tariff, fixed for the most part *during the war*, under the evident necessity at that time of stimulating to its utmost extent all domestic production, might be adapted, through reduction, *to the present condition of peace*, requiring no such extraordinary stimulus."

The internal-revenue taxes still remaining are those on distilled spirits, fermented liquors, tobacco, and bank notes, amounting to about $119,000,000, as follows:

On distilled spirits	$69,000,000
Fermented liquors	19,700,000
Tobacco and cigars	28,000,000
Bank circulation	2,000,000
Total	$118,700,000

It is pretty certain that the tobacco tax will be repealed at the next session of Congress. Although the remission of that tax must be considered unscientific while so many other taxes in the form of customs duties on the necessaries of life remain, this is, perhaps, the only article yielding a large sum that can be untaxed without a long and angry dispute. The most obvious need of the times is to get rid of the Treasury surplus. More pressing, indeed, is this than any conceivable theory of finance, since the existence of the surplus is a menace to the very integrity of the Government. It breeds every species of demoralization. It takes the very word economy out of the dictionary of politics. What is the use of an economical Government if it results in locking up the people's money in the Treasury vaults? Without some adequate reduction of taxes, we may look for a campaign in which rival candidates and opposing parties will boast on the stump of the magnitude of the appropriations they have made, and lay claim to popular support on the ground that they have squandered larger sums than their adversaries ever dreamed of. There is something remarkably suggestive of this in Senator Sherman's Springfield speech.

Now that William E. Chandler is universally recognized by the Republican party press as a trusted leader, and has been elected to the United States Senate, it may be well to call his attention to the fact that he has neglected to reply to a disagreeable reflection upon his party loyalty which Mr. B. F. Jones, Chairman of the National Republican Committee, made in December last. There was a controversy between the two leaders at that time. Mr. Jones began it by charging that President Arthur and his Cabinet had shown a want of fidelity and zeal in behalf of Blaine in 1884. Mr. Chandler responded, declaring the charge "baseless." Mr. Jones renewed the charge, saying of Mr. Chandler:

> "I have no taste for, nor do I see any present occasion for, a discussion as to political methods with one whose plans and proposals, during the brief intercourse I had with him in the campaign of 1884, were not such as to commend him to those having the success of the Republican party at heart. His criticisms at that time of men most prominent in the party do not seem to me quite consistent with his present expressions of regret in regard to bad feeling between public men. I would not like to feel called upon to make public the facts upon which my opinion of Mr. Chandler is based."

Mr. Chandler has never responded to the unpleasant insinuation of this closing sentence; but now that he is placed in the front rank of his party as a "leader," we think he ought to. So long as he fails to call for the facts which Mr. Jones says he should not like to feel called upon to make public, there will remain doubts about his loyalty which will impair his influence.

A curious illustration of the conflict always liable to arise between Federal and State authority is presented in Maine. Not merely the laws but the Constitution of that State absolutely prohibits the sale of liquors. But the Constitution of the United States Senate confers upon Congress the sole power to "lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises," with the provision that "all duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States"; and the Supreme Court decided long ago that under this section no State can interfere with the sale of an imported article protected by the national seal, except by consent of Congress. It has been held that such goods must be sold in the original unbroken packages in order to avoid liability to interference by the State, but when so sold it matters not if they be expressly declared contraband by the laws of the State. For years a firm of liquor dealers in Portland has been openly importing and selling liquor in this way, and recently Michael Burns, "a well-known liquor-dealer of Augusta," who closed his shop as a retailer of drinks by the glass last March, has resumed business as a seller of foreign-distilled liquors in packages to suit all tastes. "The retail price of the goods has been made so low as to be in easy reach of the purchasing public, and the sales have already been very large." There are doubtless a good many temperance people in Maine who would like to see a Supreme Court so thoroughly dominated by "the States-rights dogma" that it would declare this practice illegal, since there is no prospect that either the Republican Senate or the Democratic House will feel disposed to pass any act offensive to the liquor-dealers on the verge of a Presidential election.

The Dependent Pension Bill which has been prepared by the National Pension Committee of the Grand Army, appears to be about the same sort of thing as the one which Mr. Cleveland vetoed last winter. Its corner-stone is the proposition on which the vetoed one was based, that anybody who served in the Union Army for three months during the civil war, and who now claims that he cannot earn a living, shall receive $12 a month for the rest of his days; and that proposition is as unsound now as it was four months ago. The scheme is to be submitted to all the posts, with the evident hope on the part of prominent Grand Army politicians of the Gen. Tuttle stamp that a majority will endorse it, and so threaten Mr. Cleveland with the loss of "the soldier vote" if he vetoes it.

The *State*, of Richmond, accuses us of unfairness in our article, "Failure to Compromise in Virginia," says we have forgotten the history of the Commonwealth for the last eight years, and thinks we do no justice to the Democrats who wished to pay the debt. When we first began to write upon the subject of the Virginia debt, we gave full honor to the non-repudiating portion of the Democratic party, and we still think they fought a good fight against Mahoneism. But when the Democratic party gave up the struggle in its Convention at Lynchburg, it forfeited sympathy. It is useless to say that acquiescence in the Riddleberger settlement was a political necessity. We admit no political necessity which can make men join in dishonesty. If a party must be defeated because it will not be dishonorable, it will, if it is anything beyond the mere aggregation of self-seeking interests, suffer defeat and leave the question of success to take care of itself. Yet we should never have felt and expressed indignation as we did if these men had simply "acquiesced" in the Riddleberger settlement. Their "acquiescence" was of the most active and virulent kind. They were more ingenious and more unscrupulous than Riddleberger and Mahone themselves in devising laws to force the creditors to accept the repudiating act. Necessarily, therefore, as we continued to write, we gave less and less weight to the past courage of the Democratic party when we were directly confronted by the sight of its present turpitude, and less and less thought to that not inconsiderable class of men in the Old Dominion who to this day would gladly see the debt paid. That a paper like the *State* should consider the Democratic party of Virginia not only blameless but entitled to praise, inclines us almost to despair of the Commonwealth; but the memory of the work its schools and colleges,

and especially the University of Virginia, are doing, and the knowledge that every State contiguous to it is advancing in wealth and education, revive hope, and point to the fact that if Virginia does not raise herself, she may be raised by forces beyond her control.

The same paper falsely accuses us of advising the Virginians to close their schools and pay their debts with the blankets taken from their beds. Why talk in this puerile strain about the abject poverty to be entailed by a fair debt settlement, when its chief Executive and militia are sent to join every picnic outside of the State? And who can doubt that if the finances of the State were put in the hands of any eminent financier, he would at once make such compromise as he could with the creditors, and extend the self-executing attribute of the tax-receivable coupons, if possible, so that any future attempt to unsettle the compromise should be absolutely useless? A course like this would sweep away the seeming poverty of the State at once, and bring in an era of prosperity worthy of its vast natural resources, its name and hopes. This present instability of the debt question is poisoning the well-being of the whole industrial system of the State. This is no figure, but simple fact. It may be only a suspicion, yet a suspicion which must arise, that the corporations which do not use the coupons in payment of taxes have not been brought to this passivity from pure patriotism, but because there have been bargains between them and the State by which very considerable advantages accrue to the corporations. Favors of this kind need not be open and direct. They may be managed in a careful and secret way familiar to politicians; and when individual taxpayers of Virginia, who cannot make such bargains, see corporations which are not noted for sentiment posing as aggregations of patriotism, they are naturally set to thinking.

The Political Committee of the Chicago Union League Club has been considering the labor troubles here and elsewhere with the view of inaugurating a movement to "harmonize existing and imaginary differences between employers and employees." This reminds us of the movements of twenty years ago to "reconcile religion and science," as if they could be got together in a room and made to shake hands, and promise ever after to agree about everything. There is nothing to harmonize between employers and employees, any more than between any other classes of citizens which have dealings with each other. The differences between them are generally due to a desire on the part of the employees to get more wages for less work, or a desire on the part of the employers to get more work for less wages. To call on either of them to be content with less, or with something different, is to take the management of their private business out of their hands. Is any club or society in the country prepared to undertake this task? Ought not poor Powderly's enterprise to be a warning against attempting it? Probably the affairs of a vast number of employers and employees would be better managed by outsiders than by themselves; but who can be got to take the job?

A tremendous struggle is in progress in that home of Labor, Pythagoras Hall. An auditing committee are at work day and night upon the financial accounts of District Assembly No. 49, trying to disentangle them. Their chief trouble seems to be to account for deficiencies. Last week they discovered a shortage of $5,700 in the Assistance Fund, but the officers of the Assembly explained that by saying that it had gone into the Maintenance Fund. Now a deficiency of $5,000 has been discovered in the Building Fund, and for this they can find no explanation whatever. Two of the Auditing Committee have resigned, saying as a reason that the accounts are so muddled that no one can make head or tail of them, and they do not care to append their names to a report. Another member says that "there is nobody in the Assembly with a head big enough to unravel the tangle." If the lunch checks of the Walking Delegates and Outside and Inside Esquires could be obtained, we have no doubt that a good deal of light would be thrown upon the accounts. But why attempt to untangle them? It is a very un-Knightly performance to attempt to make the Pythagoras Hall financiers keep their accounts in the same way as capitalists and monopolists do. No well-organized system of Labor, as the Powderlys, Quinns, Dunns, and Martin Ironses understand it, can stand on so unsympathetic a basis as that.

The Anarchists had a picnic on Sunday on Weehawken Heights. There were red flags and red ribbons and red hat-bands, and red boats on a small lake within the enclosure where the Reds assembled to do honor to their fellow-Anarchists now in jail at Chicago. An entrance fee of twenty-five cents was required to gain admission to the picnic. A practical Anarchist came along and attempted to enter without paying the fee. Some accounts say that he was a policeman in citizens' clothes, but this is immaterial from the Anarchist point of view, however important it may be in a court of Jersey justice. True anarchy required that the man should enter without paying, especially if there was any regulation requiring pay. Taking toll at a gate is only one of the forms of law and order which anarchy rails at and seeks to abolish. The practical Anarchist insisted upon his right to go in without paying anything. The gate-keeper called for help, and some of his minions came forward with pickets hastily torn from the fence, and began beating the practical man over the head. Then the crowd outside began to throw stones at the crowd inside, and the latter retorted in kind. A few pistols were fired and one boy was shot through the hand. The meeting was a great success in the way of promoting practical anarchy, the rioting being protracted to a late hour in the afternoon. Anarchy, like charity, should always begin at home.

The public of this city is getting very tired of the George-McGlynn movement, whatever it may be. The introduction of the O'Brien trouble brought a little variety into it for a moment, but only for a moment. O'Brien is now gone, and the controversy about him must necessarily languish in his absence. Can Mr. George and Dr. McGlynn not take a brief holiday, and give the press and the public a rest? It is quite clear that the work of abolishing poverty and property in land will last a good while, so a few weeks' cessation of this dreadful noise would cause no perceptible delay. In the meantime, why is there no movement towards the occupation by the poor of the countless acres of land around New York which, for agricultural purposes, can be had on payment of the taxes? As far as we can make out, the George-McGlynn people will be content with nothing but very high-priced city lots. But is this fair or wise? Would it not be better to begin by taking any land the owners are willing to surrender on easy terms, and attack the Wall Street and Fifth Avenue lots afterwards? Moreover, we most earnestly beg Dr. McGlynn to settle in some manner with the Pope, if possible, before July 4. That trouble also drags along in a most wearisome manner. We cannot keep speculating any longer as to whether McGlynn will "go to Rome," and what the Pope will do if he refuses. The number of those who do not care where Dr. McGlynn goes, provided he goes somewhere, or what the Pope thinks about him, is assuming alarming dimensions, and is even threatening the Doctor with early obscurity.

Considering the deliberate purpose with which this country has been made a dumping-ground for the human garbage of Europe, and in particular the recent instances of British offences against our law in sending "assisted" emigrants over here, it is somewhat amusing to find that the House of Commons has ordered the Board of Trade to make a special report on complaints that certain trades in East London and two or three other great cities are "overrun" with foreign immigrants, to the disadvantage of British workers. It is still more amusing when we consider that this action is taken in a country wherein the total number of foreigners is nothing like one-half of one per cent. of the total population; indeed, if we do not count about 20,000 Americans included in the last census—who really are not foreigners—the proportion is not one-third of one per cent. Yet this proportion constitutes a grievance, and the British legislature and newspapers are wondering what must be done about it. One London paper says: "We suppose a nation has a right to refuse to receive paupers, though it is not a Christian proceeding, bearing much too close an analogy to the practice of drowning the shipwrecked." We should rather suppose it a more Christian proceeding to refuse to receive paupers, which means sending them back to their friends and neighbors, and to a country where they have a "settlement" and a legal claim to support, than it is to export them from Great Britain to America as a means of avoiding that claim, and merely to get rid of them. And concerning the "analogy to the practice of drowning the ship-wrecked," we must consider that a specially unfortunate remark. What we do, and mean to do, instead of drowning them, is literally to put them on board ship again. Surely this is a Christian proceeding.

The "venue clause," as it is called, of the Irish Coercion Bill, that is, the clause giving the Government power to send offenders for trial to England, has been dropped, after a conference with the Liberal-Unionist leaders, as every one expected it would be. In fact, it has always been supposed that it was put in in order to be dropped as a concession to the Liberal-Unionists in case it was found too strong for them. The substitute proposed by Lord Hartington and his supporters is trial by a Commission of judges. This feature is copied from the Gladstone Coercion Bill of 1882, but the Irish Judges protested against it with such vehemence that the Government of that day never made any use of it, and, in fact, never found any extraordinary difficulty in getting the juries to convict. The judges held that it was putting upon them a duty which was unconstitutional, and was calculated to weaken popular confidence in their integrity and impartiality. No answer was ever made or ever attempted to their arguments. No such tribunal has ever been set up in the United Kingdom in time of peace since the Star Chamber.

England has signed a convention with the Sultan binding herself to evacuate Egypt in three years if the condition of the country at that date will warrant the withdrawal of the troops, but reserving the right also to re-occupy the country, either in conjunction with Turkey, or after due notice to Turkey, if it should seem necessary. The other Powers have been asked to endorse this arrangement, but they seem in no haste to do so, and, in fact, France shows a disposition to kick against it, and Russia is supposed to be egging her on in her opposition. Every French Ministry finds it absolutely necessary to make it appear that France is exerting some influence on English policy in Egypt.

The Belgian Liberals have had their convention at Brussels, and have issued the programme by which they hope to allay existing discontents. They call for gratuitous and obligatory education; the regulation of child labor in factories; the provision of technical schools for adults; the separation of Church and State; the abolition of conscription and of substitution; an income tax; the repeal of the duties lately imposed on foreign cattle and meat; insurance against accidents for workingmen on the Prussian plan, and some sort of machinery for regulating the relations between labor and capital. But the Belgian Liberals are somewhat in the position of the English Liberals, in that they are assailed both by the Conservatives in front and the Radicals in the rear. They do not go far enough for "Labor," and they go too far for the Church and Capital. The trouble with Belgium is, however, the fundamental one, that she cannot produce cheaply enough to hold her own in the foreign markets by which her industries were built up, and her workingmen, like the French, will not emigrate.

The canal at Kiel opening a passage across Schleswig-Holstein between the Baltic and the North Sea, which has just been begun, and will be finished, it is thought, in eight years, is one of the great feats of engineering, like the Alpine tunnels, and the Suez and Panama Canals, for which this century will be for ever famous. It starts from the mouth of the Elbe, and will end at Holtenau, almost in the port of Kiel. It will save the 35,000 trading vessels which pass through the Kattegat and the Sound every year a détour of nearly 500 miles. Its strategic advantages to Germany will be hardly less important, for it will preclude the possibility of her fleet being cut in two in a war in which Denmark was in alliance with the enemy. The canal will put Kiel, the principal German arsenal in the Baltic, in direct communication with the principal military port of the North Sea, Wilhelmshafen. The entrance of the canal will be fortified at both ends.

As might have been expected, the *Norddeutsche Allgemeine Zeitung*, Prince Bismarck's semi-official organ, has come out completely victorious in its animated controversy with Katkoff's *Moscow Gazette* regarding the relations of Russia and Austria-Hungary before and during the Turkish war of 1877. Premier Tisza's declarations in the Hungarian Parliament, in answer to an interpellation, have confirmed—instead of refuting—the Berlin journal's surprising revelation, that a formal agreement was secretly entered into by the two imperial Governments in reference to the course and sequences of that struggle. The *Pesther Lloyd*, which vehemently rushed to the rescue of Count Andrássy, the former Austro-Hungarian Minister of Foreign Affairs, from the national odium which the communications of the *Norddeutsche* were calculated to bring upon him, continues, it is true, to insist upon the inaccuracy of some of the details, but the main points have been admitted by Andrássy's principal co-worker at the time, and the testimony wrung from him, though couched in diplomatic phraseology, is decisive. History may now enter the following in its pages: In January, 1877, Gortchakoff bought Austria-Hungary's neutrality in the impending Russian war with Turkey at the price of Russia's consent to the former empire's occupation of Bosnia and Herzegovina; "the European mandate" for that occupation given by the Berlin Congress, in July, 1877, was thus only the ratification of a previous compact; Andrássy, incited by ambitious diplomatic aims, acted throughout a disingenuous part towards his own country, Hungary, which clamored for an opposite policy; Court policies prevailed over the national sentiment, both in Russia and Hungary; Germany looked on complacently, knowing and minding her interests.

For a moment the German Chancellor's acrimonious journalistic warfare against the Slavophil press, the aim of which was not altogether clear, assumed a direction apparently unfriendly to the managers of the Austro-Hungarian diplomacy, and foreshadowing a *rapprochement* toward Russia, in case the latter discarded the pernicious advice of her Germanophobists. This impression, however, which caused some consternation in Buda-Pesth, was speedily dispelled by other inspired communications, which clearly showed that the German Foreign Office, though not particularly mindful of the sensibilities of its political friends when points could be scored at their expense in a piquant controversy with hostile critics, was by no means ready to delight the latter by an interesting plunge in a new direction. The affair ends thus: The Moscow and Pesth journalists have been confounded by the exhibition of their ignorance of contemporary diplomatic facts of grave import, but the revelation is particularly humiliating to the Russian assailants of Bismarck, for it shows that their Government secretly lowered itself before Austria-Hungary, and to no purpose, while Tisza, called to account for his and Andrássy's formerly unavowed dealings with Russia—in opposition to the wishes of their nation—could, in his defence, point with triumphant effect to the advantageous results of their performance: the occupation of Bosnia and Herzegovina and the holding there of a politico-military position calculated, as the late developments in Bulgaria have shown, completely to baffle all Russia's attempts at permanently establishing her influence in the Balkan Peninsula.

The Hungarian Parliament which has just closed its sessions, has probably been the most obsequious of all the legislatures with which the long-lived Cabinet of M. Tisza has ever had to deal. Following the behests, one may almost say, of that political chief, it passed without hesitation the most important enactments in the history of Hungary since her parliamentary reconstruction in 1867, the reduced Opposition wasting the remnants of its strength in desultory and almost aimless efforts. It transformed the Upper House in a radical manner, excluding a vast number of the hereditary magnates through a limitation based on property. It lengthened the legislative periods of the House of Representatives from three years to five. It increased the military strength of the kingdom by enacting a Landsturm law, such as the threatening complications in the Balkan Peninsula and the attitude of Russia seemed to demand. It finally passed the third series of the decennial articles of financial agreement with Cisleithan Austria required by the fundamental dual basis of Austria-Hungary. It gave its full support to the foreign policy of Count Kálnoky, applauding him for patronizing Servia against Bulgaria, when the latter had, by a revolutionary stroke, extended the sway of her Prince over Eastern Rumelia, and much more cordially when, on the downfall of Prince Alexander, he suddenly became the great defender of Bulgarian autonomy. It readily voted all the financial measures proposed by the Government, including new taxes and new loans, although in this field of its activity M. Tisza's Cabinet has had no opportunity to boast of success, the yearly growing deficits having of late assumed alarming proportions. With these deficits the new Parliament, the elections for which are to take place in the latter part of this month, will have to cope seriously. The complexion of the new Assembly is expected to differ little from that of its predecessors, the Liberal majority over both Conservatives and Radicals remaining overwhelming.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, June 8, to TUESDAY, June 14, 1887 inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND left the retreat on Saranac Lake where he had spent a brief vacation, on June 9, breakfasted with Gov. Hill at Albany on June 10, and the next day was at his desk in the White House.

The resolutions passed by certain Grand Army posts in Iowa uncomplimentary to the President, apropos of his proposed visit to St. Louis when the Grand Army will be in encampment there, provoked Gen. Sherman to write a letter, wherein he said: "Mr. Cleveland is the President of the United States, by a fair election of all our people, and Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy of the United States. . . . The idea of his being insulted, much less endangered, should he be on the stand alongside of our Commander-in-Chief, Gen. Fairchild, when the Grand Army is passing in review, seems to me monstrous. Brave men are never ungenerous, and the Iowa soldiers were brave men. . . . Should Mr. Cleveland accept the invitation, which I hope he will, to attend the parade of the Grand Army of the Republic at St. Louis on the 28th of September next, I will stand by his side or march past in the ranks of Ransom Post, as may be ordered by Gen. Fairchild."

A Committee of the Grand Army of the Republic has made a draft of a proposed Dependent Pension Bill, which in its main features is similar to the bill that the President vetoed, and copies of it have been sent to all the Grand Army posts to get the approval of as many veterans as possible. The purpose is to have it introduced in the Fiftieth Congress.

The President on June 14 appointed Clarence H. Pitkin of Vermont to be United States Attorney for the District of Vermont.

The recent renewal of effort by a number of Democratic politicians to induce the President to dismiss Republicans who yet hold posts of importance, has caused an approximately accurate estimate to be made of the number of offices of importance in the national Government outside the civil-service rules yet held by Republicans. The estimate is that there are 400 Presidential postmasters and 8,000 of the fourth class, 5 secretaries of legations, 80 consuls, several important bureau and division officers in the departments at Washington, 2 appraisers of merchandise, 2 superintendents of mints and assayers, 1 collector of internal revenue, 3 inspectors of steam vessels, 5 United States district attorneys, 6 United States marshals, 8 Territorial judges, 2 pension agents, a few Indian inspectors and Indian special agents, 10 Indian agents, and 5 special agents of the General Land Office.

A committee appointed some time ago to investigate the methods of business in the New York Custom-house has made an important report to Collector Magone. It speaks of the Custom-house as an "antiquated edifice," and says: "It would be difficult to find a building of the proper dimensions less suitable for the purpose, or one more positively incurable in its defects." The committee suggests a reduction in the salary of clerks entering the service to $1,000, increasing this as the employees become more proficient; it approves Mr. Hewitt's bill recommending the appointment of persons acting under State authority as notaries public solely for the administration of customs oaths, to save importers much loss of time, and suggests many other changes.

The Iroquois Club of Chicago recently adopted a resolution setting forth the opinion of the members that the Inter-State Commerce Law ought to be enforced for "the interests of the public," and the arguments for its enforcement have been published by a committee of the club and will be presented to the Inter-State Commerce Commission. The Railroad Commissioners of the Northwestern States, in a conference at St. Paul June 10, adopted a resolution setting forth their opinion that the phrase "under substantially similar circumstances and conditions" in the fourth section of the Inter-State Law should be construed liberally, and that a lower rate to manufacturer or producer is not in conflict with the spirit of this section of the law, provided all persons and localities under "substantially similar circumstances and conditions" are treated alike; and asking the National Commission for an interpretation of this clause.

Representatives of the Indian tribes in the Indian Territory met in a "citizenship council" at Eufaula June 5, and discussed the condition of the race for four or five days following. One of the prominent members of the council, Towoconie Jim, chief of the Wichitas, made a speech, the conclusion of which was this: "If I go to a tailor to have a suit of clothes made, and the tailor just takes a look at me and then says: 'All right, go home, and I will send the clothes,' I am almost certain to have a suit which does not fit. This is the way the United States Congress has done with my people. They have merely looked at us and sent us this suit, which does not fit at all, and we cannot wear it." The Council made an earnest appeal in behalf of civilized and wild tribes of the Territory against the act providing for the allotment of lands in severalty. They said that it would engulf all the Indians and tribes of the Territory in one catastrophe to the enrichment of land monopolies, when even those with the civilized machinery of justice seem powerless to secure their rights. They signed a memorial that the President stay the operations of the law until they shall be in condition to be benefited by it, and that the act may be not enforced until they have the opportunity of testing their rights before the judiciary of the United States. They requested Congress to pass an enabling act, whereby all questions affecting the rights of Indians under treaty stipulations may be referred to the courts of the United States, and receive judicial settlement. Mr. Atkins, the Indian Commissioner, thinks that they have been incited to make this opposition by white men.

There has been another outbreak of the hostile Apache Indians in Arizona, and several whites have been killed, among them Michael Grace, a well-known cattle man. More than 100 warriors, all well armed, are thought to be on the warpath. They have retreated to the mountains and set fire to the woods behind them to throw the cavalry off their trail.

In reply to an inquiry by the British Minister whether a number of Crofters, a part of whose fares to the United States are to be paid by the British Government, will be hindered from landing by the Pauper Immigration Law, Secretary Bayard has written that "the Department is unable to give any assurance that any particular class of immigrants will be permitted to land. The provisions of the law look to the actual condition of each person and are impartial in their operation."

At Boston, in the United States Circuit Court on June 13, the case of the United States vs. the American Bell Telephone Company, to vacate the Bell patent, came up for argument on the demurrer of the Telephone Company.

In a suit brought against the State of North Carolina in the name of a citizen of that State to compel the payment, by the levy of a special tax, of the overdue coupons on State bonds issued in 1869, Judge Bond, in the United States Circuit Court, held that the acts subsequently passed by the Legislature to stop the collection of taxes to pay this interest are null and void, and that the agents of the State must collect the taxes to pay it. North Carolina has funded her debt except this issue of bonds.

The effort continues to be made to divide the Territory of Dakota with the hope that the southern part may be admitted into the Union. A call has been sent out for the residents of the southern part to assemble in county conventions on July 7, and to select delegates to a general convention of the friends of division to be held at Huron on July 13. The objects of this convention are to provide for a thorough canvass of South Dakota before the next election, to get as many votes as possible in favor of division.

William E. Chandler was chosen by the Republican caucus of the New Hampshire Legislature on June 9 as the party's candidate for the United States Senate, and elected June 14.

The protracted strike of workmen at the coke ovens in Pennsylvania had caused the shutting down of iron mills in Chicago and thrown many workmen there out of employment. But the advance in wages asked for was granted June 13 by one of the coke companies, which gives employment to 3,000 men, and the burning of enough coke was begun again to enable the mills that depend on it to resume operations. At a coal mine near Scranton, Pa., where there had been a strike for several months, working miners in a fight with strikers shot three of them June 9. Building is yet practically suspended at St. Paul by a strike of 1,200 carpenters, who refuse to work more than nine hours a day. The contractors are resolved that a day's work shall be ten hours. The practical cessation of building at Chicago by strikes and lockouts of the carpenters and masons and hod-carriers is not yet broken. The Union Labor party in Iowa held a State Convention June 9 and nominated a State ticket. The Chicago Socialist Society June 12 adopted a petition to the Governor of Illinois to veto the Anti Conspiracy Bill, which has passed both houses of the Legislature. At a Sunday meeting of New York Anarchists at Oak Cliff Park, N. J., there was a fight, in which a number of pistol shots were fired and two constables wounded. John Most was one of the speakers.

The celebration of the discovery of natural gas at Findlay, O., was extended over several days, and an important part of the programme was the delivery, June 9, of after-dinner speeches by Senator Sherman and Gov. Foraker on the industrial building up of the West, and the part that natural gas is doing and will do towards it.

There has been very active speculation in coffee, and the price was advanced for a brief time quite a hundred per cent. above the usual range of prices during the last few years. A sudden "break" in the price on June 13 caused the failure of three firms in this city.

The Havemeyer sugar refinery in Brooklyn, N. Y., which was one of the largest in the United States, was burned early on the morning of June 11. One man perished, and the loss was nearly $1,000,000. So mysterious was the origin of the fire that it is suspected to have been incendiary.

A pastoral letter from Bishop Potter in regard to the movement for erecting a great cathedral in this city was read June 12 in the Protestant Episcopal churches of this diocese. After referring to the deep interest taken in the project by the late Bishop Horatio Potter, the letter suggests that the undertaking "may well be made, in some way or in some part of it, to commemorate his exemplary life and unwearied services." The letter goes on: "Those of us whose home is in the city of New York have long felt that there was needed in this metropolitan city a metropolitan church, whose sittings should be free to all without condition or reserve, and whose services should welcome to its stalls every clergyman of the diocese as to his mother's roof. We have felt, too, that there was needed, as a centre of the mission work of a great city and of representative charities to be grouped about it, a sanctuary at once stately and ample, where all great gatherings of our people might be had, and where memorable events and anniversaries, whether local or national, might find their fitting observance; and yet again it has been felt that a diocese such as this should provide a sanctuary where its Bishop may administer the Word and sacra-

ments and confer the Church's orders as other than a visitor or guest." About half a million dollars have already been subscribed to the fund to build the proposed cathedral.

The case brought in the Supreme Court in this city to test the validity of the law which prohibits the selling of liquor on Sunday, even by hotel-keepers to their guests, was decided against the hotel-keeper who brought it, the Judge holding that he could sell liquor only by virtue of a license which specifies that liquors shall not be sold on Sunday, and that a violation of this condition annuls the license, so that he cannot lawfully sell liquor at all.

A bronze statue of Nathan Hale was unveiled in the Capitol at Hartford, Conn., June 14, and formally transferred by the Nathan Hale Statue Commission, for which Mr. Charles Dudley Warner was the spokesman, to the State, and was accepted by Gov. Lounsbury.

On Sunday, June 12, a monument erected in the burial plot of the New York Press Club in Cypress Hills Cemetery was dedicated. Addresses were made by several newspaper writers.

Among the deaths of the week are those of Bishop Stevens (Episcopal) of Pennsylvania, June 11, in his sixty-second year; Mrs. Andrew D. White at Ithaca, N. Y., in her fifty-seventh year, on June 8; the Rev. W. W. Bennett, a prominent Methodist preacher in Virginia, who ran the blockade during the civil war and went to England to get Bibles for the Confederate soldiers, on June 9; George Draper of Hopedale, Mass., who was one of the leading manufacturers in New England, and a former abolitionist; James N. Buffum, an older and more prominent abolitionist, at his home in Lynn, Mass., June 12; the Rev. Edward Woolsey Bacon, son of the late Rev. Dr. Leonard Bacon, at Ocean View Farm, Santa Clara County, Cal., on June 7.

FOREIGN.

Rapid progress has been made in the House of Commons, in committee, with the Irish Crimes Bill, by the frequent use of the closure rule. Clause four was adopted June 9, and the section providing for the removal of venue to London was stricken from the bill. Mr. Smith, the leader of the House, on June 10 moved that on June 17 the Chairman should put the question on any motion, amendment, or proposal relating to the clause then under discussion, and on each remaining clause of the bill. Under closure the motion was carried by a vote of 245 to 93. During the debate Mr. Gladstone said that he would not offer futile opposition, but wished to protest with emphasis against such a procedure. Mr. Parnell also made a speech in protest, and moved an amendment that the House decline to sanction a resolution limiting freedom of debate and assailing the rights of minorities, which was rejected. The gravity of this procedure is in the fact that the Government has given the leader of the House the power to decree by an absolute majority (not by three to one as Mr. Gladstone proposed in 1881-82) that discussion on any bill shall be closed by a certain day—a power that the Liberals may in turn use as it is now used against them.

The fifth clause of the Crimes Bill, which deals with the proclaiming of districts, was taken up in the House of Commons June 13. Amendments that proclamations be made by order of the Privy Council instead of by the Viceroy, that proclamations be issued only on the report of a Judge of the High Court after a local inquiry, and that the authority of the Viceroy, in proclaiming, be limited to districts where it might be necessary for the prevention of crime and outrage, were rejected; and an amendment by the Government providing for summary jurisdiction and change of venue in cases where crimes are committed before the issue of a proclamation after the passage of the act, was adopted.

A section of the Parnellites has refused to listen to the advice of Mr. Gladstone that only the weightier points in the Crimes Bill be discussed, and unimportant amendments are offered. There is now no concerted plan of opposition; and Mr. Chamberlain, speaking at a Unionist dinner June 14, said he rejoiced that the game of lawlessness and disorder was up at last; for the people had examined Mr. Gladstone's statements for themselves, and their faith in his judgment and patriotism had been rudely shaken.

Provoked by Mr. Gladstone's "stumping" in Wales, the Liberal Association on June 8 passed resolutions regretting that while he had made minor concessions with reference to the Irish bill of 1886, he adhered to the plan for an Irish Parliament, and expressing the conviction that his speeches will discourage the hope of reunion. Little reason is now left for hope of a union of the sections of the Liberal party.

The London *Times* continues to publish articles on "Parnellism and Crime," in the effort to show that the Parnellites have been in alliance with the violent Irish party in England and in the United States. On June 13 the accusation was made in one of these articles that it was an opportune remittance from Mr. Parnell that enabled Byrne to escape to France, and the *Times* asked: "Is Mr. Parnell prepared to take steps to put this statement to proof or even to contradict it?"

More evictions of tenants at Bodyke, Ireland, have been made. Many of them barricaded their houses, women threw boiling water from the windows on the police, and there have been several fights. The priests have in most cases prevailed on the people to desist from violence, and the houses have been entered by armed policemen, and the plunder broken and thrown out; and some arrests have been made.

An Irish meeting was called at Bodyke on Sunday, June 12, to protest against the evictions and the Government prohibited it; but Michael Davitt eluded the police and addressed 5,000 persons at Feakle and a crowd at Scariff. He asserted the people's right of meeting in public, and said that if the people were armed they could deal with the black-coated burglar brigade as they deserved. He expressed the expectation that the meeting at Scariff would be the last which he should have a chance to address before the Coercion Act would again give him the luxury of a prison plank bed. He gave this advice: "Boycott the inquisition clauses of the Coercion Act, and welcome imprisonment rather than assist the Government to make the act operative."

Queen Victoria has signed the Anglo Turkish convention concerning Egypt, and it has been presented to the Sultan.

Queen Victoria will put on the state robes and be surrounded with all the insignia of sovereignty after entering Westminster Abbey on the day of the jubilee service. Eight thousand troops will line the route, besides a guard of honor of 600 persons.

The jubilee gift that the Pope will send to Queen Victoria is a mosaic reproduction of Raphael's fresco representing a figure of Poetry. The two young priests who will convey it to London will be made bishops in honor of the occasion.

The jubilee yacht race around Great Britain and Ireland was begun June 14, twelve yachts entering the race. They were started by the Prince of Wales. The weather was good and the *Genesta* soon took the lead.

Lord Tennyson has been suffering with gout, and has been ordered by his physician to take a yacht cruise.

The five steamers of the Monarch Steamship Line were offered for sale, in a lump, in London June 9, but the highest bid was only £112,000. This was not accepted, and the steamers will be sold singly.

Emperor William of Germany was so ill on June 8 as to require morphia to cause sleep, and for several days he did not leave his bed.

Dr. Mackenzie, the English surgeon, on June 8 performed another operation on the throat of the Crown Prince, Frederick William, and, it is reported, gave assurance of a cure. In spite of this hopeful report of the Crown Prince's condition, which is officially given out, the fear finds daily expression that the disease will prove fatal. The Berlin correspondent of the London *Chronicle* wrote, June 13, that Bismarck and the royal family consider the Prince's early death certain, and that after making a microscopical examination of the growth cut from his throat, Prof. Virchow went to the palace, and, with tears in his eyes, declared that the malady was incurable. But there is no better authority than rumor for these statements.

There is a bill under discussion in the German Reichstag to require greater protection for women and children in factories. The clause increasing the minimum age at which children may be employed from 12 to 13 years was passed June 8.

The trial of members of the Alsatian Patriotic League on a charge of high treason, for supporting attempts to separate Alsace-Lorraine from Germany, was begun at Leipzig June 13. A pipe-maker in Metz has been fined for making pipes with a carved image of Gen. Boulanger on them. Albert Delpit, an American by birth, and a well-known French journalist, was expelled from Alsace on June 12, after he had obtained permission to visit a friend in the province, because of the anti German tone of his writings.

The Municipal Council of Paris has passed a vote of censure on the Prefect of Police, the Minister of the Interior, and the Minister of Fine Arts, holding them responsible for the recent disaster at the Opéra Comique, and has adopted a resolution granting theatres, cafés, and concert halls three months to substitute electric lights for gas.

Herrmann, the celebrated prestidigitateur, died at Carlsbad June 8, aged sixty-six; Anselme Polycarpe Batbie, the French lawyer and statesman, died on June 13.

Crowds of persons made a pilgrimage to Caprera June 7 to commemorate the anniversary of Garibaldi's death. They laid wreaths on his tomb and visited his house.

The flood in Hungary has not subsided. Rescuing parties have been obliged to force the helpless people at some places into the boats, because they refused to leave their houses and property. Marauders, wading through the waters at night, have plundered deserted houses, and the suffering of the common people has been great. Several persons have committed suicide, and many women have become insane through terror and hunger. A vast area is inundated, and there have been recent rains.

The Russian Government has issued an order forbidding Coreans or Chinese to settle within Russian territory bordering on Corea or China.

It is reported from Merv that the Russians at Tchardjui are fitting out two steamers and a number of iron lighters to transport material for the Transcaspian Railway and to reconnoitre on the Amu-Daria River; and that the British are equipping two light-draft steamers with steel guns for use upon the upper Amu-Daria.

A succession of severe earthquake shocks in the province of Semiretchensk, Turkestan, has killed more than a hundred persons and hurt many more, and done great damage to property. One town is reported to be almost destroyed.

The American Board of Foreign Missions has been informed of a famine in Asia Minor, in a region of which Adana is the centre. The afflicted district contains more than 100,000 inhabitants, of whom 80,000 are destitute, and cannot be kept from starvation without help from abroad. Many of them have sold their furniture, in some cases even their beds. The harvest time has passed, but not a single sheaf of grain will be cut on many of the plains, which are generally so fertile.

PROHIBITION AS A SOLVENT OF PARTIES.

In his speech on the political situation recently delivered before the Commonwealth Club of this city, and published in a late number of *Harper's Weekly*, Mr. Geo. William Curtis made a striking comparison between the attitude of the anti-slavery Whigs toward their old party forty years ago, and the attitude of the temperance Republicans toward their old party now. "The Whig party," he said, "was more anti slavery than the Democratic, and the Whig leaders declared that for anti-slavery Whigs to take separate action was to betray their own cause by aiding its worst enemies. But after Charles Sumner, then a Whig, had eloquently besought Mr. Webster to add to his well-won title of Defender of the Constitution the nobler name of Defender of Humanity, and to place himself at the head of the Whig party as an anti-slavery party, and Mr. Webster had politely regretted their difference of opinion upon the relative importance of public questions; and when the speeches and votes of Whigs upon the Mexican war aided what seemed to Sumner and the Conscience Whigs the conspiracy of slavery; they saw in New England, as their fellow-believers saw in Ohio and New York, that the Whigs as a party cared more for what they called Whiggism, and for the success of the party, with all the necessary conditions of success, than for the anti-slavery cause; and the secession began which ended in the formation of the Republican party." In like manner, he pointed out, the temperance Republicans fear that the Republican party cares more for what it calls Republicanism than for the cause of temperance, which seems to its friends the chief issue, and they begin to march away. "In vain the Republican leaders cry, and cry truly, that they are more friendly to temperance legislation than the Democrats, and that to desert them is in effect to aid the saloon. The distinctive temperance vote steadily increases. The retiring forces reply that had the anti-slavery Whigs listened to that siren plea, there would have been no Republican party. It is those who believe a cause to be paramount to all other causes who give it victory. In the spirit that formed the Republican party they will apparently raise their separate standard once again and rally their recruits from the Republican camp."

Since Mr. Curtis delivered this speech the accuracy of his diagnosis has been remarkably confirmed by the course of events in the State of Webster and Sumner. There is no question that a majority of the Republicans in Massachusetts believe in prohibition, and desire to have the principle embedded in the Constitution of the State. The men who believe in prohibition feel sure that a majority of the voters in the State are with them in this matter, and are confident that a prohibition amendment to the Constitution would be carried if it were submitted to the people. Pending the settlement of the constitutional question, the temperance Republicans want to have the present restrictive laws made still more rigorous. The Republican State Convention last fall committed the party in unqualified terms to further restrictive legislation and to the submission of the amendment. After referring to the disastrous effects of intemperance, the resolution said: "We favor such further legislation as may be necessary to render the existing laws more effective. Believing, also, that whenever a great public question demands settlement an opportunity should be given the people to express their opinion thereon, we favor the submission to the people of an amendment to our Constitution prohibiting the manufacture and sale of alcoholic liquors to be used as a beverage." The applause with which this resolution was greeted showed that the platform-makers had correctly interpreted the sentiment of the delegates.

But the Republican managers never intended to have the pledges of this platform redeemed. They were made only in order to hold prohibition Republicans in the party, and prevent their supporting the Prohibition candidate. They succeeded in their purpose, for it is safe to say that at least 10,000 Republicans who would have joined the third party except for this plank, supported Ames because of it, and he had only 9,463 plurality. The Legislature having met, the temperance people asked to have the campaign pledges redeemed, but measure after measure, aiming at further restriction of the liquor traffic, which passed the lower branch, was killed in the upper, although twenty-five of the forty Senators are Republicans. Months passed without the first step being taken regarding the amendment. At last a resolve proposing its submission was brought forward in the Senate, and allowed to pass that body, the Republican Senators who are friendly to "the liquor interest" requiring their friends in the House to shoulder the responsibility this time. They responded last week, when, although fourteen Democrats voted for submission, enough Republicans voted the other way to leave the majority tantalizingly short of the requisite two-thirds. It was the same sort of trick which the Republican managers in New York played at Albany a few years ago, and everybody of any sense knows that it was understood, from the very day the pledge of submission was made in the platform, that it was made for campaign purposes only, and that it should be broken after it had served those purposes.

The course of the Legislature has opened the eyes of many men who believe in temperance, but who have hitherto supported the Republican party in the belief that they could secure their ends through that party. Even before this latest performance, a revolt had started in one of the Western Massachusetts towns, which is full of significance. Conway is a rural town of Franklin County, immediately adjoining Ashfield, the summer residence of Mr. Curtis. A few weeks ago the following paper was drawn up and circulated for signatures: "We, the undersigned, legal voters of Conway, promise our hearty support to the Prohibition party, provided twenty-five voters of this town agree to the same." Within a short time it was signed by 70 men, 65 Republicans—one-half of the Republican vote last year—and 5 Democrats. The correspondent of the county Republican paper says that they are "the prominent and influential men of our town," and their high standing with their old associates is shown by the fact that they include the Chairman, Secretary, and two other members of the Republican Town Committee, and two men who have been elected to the Legislature in past years by the Republican party. Such an incident would be startling if it stood alone, but there seems to be no reason why it may not be duplicated in many another town. Dr. John Blackmer of Springfield, who has figured as candidate for Lieutenant-Governor on the Prohibitory ticket, and is a member of the State Committee, tells a *Republican* reporter that the method employed at Conway does not differ from what is being done all over the State, excepting that perhaps the success is more complete there than at the average place. The State Committee's intention is to have the party thoroughly organized and in working condition by the next election. The Greenfield *Gazette and Courier*, the Republican county paper, after a tribute to the high character of the Conway Republicans, makes these comments: "We cannot say that we are surprised at the movement, or that we should marvel if the movement should become contagious. The Republican party promises, but does not religiously keep its promises on the liquor question. It is hampered by a desire to appease the liquor interest and does not dare to cut loose and become the champion of prohibition in deed as well as in word."

The coming year is evidently to witness a remarkable development of the Prohibition party. Hitherto the Republicans who believed in prohibition did not dare to support the Prohibition party, for fear that they might let the Democrats into power and so "ruin the country." But that bogy has been effectually done for, and in 1888 they will vote as they choose.

SOCIALISTIC PLATITUDES.

Mr. Morrison I. Swift, writing in the *New-Englander* on Socialism, draws a rather lugubrious picture of the dangers with which it threatens the civilized world, and then says: "How to meet the difficulties which this paper has outlined, we shall not here undertake to discover." This—without meaning to be disrespectful—irresistibly suggests the question, Why, when he had no solution to offer, did he write the article describing the "difficulties"? Surely we have had enough of these accounts of the power and peril of Socialism from writers and preachers who do not even pretend to know what is to be done to avoid them. Surely, too, every sensible and observing man knows that these articles feed the fires of anarchical discontent all over the country; that there is nothing more mischievous than persuading ignorant men that they are suffering from evils for which nobody knows any peaceful remedy.

It is true that, at the close of his essay, it occurs to Mr. Swift that he ought to give us at least a hint of how we are to get out of our scrape; so he says: "It is useless to face Socialism with old weapons. It can only be successfully met by an early recognition of whatever justice there is in its claims, and the hearty endeavor to alter

the operations of the social organism accordingly." Now, is not this very unprofitable? How does it help us to be told that "we must recognize whatever justice there is in the claims of Socialism"? How are we to "recognize" it — in books, and pamphlets, and articles, or in the management of our private business? If in the latter, how? Moreover, how are we to know the "justice" in its claims? Where is this justice authoritatively described? Is there any general agreement about it among Socialists themselves? And what are "the operations of the social organism" which we must "alter"? Who is going to begin altering them, and who is to superintend the process and see that it does not go too far and yet goes far enough? Finally, ought not the discussion of this subject to be suspended among writers and orators who confess that they have no clear ideas whatever about it? Should we not all, before we approach it, follow Dr. Johnson's advice and clear our minds of cant?

Mr. Swift finds fault with us for attaching in these columns significance to the fact that the Socialist dissatisfaction with the world as it is, has not produced any sign of an economic reconstruction of society in the Socialistic direction; for, says he, "we have been accustomed to believe that a very essential part of any social reconstruction is a change in the mental attitude of men, which finally culminates in a change of visible institutions." And the first change, he maintains, has taken place. This would be important if there were anything new in Socialism in its present form, which is simple discontent with the unequal distribution of property. This mental attitude is as old as civilization, and has found expression at some period or other either in the religion or politics of every civilized race. The reason why nothing has ever come of it is that the experience of mankind has shown, in every age, that to secure a more equal division of property you must not only secure a change of mental attitude—that is, a change of political or economical opinions—but a change in human character. In other words, it has been found that when you go to work to "alter the operations of the social organism," what concerns you most is not what people think about the social organism, but how they behave in it. A man's "views" or "mental attitude," for instance, are of very little consequence to those whom he asks to take him into partnership on an equal footing in working an iron mill. What they seek to know about him is whether he is industrious, intelligent, sober, faithful, peaceable, and frugal, and will contribute his full share to the production of the mill. If he is, they are willing to get him into their "organism." If he is not, they get rid of him, no matter what his mental attitude may be. It has always been so, and, Mr. Swift may rely on it, so it will always be. If we threw our argument into the George-McGlynn form, we should say that God meant human society to be organized always, and, on the whole, in the interest of the industrious, prudent, self-denying, ingenious, shrewd and honest people; and will on no account permit it to be controlled by the lazy, stupid, and shiftless, or reorganized for their benefit, no matter what changes their mental attitude may undergo, seeing that their opinions almost always change in the direction of more work for their neighbors and less for themselves.

FORESTS AS PLAYGROUNDS.

Lovers of the woods will welcome the tidings of a new movement affecting the heart of the Adirondacks. A number of gentlemen have lately bought the greater part of Mount Marcy (Tahawus), with intervening country to the Hunters' Pass at the head of Elk Lake, including the Ausable Ponds, and intend to preserve it all and to make many improvements, rendering this wild region more accessible and enjoyable, without affecting its peculiar charm of wildness. We learn that they are already at work upon the road leading to the Lower Ausable Pond from the head of the Keene Valley (at the Beede House), hitherto a "pass of fear," even in good weather, while in wet it has been a mere ditch of mud and water, hateful to the hardiest pedestrian; not avoidable, either, by any trail or other subterfuge, since it was the only route to the interior woods, even for foot-travellers.

In all the region under mention, improvements of this kind are greatly needed. Owners of forests who hold them as investments have no interest in the convenience of summer visitors; and even those to whom such interest is of peculiar consequence—who get their living out of the annual flow of forest travel—rarely look beyond the immediate returns of a single season, or do anything, or plan anything, to make their neighborhoods more attractive. Adirondack hotel-keepers and guides commonly are very slow of perception in matters directly affecting their business, while a silly jealousy hinders the doing of many things which they know well enough might be done to their own advantage. A man will not improve a road leading to his hotel, or clear out a trail lying within his accustomed routes, because somebody else may profit by his labor. If an ugly windfall comes across a trail which a guide may traverse fifty times in a season, he will not chop it out, but will climb over it, or track around it, and make the parties he may conduct do so, until it decays. Yet if every guide would occasionally carry an axe, and clear out a bad place or two, say once a week, the trails would be in permanent fair condition. It is no answer to this to say that one must not look for the sidewalk of Broadway in the woods. People do not look for it there, but they look for the local equivalent of the Broadway sidewalk—that is, not the absence of all rough or wet places, but paths reasonably fair and open, on which one may swing along mostly at a good rate, and take some pleasure in the woods as he goes, not being obliged to put his whole mind to the process of getting on. A trail is not a place to endure hardness—that can be got ten feet away from it almost anywhere in the brush, and thoroughpaced amateurs of the forest who have leisure for exploring, know well the delights of inventing ways and "making" an untracked mountain-top or pass by the sheer power of their strength and wits matched against the intricacies of the woods. Trails are the means of getting from point to point comfortably, and should be as good as may be. Perhaps, so long as guides exist, guideboards will not be suffered in the Adirondacks under any ownership. It is altogether probable that the guides would tear them down as fast as they were put up, though this would be foolish, since a few direction posts here and there on the main trails would tempt into the woods many new travellers, out of whom much fresh profit would be got by the guides in the long run. Their property of camps and boats makes guides a necessity at last. Their present policy of making themselves necessary on all occasions, even for trivial little excursions, tends to scare people from the woods both by exaggerated notions of the difficulties of forest travel, and by increasing unnecessarily the cost of movement in any direction. This keeps many visitors in the settled and frequented places, whereas the guides should wish to see wandering made easy and inviting to the greatest possible number.

Under the new holding some of the things will be done that we have hinted at, but after all the first and last advantage of such a change of ownership is the security of the forests. At any rate they will remain, and this is no light thing, considering what has happened elsewhere in the Adirondack country, on the north, on the south, at the east, and even in parts about the centre. For instance, last summer, though the woods were yet visibly unbroken before him to the south, one lying for a nooning amid the stern splendors of the Indian Pass must have felt a chill as he heard distinctly the ring of axes by Lake Henderson steadily working up into the stretched wilderness. The railway from the north nearly reaches the St. Regis lake country, pushing in front the portable steam sawmill, before which miles of timber go down in a season. The railway from the east has invaded Loon Lake. Now the land taken up by the gentlemen who, though following their own pleasure, have laid us all under obligation, has hitherto belonged mainly to owners who cared only for the timber it carried; there was no certainty that it might not be cut over at any time, and ruined for all purposes of delight. Security against this is cause for public gratitude. There are other associations of gentlemen in the same category with these new owners—they are alike to be thanked, if not for public spirit as a sole motive, at least for the exercise of good taste in a manner by which the public must profit.

THE BACHELORS OF ART.

Now is the time for the annual article warning the college graduates that they are not so wise as they think they are; that they will be rudely undeceived if they suppose that their degree is going to do them any good in the great world in which they have entered, and especially in the newspaper offices. The warning touching the inadequacy of a mere college training for the work of journalism has to be made especially solemn, owing to a delusion among new Bachelors of Arts that editorial chairs can be had for the asking in any of the great towns of the country by anybody producing a degree from a salt-water college. They are accordingly carefully prepared by the existing occupants of these chairs

for much bitter disappointment when they come round to look for work, a few weeks after commencement. The variety and intricacy of the technical training needed to produce spicy or pungent paragraphs or scathing editorials are much dwelt on, and the unfortunates who have determined to embrace journalism as a career for which any college man is fully equipped, are advised to prepare for a long period of laborious obscurity, during which even the older office boys will have the right to look down on them. As regards other callings, the outlook for them, they are told, is not much better. The best that can be said for their degree is that it will not hurt them. But, on the other hand, it is not concealed from them that the time they have spent in getting it has probably enabled younger men to get ahead of them in any business they may take up.

This journalistic custom of warning the graduates against self-importance seems, however, to be rather a tradition which has come down from a period when college training was rated far more highly as a special preparation for life than it is now. We doubt much if there be any calling except the ministry for which young men in our time think a college education a necessary preparation. Most young men go to college either because they desire earnestly for its own sake the kind of knowledge a college gives them, or because they think it would be a pleasant way of passing four years, and would give them a better social standing afterwards than they would otherwise have, and a feeling of cameraderie through life with a number of agreeable men of their own age. The number of those who enter college with a view to a definite pursuit is, we imagine, now really very small. A large proportion, by the time they are graduated, have probably made up their minds what they will try to do to get a living, but what they actually do afterwards is largely a matter of accident. It has been said with a good deal of truth, that two-thirds of the men in any calling do not know why they entered it. They mostly drift into it, along the line of least resistance. They push against every door they come to, and finally hit upon one which gives way and lets them in; but what it will open on, they rarely know, and do not always care. The father's calling has perhaps as much influence as anything else in deciding, when the young man has no special tastes of his own. Either the father likes it much, and determines that the son shall follow it, or he hates it, and determines that no child of his shall have anything to do with it. As a general rule, fathers are disposed to advise sons against following in their own footsteps, if it seem just as easy in order to get a living to follow in somebody else's, for the simple reason that they are so much impressed by the difficulties and drawbacks which they know. Then, too, there is hardly any man, however successful in his own calling, who has not dreamed of being something else which would have touched his imagination more, and is not, therefore, inclined to advise a young man in whom he feels an interest to try that something.

As a general rule the bulk of college graduates, like other young men, desire, most of all things, to be able to support themselves quickly in some employment for which they have some preparation, or at all events in which unfitness will not be immediately and sharply exposed. Graduates who find they are at all fluent with their pens, try their luck in newspaper offices, not because they think that their degree has made them journalists, but because they think journalism is the easiest paid work they can get hold of. Almost every man, young or old, graduate or non-graduate, is apt to be deceived by facility in writing or speaking. It is the hardest thing in the world for a glib man to believe that he has nothing to say worth saying. And there is no offence against human society which is apt to go so long unpunished and unexposed as the practice of talking rubbish or platitude—a man may grow old in this art without knowing it. So that the rapture of a young man on finding that he writes articles or makes speeches easily, is very comprehensible and pardonable. That on discovering it he should hurry to a newspaper office and offer to haul people over the coals for a moderate salary, is the most natural thing in the world. So also, however, is the indignation of the old hands who have already passed some years in the work. Every man who has a calling is irritated or disgusted by the suggestion that to practise it successfully needs neither training nor experience. This suggestion the new Bachelor of Arts who applies for editorial work, makes by implication, and hence the annual articles on his presumption and on the insignificance of his diploma. But he is not to blame. He is simply a man of his time.

"ALCESTIS" IN OXFORD.

OXFORD, May 31, 1887.

EVERY one knows that Oxford in the May term is besieged and taken by the ladies. So it is this year, only more so. "The Christians to the lionesses," as an Oxford wit said some years ago. This month no mention shall be made of lectures or examinations. Boards of studies and professors' chairs give way to temporary ball-rooms. Only the clamor for tickets, the shouts of applause at high jumps and long races, are heard in the land. The daily cricket match, the daily boat-race, in which the submissive slave strains every nerve at oar or on tow-path to pander to the barbaric taste of his conqueror, are the occupation of the precious hours. Motley is the only wear, and a very pretty costume it is.

One of the most distinguished colleges is given up to musical orgies three nights in the week. The last outbreak of dementia is a cantata in which the follies of Oxford are set forth, solemnly and with intent, it is said, to serious criticism, under the form and title of a well-known nursery rhyme; the hero-undergraduate being a certain self-willed frog who is led astray by a felon rat with black legs, and the charms of a too-seductive mouse, while the master of the college watches the downward progress of his disciple with dismay, and sighs over it, under the time-honored name of Mr. Anthony Rowley. Whom the gods have doomed they first dement. All this is done to please the ladies, who are now masters of Oxford. And so it has been found necessary by the obsequious slaves to provide amusement of another kind for those of their masters who are "easily firsts" in the class lists. A Greek play is being acted at the new theatre, that bone of contention among the University authorities. Even those who were most averse to the innovation have lowered their flag to the attractions of the new announcement. The performance of "Alcestis," with a real lady in the title-rôle, is running a neck-and-neck race with the boats this week. It is pleasant to think how rapidly the knowledge of Greek has spread among the dominant race—to judge by the proportion of ladies to the rest of the audience; it must be a great encouragement to the promoters of the higher education of women. This is probably the last chance for the classics. Next year the great masterpieces of the Slavo-Lettic drama will occupy the University stage, for by that time the new school will have triumphantly established the right of this widely known and much-admired language to supersede the inferior forms of speech which are properly called dead. Who, indeed, could have thought that the old classical dog had so much life in him? This is doubtless the last bone that will be thrown to him. No wonder the old fogies whose brains have been addled on Latin and Greek are chuckling over this their last morsel. Next year Oxford will do better; for the present we must put up with Euripides.

The play has been admirably put on the stage. It does great credit to all concerned, and specially to Mr. Mackinnon, the stage-manager. Those who are new to such things cannot fail to be greatly fascinated by the stately chorus, beautifully draped in harmonious colors, moving with solemn rhythmic motion as it is swayed by the successive emotions of pity, wonder, and reverence of the gods. This dramatizing of the feelings of the spectator is strange to us moderns, and very impressive in its fascination. Some of the music is extremely beautiful—there might well have been more of it. It seems scarcely fitting that when all that the chorus has to say is lyrical, some of it should be spoken. The fresh young cultivated voices, rising quaintly from the old men's bearded lips, full of rich pure tone, are delicious to the ear.

In the centre of the upper stage the curtain is drawn aside and discovers the figure of the Apollo Belvedere, in the full blaze of light, an admirable contrast to the next apparition, when, from clouds which it would be better not to call steam, is evolved the striking figure of Death, all swathed in mazy films of ashen drapery—a figure which brings the Fates of Michael Angelo forcibly to mind. But the main interest of the audience is centred on the expectation of the next scene, when the curtain is raised again to usher in the dying *Alcestis*, attended by her ladies and the children, and supported by *Admetus*. She staggers forward, now and then anchoring on *Admetus's* shoulder, now trying to advance along the stage, till she finally sinks into a seat. The horror of death, which she sees from time to time approaching, is upon her; faintness and pain overcome her.

If this be the true conception of the part, it is admirably done. Her self-pity, her physical sufferings, are powerfully expressed. It is not easy to understand why she has consented to such a sacrifice, when for the object of the sacrifice she appears to feel so little affection. Miss Harrison is a scholar, and other scholars uphold her in her conception, this far at least, that the modern spirit of voluntary devotion for a beloved object would be out of place. *Alcestis* had to do it, and did not like doing it. But the realistic display of physical suffering and bodily weakness is surely contrary to the poetic feeling of the Greeks, whose regard for beauty required that all sorrow and suffering should be idealized. It might be hypercritical, perhaps, to complain that in fondling the children Miss Harrison failed to be maternal. Her gestures, though they have much dramatic propriety, sacrifice a little too

much to the determination never to conceal her face from the spectator. Yet the actress has a profoundly impressive personality, and to impose this on the audience must be held a proof of considerable dramatic power. It is difficult to understand why she should always speak in falsetto, when it is well known that she possesses a contralto voice of much sweetness and a wide range of tone.

When at last *Heracles* brings her back to *Admetus*, after wrestling with Death on her behalf, the untutored spectator is appalled at the terrible appearance *Alcestis* assumes—a huddled corpse, with glassy eyes and half-opened mouth, which has of life nothing but the power of walking; hands and arms limp and incapable of motion. The eyes have no speculation in them even when they rest on *Admetus*. She is polluted by contact with the corruption of the grave, and, till the three days of purification are past, the veil which wraps the dead in mystery must not be torn aside. This is strong meat to the ignorant modern, and probably our judgment is at fault in this: we mistake the real moral of the play. It is not *Alcestis's* self-sacrifice, but the duty of hospitality under the most adverse circumstances, which Euripides wishes to inculcate. *Admetus* would not refuse to admit *Heracles* as his guest, though his wife was just dead. As a reward, his wife is restored to him. In almost the last line of the play, *Admetus* again asks *Heracles* to dinner.

THE DUOMO OF FLORENCE.

FLORENCE, May 22, 1887.

THE Church of Sta. Maria del Fiore is unique among the monuments of ecclesiastical architecture in the world, not only for its design, which makes it, in my opinion, the most majestic of all the Italian cathedrals, but for its being the expression of the taste and resolution of the people of Florence—built during the periods of freedom between 1298 and 1887, extending over nearly six hundred years, no one architect having done more than contribute a single feature to the whole as it now stands; and it is probably unique in this fact, too, that it is a harmonized result of so many masters in such widely separated epochs of construction.

In a former letter on Orvieto I mentioned the fact that Arnolfo was called from that city to build for Florence, and among the noble works which he began there he laid in 1296 the cornerstone of a new church under the dedication of Sta. Reparata; the old one, existing in 490, enlarged in 689, not being sufficiently large and fine for so great and rich a city as Florence, then fresh from the victory over the Grandi. The work seems to have been pushed on with great vigor for that day, but in 1310 the architect, Arnolfo, died (this, it will be remembered, was the year that Maitani was called to Orvieto), and the work flagged until 1331, when the guild of woolworkers was charged with the continuance of it, and a tax was laid to furnish funds. In 1334 Giotto was made the chief architect, and designed at least the Campanile; but what part he had in the church we are not informed; as he died two years later, he could not have carried the construction of the church itself far.

In 1355 a commission was appointed to resume the work. What part of it was then complete it is possible to decide only by examination of the cathedral, and this conjecturally as to what was of the design of Arnolfo. The walls of the body of the church have the evidences of three designers. From the façade back to the second piers on each side the work is clearly of the earliest epoch of the construction, pure thirteenth-century Gothic, and was of a lower plan than the present church. It contains three Gothic windows. There is a cornice which runs to the second pier and there stops; beyond this the wall rises several feet before it comes to the cornice, and the style of the cornice changes. But there is a superstructure of wall above the cornice on the older part which brings it to the level of the new, and then the cornice runs over the whole in the same style, while in the wall which lies beyond the second pier, between it and the chapels, there are two windows higher than the three in front of them, and of a style distinctly later. The second side door, called of Andrea Pisano, is in this portion, and is different in its sculpture from the first, which comes in that part of the wall which I consider the earlier. The chapels did not exist then, and were made the subject of a competition or competitions in 1355–56–57. The church designed by Arnolfo was not large enough for the growing ambition of the Florentines, and they decided to enlarge it, "*increasing it at the rear*," by fifty braccie (78 feet *circa*); and in the year 1357 a grand council of citizens, architects, and painters decided on the dimensions of the new church. The width it was decided not to increase. The corner-stone of the first column towards the Campanile was laid with great ceremony the 5th of August, 1357, the architects called in to consult and design being Francesco Talenti, Orcagna, and Ghini, to mention only the chief.

Now, putting documents and building together, I conclude that the sides of the church, as far as the second pier and up to the first and partial cornice, was the work of Arnolfo and in accordance with his plan, which comprehended a smaller church, shorter and less imposing in the octagon, but probably containing the germ of the present design—but the germ only, for we find in the documents the working out of the present design in detail subsequently to the appointment of Talenti, *i. e.*, forty-seven years after the death of Arnolfo. The wall of the façade was probably carried up to its original plan, so that the front of the church was substantially complete as to the outer walls, but, as the columns of the nave were not yet built, the elongation alone was possible without the destruction of good work. The lengthening of the church requiring greater height, the wall already completed was added to, and thus we have the double cornice as far as the second external pier. The windows in the inside of the church for this same portion do not correspond with the outer windows, so that they are both blind windows, inside and out. The reason of this is that, as the wall was higher than originally intended, it had to be strengthened inside; and as the new lengthening of the nave required a different distribution of the inside piers, which do not coincide with the outer, the old windows are obstructed by the inner wall. One of the outside windows comes directly over one of the inner piers. All this seems to me to be accounted for only by the supposition that the part of the church before the second pier was the work of Arnolfo; and as it contains admirable ornament in the doors and windows, and involved great expense, they decided to work it in. The columns were yet to be built, but originally they intended to have three arches, and afterwards decided to have four; the front being shorter than the others, for some reason I have not been able to conjecture.

The body of the church so carried on by Talenti, with continual competition of models and commissions to choose, made progress, and in 1407 the central tribune, with its chapels five, was finished. In 1419 the walls of the octagon were complete and ready for the vault—it is an eight-ribbed octagonal vault, and not a dome, as it is ordinarily called—and here came the *deus ex machina*, Brunelleschi, when the commission which had carried the church so far were beyond their wits to contrive a way to build the roof of their octagon, not having timber enough to build a staging from the ground up to that height, and not knowing how otherwise to do it till Brunelleschi appeared.

Now, the gradual development of the church is marked by a change in the style of the exterior, the feeling of the early Renaissance coming on slowly, and being triumphant in the cornice above the wall of the nave, and in the little external tribunes, like pilgrims' scallop shells, all set round the great vault. The lantern, which was Brunelleschi's, is pure Renaissance, the external decoration, the panelling of white marble and green with bands of red, being kept in accordance with the design of Arnolfo throughout. That the system of ornamentation and the design, with the example, was of Arnolfo, is indicated again by the fact that, in the Campanile (of which we have sufficient evidence that the design and early work were by Giotto himself), the colors are changed, and red takes the place of the dark green, almost black, of the body of the church. This was in accordance with Giotto's instinct as a colorist, while the green instead of the red in the church is the scheme of the Baptistery, which was the work of Arnolfo; and the scheme of Giotto is so evidently the superior that I can hardly believe that, with the Campanile before them, the later builders would have adopted the green and white.

The records are silent with regard to the existence of any façade of Santa Maria del Fiore contemporary with Arnolfo. De Fabris, in his work preparatory to the new façade, discovered a piece of incrustation analogous to that on the church, of about one square metre in extent, with certain other fragments about the doorways, indicating that a façade did exist commenced at least by Arnolfo. But that a Gothic façade was carried to a certain stage of completion during the period of the labors of Arnolfo or his immediate successors, is unquestionable, a reminiscence of it still remaining in a sixteenth-century drawing by Boccetti, and in a lunette painted by him in the first cloister of Saint Mark's. Rondinelli has left a description of it as follows:

"There was a façade with Gothic (*tedesca*) architecture, carried about half-way up, all full of beautiful niches destined for statues, which in later times they put into position. Part were by the famous Donatello, and part by other sculptors, worked with art, beautifully arranged and divided. One saw some chapels among them, divided by most beautiful and varied columns—some smooth and others twisted, so that the variety of marble and of porphyries and the diversity of the statues and columns gave it a very rich appearance, and filled the sight of the spectator with majesty."

Then follows a detailed description of the façade as far as finished, and a list of the statues contained in it. He next goes on to describe the destruction of the façade, accomplished in 1587 by the classicists, who regarded the Gothic as barbarous and unworthy of their time. He says:

"There was no piece of marble which was taken out whole—even columns were broken; which was, in truth, a pitiful spectacle, principally for the ruin of the façade, and then for the breaking of those beautiful marbles and porphyries, worked with so much care that, if they had been taken out entire, they would have served for ornament to many other places, with utility for the works, which would have been able to sell them for some hundreds of scudi."

In 1688 a temporary façade was added to the church on occasion of the marriage of Prince Ferdinand de' Medici, son of Cosimo the Third and of Princess Violante of Bavaria. This had been preceded in 1515 by a painted façade executed by Andrea del Sarto, on a wooden mask, after a design by Sansovino. In 1589 there was another sham façade of canvas, with statues of

stucco and canvas, portions of which remained till 1841. In 1661 another, also on canvas, was executed. That of 1688, being of masonry covered with intonaco (plaster) and painted according to designs by Ercole Graziani, remained, more or less damaged, until the commencement of the present work. New projects for the restoration were being brought forward from 1823 until 1859. The present design is the result of competitions which continued until 1867, when the final decision of the commission accorded it to De Fabris.

The work as uncovered May 12 must be pronounced on the whole a splendid success, and worthy of the church which it completes. Its radical fault, that it is neither basilical nor tricuspidal, is due to the fact that De Fabris designed it as tricuspidal, but was compelled by the general force of public opinion to leave out the minor cuspids after the façade had been carried up to the point of preparation for them, leaving a central gable with square shoulders, corresponding neither with the pitch of the roof nor with the vault of the aisle. To my own taste it is better than if the cuspids had been added, but it remains a compromise. There is a slight crudity in the general color effect, and most critics complain of the violence of the contrast between the white and deep green, almost black; but time will remedy this by toning the white and graying the green. The general effect of the sculpture is admirable, hardly surpassed by anything in Gothic architecture. The central door, especially, is pronounced by Prof. Babcock, a competent critic, certainly one of the most perfect things of its kind in the range of Gothic architecture. The general plan of decoration of the façade is in accordance with similar works of Tuscan Gothic. Over the great door in the tympanum is seated the Madonna, and all the figures in the façade form part of one general design, in which all the personages of the Old and New Testament, and figures symbolical of letters, fine arts, useful arts, science, works of beneficence, figures illustrative of the Commune of Florence and of the church, render honor to the Madonna. An upper line of half figures represent historical personages of the epoch in which the church was constructed; and across the entire façade, immediately under the cornice, the twelve Apostles stand in niches—six for the nave and three for each aisle—while in niches on the four piers, on a level with the tympanums of the smaller doorways, are four seated Bishops. These statues are all executed by the leading Italian sculptors of the day, larger than life, being awarded in competitions, and paid only for the cost of the marble and workmanship. As single statues, they represent the best qualities of modern Italian sculpture, but they agree in one notable defect as members of an architectural whole, viz., not being calculated for the position they are seen in, so that they seem squat in the fore-shortening.

Decorative details are borrowed from the old work to a great extent, and the chromatic and sculpturesque ornamentation throughout as closely as possible follows that in the body of the church. The tympanums and spaces over the doorway are filled with mosaics designed by leading Italian painters and executed by the Murano company. Not the least noteworthy fact, and illustrative of the present condition of art in Italy, is the cost of the work, which, extending over a period of fifteen years, involved the expense of only one million francs—two hundred thousand francs less than the original estimate. There are over thirty full-length statues, and nearly as many bas-reliefs and half figures.

W. J. Stillman.

Correspondence.

THE GOETHE SOCIETY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Referring to the note in No. 1145 of the *Nation*, permit me to remind your readers that by the Weimar Committee I was appointed agent of the Goethe Society for the United States, and that, on payment of $3.25, I can issue members' certificates and supply the publications of the Society, duty paid and free of all forwarding charges to members in this country, as I do now to some thirty members here. If this accommodation stands in the way of keeping alive the public sentiment against the barbarous tariff on books, it saves members the trouble of direct application and remittance and the possible loss of mailed matter, and is a means of delivering the valuable books issued by the Society in a fitter condition than mail transportation allows of.

Respectfully, Ernst Lemcke
(B. Westermann & Co.).

New York, June 9, 1887.

THE BEVERLY INCIDENT ONCE MORE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: For the statements of my note of last week (save as to the tax estimate) I can only refer your Beverly correspondent to the official reports of the two committees of the Legislature, and the testimony before them as printed and published.

As to the tax estimate, I have not yet met a summer resident who expected a lower tax rate. If a fair adjustment of the existing debt was not provided by this year's bill, it should be in next year's.

If it is true, as your correspondent alleges, that this year's vote was due to the power of money alone, the bill this year certainly met a deserved fate. Observer.

HOW TO KEEP AN INN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am a woman, and I have grievances that I appeal to you to make known as the first step towards redress.

I have had occasion this last week to be for several days in some of the smaller towns, and my soul has been stirred within me by the utter discomfort of the hotels. As a practical woman, accustomed to keep house on a moderate income, I have been considering in what ways the hotels and the hotel service may be changed so as to give more comfort with no greater outlay. Why are the ceilings of the rooms so high? No room can seem comfortable when its length, breadth, and height are equal. If the ceilings were lower, it would be possible to reach the gas burners to regulate the supply of gas, and the light would also fall better on the book or sewing when it is needed. The windows, also, would be more manageable; it would be possible to lower the upper sash at night when ventilation is needed. The windows need sash-curtains across the lower half to secure privacy from over-looking windows, but they should never have thick draperies that will hold the odor of the possible cigar of the previous occupant.

Do statistics show that most travellers in America take private parlors? and if they do, why are there so many parlors that have been turned into bedrooms? I object to sleeping on a pine cot in one corner of a large salon furnished in damask or plush. I object still more to sleeping in a bed that has been turned up into a bookcase during the day. Hotel beds at the best are not aired enough. I protest against their being hermetically sealed except when I am in them. Nor do I like to wash at what looks like a writing-desk, and arrange my hair at an étagère. I am not a sham, but I feel like one when I emerge from such a pretentious, comfortless room; and the two or three mirrors that reflect my mortification and disgust are an aggravation instead of a consolation.

Why is not the table linen better, and better looked after? It is disgusting to have a cloth badly ironed, and covered with spots of iron mould. You view your coffee and eggs with a prejudiced mind when you have been obliged to reject two napkins that have been brought to you as clean, but that are stained and torn and only half dried. Why is there no competent housekeeper to see that things are taken care of? No gorgeousness of frieze and cornice in paper reconciles one to a grate that is red with rust; nor does a carpet made more expensive by a border blind your eyes to the fact that it is not swept often enough.

If a town is small, let it have a small, plainly-furnished, comfortable inn, but let it be well looked after. Such inns are to be found in small towns in England—why not here? I am American to the core, and I have enough respect for American men and women, whether they work in shops, travel for commercial houses, or live on the incomes coming from the labors of their ancestors, to think that they would choose comfort instead of show, and neatness instead of tawdriness.

What I therefore demand, and shall continue to demand, is, that the inn or hotel shall be proportionate to the size of the village or town. If the landlord's income is small, don't force on him a house too large. Spend less for furnishing the house, and more for keeping it clean. Leave off the mirrors unless you are sure the proprietor and servants intend to live up to them. Make the ceilings lower. Build more chimneys and put open grates in them. Have halls wider and better lighted. Provide a closet of good size for each room; and the carpenter should be made to understand that women are not six feet tall, and that it tires them to reach far above their heads for a shelf or a peg. Provide some place for women to write letters; and when it is sufficiently cool for an open fire in the smoking-room, I assert it is cool enough for such a fire in the writing-room. Have simpler curtains and carpets, but see that they are kept clean. Have simpler furniture, and let it be cane-seated, instead of something that will hold dust and make rooms stuffy. Call a bed a bed and make it look like one. Go back to washstands instead of set-bowls in dark closets; but if there is a set-bowl, provide a receptacle for the water one uses for one's teeth. Have a table in each room large enough to write at and to hold a few books. Have a housekeeper to see that the maids attend to their work, and that the towels, tablecloths, and napkins are of better quality and kept in better condition. See that there is less show and more comfort. Make it possible, in short, to "take one's ease in one's inn."—Very sincerely,

M. N. S.

New Bedford, June 13, 1887.

Notes.

J. B. Lippincott Co. have nearly ready 'Nineteenth Century Sense: The Paradox of Spiritualism,' by "John Darby" (Dr. James E. Garretson); and 'Thekla,' a story of Viennese musical life, by William Armstrong.

A 'New High-School Music Reader,' by Charles E. Whiting of Boston, is in the press of D. C. Heath & Co.

Ginn & Co. announce 'The Eastern Nations and Greece,' by P. V. N. Myers, President of Belmont College, being Part i. of an Ancient History for Colleges and High Schools. Part ii., 'Rome,' will be from the pen of an equally competent scholar, Prof. W. F. Allen of the University of Wisconsin. Both parts will be illustrated and furnished with colored maps, and be bound together or sold separately. The same firm will publish during the summer a thoroughly revised edition of Dr. Albert S. Cook's translation of Sievers's 'Grammar of Old English,' and, later, Zupitza's 'Old and Middle-English Reader,' translated by Prof. G. E. MacLean of the University of Minnesota.

The Scribners will at once put their imprint on Marion Harland's 'Judith: a Chronicle of Old Virginia,' which they have lately acquired.

The Anti-Rent Riots of New York will be the theme of the second number of the series of monographs on Political Economy and Public Law, edited by Prof. E. J. James of the University of Pennsylvania. The subject has been investigated by Mr. E. P. Cheyney, Instructor of History in the institution just named.

A German publisher in Cologne announces a translation of the 'Life of Leo XIII.,' by Dr. B. O'Reilly of this city, in commemoration of the fiftieth anniversary of the Pope's admission to the priesthood. There are also in the press French, Dutch, Italian, and Spanish translations of this work.

On condition of taking the second volume of I. G. Icazbalceta's 'Bibliografia Mexicana del siglo xvi.,' or a complete bibliography of books printed in Mexico in the sixteenth century, the first is now to be had through B. Westermann & Co. The edition is limited. Numerous titles, etc., are reproduced in facsimile.

We should think that Del Mar's 'Classified Business Directory of Mexico, Central and South America, Cuba and Porto Rico' (New York: Spanish-American Commercial Company), would be of great use to those engaged in or contemplating trade with Spanish America. Certainly it has been compiled with industry and thoroughness, and, with the exception of a few misspelled names, is highly accurate, so far as we are able to test it. Its English, too, is on the whole excellent, though an occasional turn of phrase, such as "all the American mercantile enterprises which have advented in those countries" (p. 365), betrays the writer's foreign birth. The book is not without instruction for the general reader, also, since it shows conclusively (all the more conclusively for doing it indirectly) that the fatal barrier to trade with South America is our tariff. After all the reasons given for the astonishing smallness of the commerce of the United States in its natural market—lack of knowledge on the part of American exporters, lack of enterprise, failure to cater to the native taste, want of direct steamship lines—the author has to acknowledge, believer in the policy of protection that he professes to be, that, if they were all absent, our system of duties would suffice to make a South American trade next to impossible.

The Oxford Historical Society is exhibiting a remarkable degree of enlightened zeal and industry in its publications. It is only three years old, and we have its sixth volume before us, and one not inferior to any of its predecessors in value and interest ('Magdalen College and King James II., 1686-1688. A series of documents collected and edited by the Rev. J. R. Bloxam, D.D.' Oxford: The Clarendon Press). It is a bi-centenary, devoted to the famous Magdalen College case, exactly two hundred years ago. A well-written introduction, of thirty pages, by Rev. H. R. Bramley, gives a brief and clear history of the case, and the rest of the volume is filled with the three hundred and eleven documents, together with index and such other explanatory matter as is found desirable. It is a model of serviceable historical work, and will be indispensable to all students of the English Revolution, and especially of the interesting episode of which it treats.

Of the miscellaneous papers that make up the sixth volume of the Virginia Historical Collections—a handsome product of the Richmond press—the most curious is the charter of the Royal African Company, 1672, whose traffic was in slaves, and among whose incorporators were the Duke of York; Prince Rupert; Anthony, Earl of Shaftesbury, Sir George Carteret, Ferdinando Gorges, and several ladies—Mrs. Dorcas Birkhead, Dame Priscilla Ryder, etc. This document is introduced by a disappointing note by Mr. R. A. Brock, who endeavors to relieve Virginia of the odium of establishing slavery on her own soil, but ends by praising her manufacture of African savages into (Liberian) Christians. This is as antiquated as the colonization authority on which he relies for the growth of the anti-slavery sentiment at the North. The Gilmer papers, military and political, belong to the Revolutionary period, and have much local and some general interest. The orderly-book of Capt. George Stubblefield's company during four months of 1776; the history of the *Merrimac* (alias *Virginia*) in the civil war; and a memorial of the Federal prison on Johnson's Island, Lake Erie, 1862-64, fill out the volume, and give it a decided value.

Mrs. Charles D. Deshler of New Brunswick, one of the leading historians of New Jersey, has made public for the first time an interesting series of letters, parts of correspondence between four Newark lads, John Croes, Ashbel Green, Alexander C. Macwhorter, and Zadock Squier. The correspondence is between three of them who went to Princeton College, then known as Nassau Hall, in 1782, and Croes, who remained in Newark. They are interesting not only for their graphic picture of college life one hundred years ago, but because of the prominence three of the young men afterward reached. Ashbel Green, the grandfather of Governor Green, became President of Princeton College; John Croes was the first Episcopal Bishop of New Jersey; and Alex. C. Macwhorter became one of the most prominent New Jersey lawyers, and, as one of the founders of the *Institutio Legalis*, exerted a wholesome influence on his successors.

Dr. Marvin R. Vincent, in his 'Word Studies in the New Testament' (Charles Scribner's Sons), has attempted to combine in one a sort of enlarged Trench, a reduced lexicon, a condensed concordance, and snatches of a commentary. His success in producing a readable compound has been considerable, and his patient use of the best authorities, and high degree of accuracy, it is pleasant to note. If he sometimes errs in pressing classic usage as interpretative of New Testament Greek, he does it in good company. Trench set that fashion too brilliantly to be superseded speedily, though the best scholarship has shown, we think, the Septuagint to be the true dictionary of the New Testament. We must doubt if Dr. Vincent will succeed in his declared aim of giving to readers ignorant of Greek a sense of the force of Greek idioms, tenses, word-metaphors, etc. Many such, at least, he will bewilder and mislead as much as he will enlighten; in fact, we very much fear that his book will cause to reappear in certain pulpits those allusions to "the exact force of the original" which the Revision bade fair to exterminate.

Dr. F. H. A. Scrivener has just issued from the Cambridge (England) press a beautiful third edition of his well-known 'Novum Testamentum Textûs Stephanici, A. D. 1550,' in which, in addition to the various readings of the second edition (1876), are inserted those of Westcott and Hort, and of the Revisers of 1881, prepared by Mr. W. F. Shilleto, A.M. While making this further concession to the progress of textual criticism, Dr. Scrivener characterizes the text of the Revisers as "Westcott-Hortii placitis forsan nimis arcte consanguineum," and that of Westcott and Hort as "splendidum peccatum, non κτῆμα εἰς ἀεί"; and he thinks that, while following Lachmann's rules, they have erred from the truth even further than Lachmann himself. One who has devoted himself for fifty years to the study of the text of the New Testament, has earned the right to express his opinion, but the world moves and revolutions never go backwards. Dr. Scrivener has also added to the inner margin of this edition the numbers of the Ammonian sections and Eusebian canons, a table of which is prefixed, and to the outer margin a copious list of parallel passages. In other respects the pages correspond exactly to those of the second edition, which is a convenience to the student.

The attention of those interested in coöperative schemes may be called to 'Social Solutions' (Lovell Co.), a translation of the work of M. Godin, the founder of the celebrated Familistère at Guise. The mixture of wild theory with practical sense is not unprecedented, and it is to be found in this volume. Those who have the patience to rake off the chaff will be rewarded by the discovery of a good deal that is valuable regarding the construction and management of a "Palace of Industry."

The book of an invalid is possibly not the best reading for invalids, but in Fannie Nichols Benjamin's 'Sunny Side of Shadow' (Boston: Ticknor & Co.), there is an attempt to brighten the hours of convalescence by telling the reveries of the author in that state. It deals much in excellent quotation, and there is a mild purity in its spirit which wins the consideration of the reader.

'An Index to the Works of Shakspere, Giving references, by topics, to notable passages and significant expressions; brief histories of the plays; geographical names, and historical incidents; mention of all characters, and sketches of important ones; together with explanations of allusions and obscure and obsolete words and phrases,' by Evangeline M. O'Connor (D. Appleton & Co.), is a volume completely described by its title. It is a compilation, from obvious sources, of much information in regard to the plays and cognate subjects, and contains mention of most things for which any ordinary reader would have occasion to consult a book of reference about Shakspere. But its treatment of these topics is inadequate. It is a very incomplete concordance and dictionary; it contains a few quotations from Coleridge, Dowden, Gervinus, etc., in respect to the leading characters; and altogether is a scattering compendium. Its notes, it must be added, are slight and touch only the surface of Shakspere literature; greater fulness would have swelled the volume indefinitely. Scholars and special students have no need of it; but school libraries and others which cannot afford the more expensive works that cover the ground scientifically and thoroughly, will find this convenient, well-printed, and useful.

The 'Shakespeare-Bibliographie, 1885 und 1886,' by Albert Cohen, just issued, is a separately printed portion of the twenty-second volume of the *Shakespeare-Jahrbuch*, the organ of the German Shakspere Society. Its compiler shows the same extraordinary diligence and skill in collecting the materials for his work from the most varied sources as in his former issues. The larger part of the fifty pages is, of course, taken up with English and American titles. The

veteran scholar, Mr. Halliwell-Phillipps, is credited with eleven publications, and the contents of volumes two and three of *Shakespeariana* are given, as well as articles appearing in papers like the *Gazette*, Lawrence, Kansas. From the ten pages given to Germany, it is evident that her scholars still preserve their interest in the study of the English dramatist. The most curious part of the bibliography is the page devoted to Icelandic translations, made within the past few years, of four of the plays, "Hamlet," "King Lear," "Macbeth," "Othello," and two of the "Tempest," together with selections from three others. There is only one Russian translation, but there are four in Greek. The final entry is the most interesting of all, "The Two Gentlemen of Verona, translated into Singhalese, and arranged for the native stage by the insertion of verses to be sung in chorus. Ceylon? 1884 or 1885."

A foreign observer may well believe that the year 1886, commemorated in the *Annual Register* just published (London: Rivingtons), marks for Great Britain the beginning of the greatest constitutional revolution of the century. The incoming of the Gladstone Ministry and its downfall on the Irish question were the outward incidents of the change which we cannot yet forecast. As usual, in this *Register*, non-British countries are summarily treated, with much the effect that comes of half closing one's eyes on a landscape, or of the camera image. The United States is thus reduced to President Cleveland's messages, the fisheries dispute, the Cutting affair with Mexico, the strikes and the Anarchist riot in Chicago, the Henry George and Roosevelt candidacies. The *Register* presents its customary Chronicle or diary of public events for the year; its review of literature, science, and art; and its necrology. No state documents and no *causes célèbres* are put on record. The volume extends an invaluable series.

Five more numbers in the pocket "National Library," edited by Prof. Henry Morley (Cassell), include Coventry Patmore's 'Angel in the House,' De Quincey's 'Murder as a Fine Art, and English Mail-Coach,' 'Trips to the Moon' (Dr. Thomas Francklin's translation from the Greek of Lucian), the second volume of White's 'Selborne,' and another batch of Plutarch's Lives—Cato the Younger, Agis, Cleomenes, the Gracchi.

The last pair of the six volumes of the Riverside edition of Robert Browning's Works—so contrived, by the way, that each volume can be had separately, and the order of the set is indicated only within—combines lyrics and dramatic idyls, translation and transcription from the Greek, the French "Red Cotton Night-Cap Country," the Italian "Pacchiarotto," the Oriental "Ferishtah's Fancies," the cosmopolitan "Parleyings with Certain People of Importance in Their Day," and finally some fragments that have hitherto escaped collection. In a word, these two volumes show all sides of a poet who, by dramatic instinct, prefers blank verse to rhyme, and ruggedness to limpidity. Here he challenges in all ways those who hold him in light esteem because, as he says in "The Inn Album,"

> "he neglects the form:
> But ah, the sense, ye gods! the weighty sense."

Messrs. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., in this handsome American edition, have not "neglected the form."

The contents of the first volume of *Scribner's Magazine* are surely fresh in the minds of our readers. Gov. Washburne's "Siege and Commune of Paris," the French diary of Gouverneur Morris, J. C. Ropes's portrait-studies of Napoleon and Cæsar, Thackeray's inedited letters, Prof. Shaler's Earth and North American Forests, are some of the successes which may be recalled here, without prejudice to divers other contributions of great merit and interest. The illustrations are of a high order. The binding has been very happily conceived and executed.

'Arithmetic in Primary and Grammar Schools' (Boston: Damrell & Upham) is the title of a pamphlet containing the remarks made recently on this subject by Gen. F. A. Walker in the Boston School Committee. He takes vigorous exception both to the amount of time given to the study by the younger scholars, and also to the character of much of the teaching. This, he holds, "is largely made up of exercises which are not exercises in arithmetic at all, or principally, but are exercises in logic," and fitted only for maturer minds. He fortifies his position by quoting similar views on this point by several prominent educators.

Volume vi. of the fourth edition of Meyer's Konversations-Lexikon (New York: Westermann) is now completed, and the seventh volume has advanced to the article Glass, one of the many, industrial and economic, which are carefully prepared for this standard work of reference. France, Florence, and Frankfort-on-the-Main are the leading geographical articles, all accompanied by maps. Under the first there is a fairly objective estimate of the French character, a particular account of the French military establishment, and a full history of the Third Republic, coming down to Boulanger's push to the front. The chapters on French literature and language are also noticeable. In biography, Goethe leads out of sight with more than seventeen pages, and one may learn what is needful of the Goethe Museum and Gesellschaft. Gladstone is allowed two and a half pages. Froude is justly estimated. American biographies are usually executed with discernment, as in the case of Fillmore and Grant. Garfield's claims as a Presidential reformer are decidedly overrated. Under Franklin, one finds mention of the newest edition of his works—Mr. Bigelow's. The woman question fills four pages; but neither the movement in England nor that in the United States has been rightly grasped. Especially is the independent genesis of the latter quite disregarded. It is erroneously asserted that several States have granted the suffrage to women.

From the same firm come Parts 14–17 of the 'Geschichte der Deutschen Kunst,' which conclude the two departments of architecture and statuary (*Plastik*). The series is now about two-thirds finished, wood and metal engraving having yet to be treated of, and promising to furnish as beautiful an array of illustrations as have distinguished the chapters on painting, the builder's and the sculptor's art. Of the *Allgemeine Naturkunde*, Westermann & Co. send us Parts 73–82, which deal with plant-life. Dr. Kerner von Maxilaun of the University of Vienna is the author of this section, and his name is a guarantee of high quality in the text. The chromo illustrations are partly from water-color sketches made by naturalists, and these have a decided charm. As usual, woodcuts in great number are interspersed with the letter-press.

An interesting "epoch study" of the Empress Elizabeth Petrovna, forming a part of the unfinished History of Russia by N. I. Kostomaroff, has just been published from his posthumous papers.

Horner's large etching of Broadway north from Canal Street in 1836 is well known to all who busy themselves with the pictorial antiquities of this city, and has often been copied by photographic reduction. Messrs. James A. Webb & Son, 165 Pearl Street, merchants for whom the print has a special interest, have had it reproduced at scale in facsimile, and from them we receive a copy. The intervening half century has spared hardly a vestige of the house depicted in this plate, which abounds, besides, in curiosities of vehicles, dress, and customs now alike extinct—such as a canvas-covered ice-cart on two wheels; the Greenwich and Wall St. 'bus; a wood-sawyer cumbering the street with his logs and sawhorses, etc.

—The first number of the 'Battles and Leaders of the Civil War' (The Century Co.) shows how a subscription book ought to be made. The De Vinne Press and the corps of artists who serve the *Century* have coöperated in producing a most inviting and beautiful reprint of the war papers which have had such vogue in that medium. It is something more than a reprint, as this instalment shows, for in the original series the Sumter episode was not discussed. Other similar gaps the editors, Messrs. R. U. Johnson and C. C. Buel, discovered when it became a question of making a connected whole of the contributions—Northern and Southern—to the magazine. These have accordingly been provided for, so that the purchaser of the work will get a complete military history of the war. This history, we need hardly say, is really "materials to serve," but not raw materials. The narrative of the actors, great and small, in the desperate struggle is thoroughly readable, and it can be read on both sides of Mason and Dixon's line without bitterness and even without feeling. The conception which gave birth to it was a happy one, and the widest circulation which this great pictorial record can have will be all to the common interest of the citizens of our reunited republic.

—The first edition of 'Shakespeare Outlines,' by Halliwell-Phillipps, was a thin volume. But its author has more divining power than any wielder of witch-hazel for detecting living fountains where others can see only a waterless desert. So the 'Outlines' have grown year by year till the fifth edition had 637 pages, and the sixth last year showed 784. The seventh edition, which came out the last week in May, is still sixty pages more ponderous. Yet Mr. Phillipps's pages never show those marks of easy writing which Sheridan declared with an oath to be hard reading. Regarding this last issue, he writes as follows to an American friend:

> "The last winter's work was about the hardest I have ever had. The brief annex to my 'Outlines' is the result of several months' incessant labor. The subjects newly considered are the Charlecote traditions and the poet's religious opinions, both requiring a careful study of the contemporary law. The statute law is, as a rule, easily interpreted, but it is most difficult in many cases to get at the practice of the ancient common law, and you would, I think, have been amused could you have seen me day after day imbedded amidst black-letter law-books, of which, fortunately, I have a large collection. You will perhaps remember that when you were last here at Hollingbury Copse, in November, 1884, seeing a deed with the autograph of Sir Thomas Lucy, the poet's *Justice Shallow* in 'Merry Wives.' This deed was without a seal. A few months ago, by a piece of great good fortune, I obtained a fine and perfect deed, not only with Sir Thomas Lucy's signature, but with a perfect example of the *three-luces seal*, a great curiosity that I am not a little proud of. The only other specimen, as I believe, to be found in private hands belongs to the Marquis of Bute."

—In the June *Macmillan's* the Rev. Canon Ainger has an interesting study of Coleridge's poem "Dejection," in which he finds some biographical matter. This ode originally appeared in the *Morning Post* of October 4, 1802, six months after it was written, and was afterwards revised and included in the 'Sibylline Leaves,' 1815. October 4, 1802, was the day of Wordsworth's marriage. There is among the Beaumont papers the earliest draft, which is addressed to "William"; in the second or *Morning Post* version "William" becomes "Edmund"; and in the 1815 volume "Edmund" is exchanged for the "Lady" whose existence is a poetic fiction. That

"Edmund" means Wordsworth is also made clear by a letter of Charles Lamb, who writes to Coleridge in Latin, which Canon Ainger freely renders—"I am awfully glad to receive your account of the marriage of Wordsworth (or perhaps I should rather say, of a certain *Edmund* of yours)." Furthermore, this earlier version contains definite and strong lines of friendship which are omitted from the ode as we now have it. It was at this time that Coleridge was coming to a perception of the power and effect of the opium habit, though he had not made his friends acquainted with this cause of his dejection. Canon Ainger goes on to argue that Wordsworth's poem upon the Leech Gatherer was his reply to this tribute and hopeless appeal of Coleridge; and though nothing very definite is shown, it is very likely that such was the case—certainly the stanzas have a remarkably apposite application to Coleridge's individual character and his circumstances. The identification of Wordsworth as the person whose nature really called out Coleridge's ode, the relation between the two poets thus illustrated, and Wordsworth's response to his friend, then entering into the dark shadow of his life, make up a moment of literary history well worth remembering and setting forth. It is not improbable that the divergence of the two friends in later life accounts for Coleridge's changes in the poem. A correspondent in the last *Academy* points out that Canon Ainger was anticipated by Prof. Brandl last year, in his (German) Life of Coleridge.

—The May number of *Les Lettres et les Arts* (Scribners) contains one of Pierre Loti's Oriental sketches similar to those which appeared a few months ago descriptive of Kioto and of Obock. This time he writes of a little territory on the Malabar coast, "Mahé des Indes," which has been French since 1727. With his usual felicities of expression, always surprisingly simple in language and in form, but representing extremely subtle and complicated impressions, he relates the three expeditions he made to the shore during the first three days of January, 1885, when his ship was anchored off the coast. The paper is accompanied by numerous sketches, by Félix Régamey, of this region of India and its people. As a writer, Loti does not lend himself to illustration by another; the vision he brings before the mind is itself too vivid and complete to allow it. There is an excellent paper by M. Gustave Masson, editor of *Les Lettres et les Arts:* "J.-L. Gérôme et son œuvre." The story of the artist and his work is well and simply told, and is illustrated by several of his most characteristic pictures. M. Germain Bapst writes with enthusiasm concerning "Le Bureau de Louis XV." now preserved in the Musée du Louvre, and which has been called "le plus beau monument du xviiie siècle." M. Bapst himself had the good fortune to discover in the National Archives the Memoir containing all the details of construction of this "merveille de l'ébénisterie française." "Aux Affaires étrangères," of which the first part is given in the present number, is a story so extremely cold and naked that it seems rather a collection of facts. The author, M. Paul Hervieu, is much inclined towards this very arid style of fiction, which seems to have great fascination for some of the most promising of the younger writers of the day, M. Guy de Maupassant at their head. But M. Hervieu has just written in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* (May 1 and 15) one of the most imaginative and dramatic of psychological stories, "L'Inconnu," which shows that his great powers of observation and of analysis may some time be put to more attractive uses than heretofore.

—Mr. G. B. Airy contributes to *Nature* (April 14, 1887) a communication "on the establishment of the Roman dominion in Southeast Britain," the special value of which consists in the identification of the localities of the campaigns of the Roman general Plautius. An interesting showing is that the Romans made a road from Camulodunum (Colchester) due west, "the great western road," by Marks Tey, Coggeshall, etc., to Stortford, and then *afterwards* the road to London, which is proved by the fact that the London road from Colchester branches off at a considerable angle at Marks Tey (this is shown by any good map of England). The latter part of the article, however, exhibits a curious confusion, in connecting the events of A. D. 60 (Boadicea's revolt) as directly following the occupation of the province in 43. Mr. Airy repeatedly mentions *Plautius* in connection with this revolt, although Dio Cassius, his authority, calls the governor *Paulinus*. He further attributes the revolt to exactions by Claudius, who had now been dead six years; what Dio Cassius says is that Claudius *had given* certain sums to the principal men of the Britains, and that now they were demanded by Catus (not *Calus*) the procurator. Mr. Airy questions the statement of Dio that the governor was absent in Μῶνα (Anglesea), as it is "very improbable that, in such a state of affairs, Plautius [Paulinus] would have gone, by a difficult march, to such a distance." Tacitus, however, in his nearly contemporary account (in his life of Agricola), twice mentions Paulinus's expedition against the island of Mona (chaps. xiv and xviii) as caused by its giving aid to his enemies—exactly the reason why Cæsar invaded Britain itself, B. C. 55.

—Count L. N. Tolstoi's interest in the education of the people and the production of suitable literature for their use has led him to try his powers in a new field, that of dramatic writing. The result cannot fail to amaze those who have the courage to brave the peculiarities of language and subject. How far it may answer its purpose and inculcate good morals in the peasants, remains to be seen. The title is, "The Kingdom of Darkness; or, Stick in a Claw and the whole Bird will Perish." In accordance with the author's theory, announced in a previous work, that the peasant always talks good Russian, while the cultivated man does not, he has couched his drama in language which is as unpleasant to read, and, it is safe to say, as far removed from refinement, as any author of note ever indulged in. The dialect is so rough, the commonest words so distorted, the expressions so coarse, that there would be but little pleasure in reading it, even if the plot were less intolerably repulsive than it is. Blood-curdling is the only fitting term to apply to it. The actors are all peasants; the chief ones are an old, wealthy, and sickly muzhik, his sixteen-year-old daughter by his first wife, his second wife and her daughter, aged ten, his hired man, the young fellow's parents, and an orphan girl of twenty-two. The action is extremely slight, mostly consisting in the crawling on and off the oven by several of the characters. One of the exceptions proves that the author actually expected his drama to be produced on the boards. A stage direction orders that Nikita, the young hired man, shall, "if possible, enter on horseback." "CEdipus in the village" is what a Russian critic calls this drama. There was some thought of putting it on the stage in St. Petersburg, but at the preliminary reading the actors refused to undertake it, and it has now been officially prohibited.

—M. Hector Pessard, formerly *directeur* of the *National*, and, since the change of politics of that paper, of the *Petite République Française*, has just published in a volume the very interesting articles which have appeared in recent numbers of the *Revue Bleue*, under the title 'Mes petits papiers: Souvenirs d'un journaliste, 1860-1870' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof). In these he relates, with that gift for picturesque and dramatic narration which is so general among Parisian writers for the press, not only his own literary beginnings, but also those of many of the young journalists and *avocats* of twenty-five years ago, who have since become very important personages in the political world. Among the "jeunes gens d'avenir" whom we meet throughout M. Pessard's 'Souvenirs' are Jules Ferry, Charles Floquet, now President of the Chamber of Deputies; Adrien Hébrard, now Senator and *directeur* of the *Temps;* Clément Duvernois, in its later years one of the ministers of the Empire which he began by opposing, and who, in the various aspects and fortunes under which his friend presents him, suggests some hero imagined by a writer of romance, a kind of Beaumarchais of the nineteenth century. There are, too, several picturesque glimpses of Gambetta in the early days, when he was still an unknown young *avocat*.

—In 1866 M. Pessard became one of the collaborateurs of *La Liberté*, which Émile de Girardin had just purchased. From this time his *petits papiers* become even more instructive and entertaining than before. Besides the great journalist himself, both Émile Ollivier and the Emperor enter upon the scene and act the chief parts to the end, giving to the last half of the volume a special importance which might easily be overlooked at first in the enjoyment of M. Pessard's delightful and unfailing good humor and gayety. All the famous men of the Liberal or Republican Opposition under the Second Empire pass by in the pages of M. Pessard, and the political history of the period is related from the writer's point of view at the time, modified by his present opinions. The men are presented under novel conditions sometimes, and the events are related so as to show quite as novel possibilities of interpretation; but it all appears to be done with fairness, and even generosity. The worst accusation that has been brought against M. Pessard seems to be that his facts, correct in themselves, are often shown in a fantastic light. This is probably true, but then any light but one's own always appears fantastic to an opponent.

ADMIRAL BLAKE.

Admiral Blake. By David Hannay. [English Worthies. Edited by Andrew Lang.] D. Appleton & Co. 1886. 12mo, pp. 194.

No name stands with better right in the list of English worthies than that of Robert Blake; and perhaps no Englishman of equal greatness is less known in the present generation. That he was the soldier of Parliament and the Commonwealth has probably stood in the way of his fame in two ways—by subjecting his name to the same depreciation as that of Cromwell, until the change of sentiment in the present century; and, since then, by the exaggerated emphasis placed upon Cromwell personally and the civil history of England during this period. Mr. Hannay has, he says, found but scanty materials, and he has made but a thin book as compared with others of the same series. It is a book of unquestionable merit, and deserves to be widely read. We think, however, that he might have made it larger, even with his scanty materials, and that without undue diffuseness or padding. Blake's life, if not a very long one, was full of incident and adventure, and his biographer seems to us to have yielded so far to the demand of the day for "small books" as to omit matters that would be really interesting and valuable. To take one

example: The famous attack on Santa Cruz de Teneriffe is related in less than three pages—very well related indeed, but the story is so condensed that (there being, moreover, no plan of the battle) it is not easy to understand all the movements of the fight, nor is the account so graphic and picturesque as it might easily have been made by more detail. As a personal life of Blake, and an estimate of the place which he holds in English history, the book deserves great praise.

The theatre of the war which broke out in 1652 between England and Holland, then at the height of her power, was what is known as the "Narrow Seas," the English Channel and the German Ocean. After a stormy winter voyage, on the 8th of February once, as the present writer came, weak with sea-sickness, upon deck, he found the sun warm and bright as May almost, driving before it the heavy fog. The sea at last was smooth; beyond it to the northward rose, dim, a fine bold line of shore, towards which the heart turned with a double longing. To a sea-tired man, it was the first land; to a son of the Anglo Saxon race, it was the old home. The cape was the Lizard, the southwest point of England, at the entrance to the English Channel. Soon the Lizard grew fainter as we steered eastward; the land receded on the left until the gazer almost felt that, Ixion-like, he had embraced a cloud. But, as the forenoon proceeded, the shore rose again, this time into Start Point, close by Plymouth. Once more there was a trend of the shore inward; once more in front, beyond the sea, now sail-dotted, rose a high, bold bluff, this time the Bill of Portland. Then, after the moon rose, it was St. Alban's Head, and at last the Needles, at the western end of the Isle of Wight. Thus, all day, we shot from cape to cape across the bays, with far-off glimpses into Cornwall, Devon, Dorset, and Hampshire. Even then upon the fields there was a tinge of spring green; once, over a hill, a rainbow hung in a cloud of vapor. The blue line inland was soft and undulating; the great capes rose bald and bleak, their storm-worn ledges beating back the surf like doubled knuckles. So the majestic brotherhood, the headlands of the channel, passed us on, one to another, until we were sheltered in the Solent. On deck betimes the next morning, it was revealed that we were just between Dover and Calais. Southeast the eye could make out distinctly a high, wavy coast-line—France. Nearer, to the north and west, was the white shore of Albion. The wind blew bitter cold out of the North Sea. One thought of Lear and Edgar, as the Shakspere Cliff looked through the air sharp as ingratitude. How fine the sequence of historic figures that, since gray antiquity, have seen rise, as we saw them rise, those beaked and windy promontories, for ever surf lapped! Of all events, however, of which the English Channel has been the scene, what ones more worthy to hold the thoughts of Americans than the struggles here of the Commonwealth? Popular liberty was the aim. Had those struggles failed, America as well as England might have bent to the sceptre of an autocrat instead of to the ballot of the freeman.

On February 18, 1653, the English Channel and its shores looking, we may suppose, as in the February view just described, a fleet of seventy sail lay off the Bill of Portland, pigmies, for the most part, no doubt, compared with our modern craft, though a few ships were of fair size, and the naval architecture of the time was such that even small ships were sometimes imposing. The *Sovereign of the Seas*, at this time the crack ship of the British navy, was of nearly 1,700 tons burden, elaborately painted and gilded. For sixty years she was a famous fighting ship, earning the sobriquet of "The Yellow Devil." That day, however, the *Triumph*, of sixty-eight guns, was the flagship, and in the lookout, high up the mast, hung Robert Blake himself, a man of fifty-three, short, thick-set, his broad face much bronzed by campaigning on land and sea. He was of the same station in life as Cromwell, of Oxford training, with a pedantic foible for quoting Latin, curious enough in an old sailor. He had risen to fame as a colonel of horse. When foreign foes were to be met he was sent to the fleet, though he was fifty years old and had scarcely ever been on shipboard. Strangely enough, such inexperience was regarded as but a slight objection. He had bestridden the war-horse to good purpose, therefore he could ride the waves well; the sequence in those days was thought logical, and seemed often to be thoroughly justified. Not only Blake, but many another fine trooper, on each side, Rupert, for instance, and Monk and Dean, were not less dashing and effective on the surf than on the turf. It is chronicled that these fine old horse-marines sometimes became confused in battle, roaring out to the sailors commands appropriate for cavalry; but it did no harm. With surprising power of adaptation, the champions of that time appear, with foot now in the stirrup, now on the shrouds, equally efficient with either brace.

That February day in 1653, things were critical for the Commonwealth. Van Tromp, the Dutch Admiral, had, in the previous fall, crushed the English fleet, and all winter had patrolled the Channel with a broom at his mast-head. The Council of State, under the lead of young Sir Henry Vane, as able to prepare as Blake was to execute, recalled all scattered ships, put on board by whole regiments the Ironsides of Dunbar and Worcester, and seized hemp, tar, timber, and powder wherever they could be found. Night and day the shipyards rattled. The list of captains was severely scrutinized, and wholesale cashiering and promoting done without fear or favor. Blake went aboard not alone. He had, as subordinates, the skilful seamen Penn, father of Sir William, and Lawson, who had fought his way up from before the mast. Dean, a stout major-general, was on the *Triumph* with Blake, and blackbrowed Monk, "Silent old George," Cromwell's right-hand in Scotland, and destined to a more questionable fame in years far ahead, as the engineer of the Restoration, went aboard ship with a great force of land troops at a day's notice.

What fast-sailing frigate it was, whether the *Antelope*, the *Constant Warwick*, or the *Tenth Whelp*, that first brought news of the approach of Van Tromp, we cannot say. It was made known, however, that he was on his way eastward from the Lizard with seventy-six ships of war and a convoy of three hundred merchantmen, craft from all parts of the world with rich cargoes, to be guarded through those dangerous narrow seas. Van Tromp himself is a bluff, picturesque figure. No suspicion of a horse-marine character attached itself to him. A sailor and the son of a sailor, he had seen his father killed in action by the English, and had been himself two years and a half a prisoner to the English, serving as a cabin-boy. He had brought the Spaniard to grief, had fought the English in battles drawn and battles gained, and now stood on his quarter deck, grizzly with fifty-six years of amphibious life, an old salt, almost web-footed.

Blake from his lookout saw the Dutch approaching, the innumerable sails white in a brilliant sunrise. Van Tromp had the wind, and bore swiftly down upon him with the men-of-war, while the merchantmen kept well aloof. Blake's own line was not yet formed, two of his squadrons beating slowly up to his help against the unfavorable breeze. He met with his few ships, however, the whole force of the Dutch, who came on well together. As Van Tromp's flagship, the *Brederode*, approached at eight o'clock, the *Triumph* lay first in her path, and received Van Tromp's broadside when within musket-shot. The *Brederode* tacked instantly, sending in another broadside close under the sails, with terrible splintering and carnage. But the *Triumph* gave gun for gun; in a few minutes the little English squadron was enveloped by enemies, and a cannonade roared over the sea that could be heard from Portland to Boulogne. When two hostile ships approached there would be ramming with prows, a grappling of hulls, then a cry on both sides for boarders. How pike and cutlass clashed in the port-holes; how the sailors climbed, clinging to every projecting bit of carving, running along boom and yard, leaping at a venture from one tossing deck to another among a crowd of enemies, the hot cannon meanwhile at rest, because, in the mêlée, friend was no less likely to suffer than foe—from the data of the old histories, one can fill out the picture. De Ruyter, then a young commander, boarded the *Prosperous* and drove her crew to surrender. He was driven off; he captured her again, and was driven off again, the shattered decks strewn four times with the awful wreck of the combat. Here was a ship on fire, there a ship went down with all on board, her wounded captain flourishing his hanger defiantly as she disappeared. On the *Triumph* more than a hundred of her crew, half her complement, were slain outright, and scarcely a man remained unhurt. Blake himself was sorely wounded in the thigh by a flying splinter, which same splinter, says the conscientious chronicler, "tore a large hole in the breeches of Admiral Dean." Amid the sea strewn with ruin, Blake's remaining ships at last came up, and the scale turned in his favor. It was necessary, however, to tow the *Speaker*, Penn's ship, out of the line, utterly helpless; others crept through the Solent to Portsmouth, scarcely able to make sail, while still others barely floated. The Dutch, however, had lost eight ships—riddled and gore-stained trophies! One, when visited, was found to have no living soul on board. Such was the battle of the first day.

As dusk fell, Van Tromp withdrew, protecting his merchantmen, which, while the men-of-war grappled, had diligently crowded sail and were now well eastward towards home. The breeze fell at night, and the fleets drifted slowly past the Isle of Wight, the unsleeping crews making ready for new conflict. The battered *Triumph*, with the wounded Blake, managed in some way to keep with the rest, destined to play a further part in what Clarendon calls "this very stupendous action." The 19th there seems to have been no engagement; but on the morning of the 20th a light breeze gave the fleets the opportunity anew. Van Tromp changed his tactics. Spreading his men-of-war in a wide crescent, like the protecting wings of a mother-bird, he gathered the merchantmen within the hollow and sped up the Channel. The heavy-laden craft made slow way. At noon the astonishing *Triumph*, under jury-masts, we may suppose, was upon the Dutch rear, within gun-shot, and soon after the bow-chasers of the remaining English ships were in full play. The signals flew from the *Brederode* to the traders: they were to make their best speed, hugging close the French coast by Calais and Dunkirk. Tromp himself with the fighting ships tacked about with the finest courage against the concentrated and now overpowering foe. De Ruyter was in especial danger; Lawson in the *Fairfax* was especially brave. The English began to have the upper hand, but Van Tromp fell back towards his convoy, "contesting every wave." Faction was rife on the Dutch decks, and when night came at last, clear and cold, what with treachery within and such foes

without, the redoubtable Hollander was glad of a respite.

"Still," as Penn said afterwards, remembering those three days, "a Dutchman is never so dangerous as when he is desperate." On Sunday morning, the 21st, the mother-bird was seen as before with her chickens folded by her wings, but now sadly plucked and lamed. For a third time there was the fiercest grappling, this day where the strait is narrowest. How, as the cannon boomed off Dover, the people must have flocked to the cliffs, peering at the distant battle through the wintry air! Penn at last broke through Van Tromp's encircling guard and captured fifty merchantmen. The battered *Triumph*, with Blake on the quarter-deck, in spite of his wound, dashed on after the main body, crashing against craft which, reckless of themselves, tried to block his path. His fleet streamed after him, the cannon never silent, while the crippled masts cracked under the press of canvas. More than half the Dutch men-of-war became prizes, and Blake thought he had grasped the entire fleet. But as pursuers and pursued swept out into the North Sea, a night of storm set in. When morning dawned, Van Tromp had vanished as if he were the Flying Dutchman himself. In their flat-bottomed craft, made for shallow seas, knowing now every inlet and current of the home waters, his ships had fled over and through the dangerous bars, close in shore, where the English dared not follow. The clutch of Blake had been eluded after all. The greater part of the convoy flocked past the Texel towards Amsterdam, bark and cargo safe; while the fighting craft, diminished but defiant, backed now by dangerous shore batteries, offered to the foe their still unconquered broadsides.

Already, it must be remembered, the war had raged for nine months, when Blake and Van Tromp sighted one another off Portland Bill; nor did the indecisive action which has just been described end it. Van Tromp was in the Downs again early in June, with one hundred ships, this time unencumbered by a convoy. Blake's wound kept him inactive, but Lawson broke the Dutch line after the fashion of Rodney against De Grasse, and Nelson at Trafalgar. Poor Dean, the hero of the torn breeches, that day was cut in two by a chain-shot, and Monk showed himself a capital commander. The *Brederode* herself was boarded and on the brink of capture. At the critical moment a match was thrown, it is said by Van Tromp himself, into the magazine. The decks roared into the air with all the English intruders and a great part of the Dutch defenders. Van Tromp, it was supposed, was lost; but coming either out of the air, or the sea, or from some fragment of the ship that had escaped destruction, he was seen, invulnerable as a phantom, on the deck of a fresh, fast-sailing frigate, careering along his shattered and yielding line, trying to rally them to a new encounter. The day, however, clearly went against him; nor was fortune kinder in July. In a conflict fiercer than ever, a musket-ball stretched Van Tromp dead upon his post, and the cause of Holland was lost. That day alone 5,000 men were slain, and in the whole war the Dutch admitted a loss of 1,100 ships.

After the contest with the magnificent Dutch, to encounter other Powers was for the Commonwealth mere child's play, though Blake fought that remarkable battle with a Spanish fleet under the Peak of Teneriffe. Referring the reader to Mr. Hannay's book, we can only mention that Blake's heroic period was comprised within six years. When he was fifty-six years old, decrepit through wounds, worn out with weary tossing, winter and summer, upon desolate seas, he yearned for his native Somersetshire, and with the early summer of 1656 his battered flag-ship, the *George*, crossing the Bay of Biscay, saw before her at length the loom of the Lizard. Home was at hand, but the Admiral was dying. The ship spread all her canvas, that at least he might die ashore. Her progress, however, was slow, crippled as she was, like the commander, by much service; and off the Start, two hours before they could cast anchor in Plymouth Roads, his spirit fled. Heroic Ironside that he was, he prayed as he fought, whether in the saddle or on the deck, and his rugged followers lifted up their voices in company. Nor was he without fine and gentle traits. He loved his old neighbors and his home, and, like Hampden, Sidney, and Vane, while combatant in the fiercest conflicts, had the graces of a scholar and a gentleman.

PRICE'S LONDON GUILDHALL.—I.

A Descriptive Account of the Guildhall of the City of London: its History and Associations. Compiled from Original Documents, with Facsimile Charters, Maps, and other Illustrations, by John Edward Price. Prepared by authority of the Corporation of the City of London under the Superintendence of the Library Committee. Pp. iii, 298. London. 1886.

ANY one who has seen the Report of the Library Committee, delivered to the Common Council of the City of London on Thursday, December 16, 1886, and who has read Mr. Price's Preface, will turn with the highest expectations to the body of the work.

"A mere architectural description of the building," says the author, "could have been dismissed in a few pages. . . . The true history of the Guildhall is rather to be traced in the numerous traditions and interesting associations by which it is connected with the most important corporation in the world. . . . Associated it has been in one way or another with almost every occurrence of importance belonging to the history of this country, whether such be related to royalty, politics, law, commerce, or public ceremonial. . . . The edifice is one which with the citizens of London must ever command an interest unsurpassed by any other of their public buildings" (pp. ii, 3-4).

The present work originated in the desire of the Corporation to preserve plans and drawings of such portions of the Guildhall as were to be removed for the erection of the new Council Chamber. According to the Report of the Library Committee, it cost £1,596 8s., and three years were devoted to its compilation, a delay of two months being caused by the fire at the printing-house of Messrs. Blades, East & Blades. Mr. Price begins with a consideration of "the origin and development of that municipal life which has made the city what it is" (pp. 4-32); he then traces the architectural history of the Guildhall as a whole (pp. 33-63) and that of its particular parts—the Kitchen, Hall, Crypts, Library, Blackwell Hall, the Aldermen's Court, Council Chamber, and the Offices, including a description of their contents (pp. 63-185), and a brief account of the development of the Mayoralty, the Court of Aldermen, the Common Council, and the offices of Chamberlain, Comptroller, and Town Clerk (pp. 156-185). Then follows a discussion of the subjoined topics: receptions, Lord Mayor's show, trials, the great fire of 1666, lotteries, the Orphans' Court, the new Library, the Museum, and the excavations for the new Council Chamber (pp. 185-256). The work concludes with an Appendix of original documents (pp. 257-266) and an Index (pp. 267-298). The volume contains 7 maps, 38 chromo-lithographs, and 112 woodcuts, most of which are admirably executed.

The portions of the work dealing with the history of the City of London are of most interest to the general public, but are least worthy of commendation. The attempt, on pages 3-9 and elsewhere, to glorify the Corporation of the City of London by showing its Roman origin is far from successful. The crude analogies traced between its civic functionaries and those of the Roman "municipia" are just as applicable to all civilized nations in all ages—to New York, for example, as well as to London. The fact that some French towns are of Roman derivation, which the author emphasizes as corroborative testimony, proves nothing at all as regards English towns. On page 7 we are asked to accept as further evidence a passage from the mawkish chronicler, Jocelin de Brakelond, namely, the allegation of the Londoners that they had been free of toll everywhere in England from the time of the foundation of Rome, with which that of London was contemporary—"a tempore quo Roma primo fundata fuit, et civitatem Lundonie eodem tempore fundatam." This evidence is about as reliable as the old inscription on the tablet at Winchester, to the effect that the latter city was built by Ludor Rouse Hudibras, 892 B. C., or as the assertion of the chronicler Fitzstephen ('Vita Sancti Thomæ,' Prologus) that London is much older than Rome—"Urbe Roma, secundum chronicorum fidem, satis antiquior est." Here is some more of the author's profound reasoning on the same subject (p. 14): "They (the London wards) were local divisions, resembling the *curiales* and *regiones* of a classic city. On this there is the emphatic testimony of Fitzstephen, who, after his reference to the use of laws and institutions common to Rome, remarks, 'London is in like manner to Rome distributed into regions.'" The wards of New York resemble the *regiones* of Rome about as much as those of London did in the twelfth century, when Fitzstephen wrote his panegyric. The argument in favor of the Roman origin of English towns, so plausibly advanced by Wright and Coote, is impotent and, at times, almost ridiculous in the hands of Mr. Price, who does not in the least shake Loftie's conclusion, that "not a single fact of any kind has yet been adduced that will go even a little way towards proving this romantic theory" ('Historic Towns—London,' p. 14).

In his discussion of English gilds (pp. 24-30) the author displays much irrelevant learning concerning the Roman "collegia opificum," "collegia dendrophorum," etc., but does not present the shadow of a proof in support of his assumption that the former emanated from the latter. Some of this space might have been more advantageously devoted to an inquiry into the history and functions of the "cnihtengild," or gild of knights, which Mr. Price does not even mention in this connection, although some eminent authorities regard it as the quondam governing body of London, from which the Guildhall derived its name. The author next enters into a consideration of the gild merchant, which he would have discussed more intelligently had he been acquainted with the results of recent investigation. If, as he maintains, there really was such a general or dominant gild merchant of London in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, we should certainly meet with some trace of it in the 'Liber Custumarum,' the 'Letter Books,' and other muniments of London. The author's "internal evidence" in support of his position is the fact that the burgesses of Oxford, who had a gild merchant, received a charter from Henry III. granting them all the liberties of London. But it does not necessarily follow that London had every institution of Oxford. A town receiving such a charter was not completely remodelled after its exemplar, but simply grafted upon its own individual polity such of its prototype's liberties as it deemed advisable. The subject is fully investigated in the *Antiquary*, vol. xi, pp. 142-147, 199-203. Norton's statement ('Commentaries,' 3d ed., p. 25) that there is no trace of London ever having had a general mercantile gild, is certainly correct. The historical account of

the various elements of the Corporation—namely, the Mayor, Court of Aldermen, Common Council, Chamberlain, Comptroller, and Town Clerk (pp. 156–185)—is meagre, fragmentary, and inaccurate. Some of these inaccuracies will be pointed out hereafter. Such important topics as the history of the Sheriffs and the growth of the Livery Companies are passed over in silence. A far better account of the constitutional development of the City could easily be compiled from the works of Loftie and Norton.

The author devotes several pages to the determination of the ancient site of the Guildhall (pp. 34–38). Though some of his evidence is of a dubious character, he is probably correct in concluding that the building formerly stood in Aldermanbury, not far from the west end of the present edifice. On pages 44–48 early references to the Guildhall are considered. The earliest given are *circa* 1212 and 1252. In this connection Mr. Price should not have failed to emphasize a passage in the 'Vita Galfridi' of Giraldus Cambrensis (Lib. ii, cap. 8). The latter, in describing the deposition of William Longchamp in 1191, thus pregnantly alludes to the Guildhall: "Convocata vero civium multitudine in aula publica, quæ a potorum conventu nomen accepit." Again, in the 'Liber de antiquis legibus,' under the year 1244, there is a passage which mentions the Guildhall ("convenientibus Civibus apud Gildhall," etc.), and at the same time elucidates the constitutional history of London. We feel confident that if Mr. Price had searched the records of the city and the old chroniclers more assiduously, he would have found other earlier and more valuable passages than those which he has printed. The year 1410 marks an important epoch in the history of the Guildhall. "In this yere also," says Fabyan, "was ye Guylde halle of London begon to be newe edyfied, and of an olde and lytell cotage, made into a fayre and goodly house as it nowe apperyth." On page 51 Mr. Price gives an English abstract of a valuable document bearing on the subject. The same record is printed more fully in Riley's 'Memorials of London,' pp. 589–591. Mr. Price might well have given us the Latin *in extenso*; it would be far more pertinent than most of the Latin originals printed in his book. This document, which belongs to the year 1413, is evidently the earliest reference to the subject that the author could find in the city archives. Here, too, we entertain strong doubts as to the completeness of his quest.

Throughout the whole work poor judgment is exhibited in the selection and coördination of materials, more space being frequently devoted to accessories than to essentials; some important topics seem to be utilized merely as pegs on which to hang genealogies and other matters either wholly irrelevant or remotely connected with the subject of discussion. On pages 30, 31, for example, we find a long Latin document relating to Oxford which has no connection at all with the point at issue. Pages 39–42, together with a full-page facsimile, belong to the same category. The fact that the greater part of the Guildhall stands in the Parish of St. Laurence, here occasions the author to give a long Latin grant of the Church of St. Laurence made by the Abbot of St. Sauve de Montreuil (pp. 40, 41); this leads him into several incoherent references to the monastery of St. Sauve. Continuing to dilate upon the Parish of St. Laurence, he prints an abstract of a document which only incidentally mentions the Guildhall in 1273 (pp. 42, 43), far more space being occupied with allusions to the witnesses than with the body of the record. On pages 45, 46, where early references to the Guildhall are considered, two-thirds of the matter consists of rambling excursions. The comparison of the size of the main hall with "other buildings ancient and modern" (pp. 76, 77), and the verbose inscriptions from the monuments in the building (pp. 81–84) might also have been omitted. One of these long inscriptions, containing some 250 words, is printed on page 81, though very legible on a plate facing that page. Pages 49, 115–117, 131, 161, 181, 202, 203, are in great part made up of genealogical digressions concerning persons casually referred to in the text. Of dubious relevancy is the amount of space assigned to Gog and Magog (pp. 89–95), the Lord Mayor's Show (pp. 196–205), and a description of the objects in the Museum (pp. 234–256). On the other hand, in some places we feel the need of more fulness. Some examples of this have already been given. The record on page 164 concerning the election of Aldermen is important, and should have been printed *in extenso*. On pages 168–170 there is a list of what Mr. Price calls the "first recognized Court of Common Council" (A. D. 1247). Why has he not printed it just as it is in the original? And why has he not indicated that the list has already been given to the world by Riley ('Memorials,' pp. liii–lv), with whose version Price's coincides verbatim? Doubtless, too, the city archives contain earlier lists still more worthy of publication. A list of *circa* 1320, with which the author is evidently unacquainted, may be seen in the British Museum—Lansdowne MSS. 558, fol. 204.

Another criticism, equally general, is this, that the author is very negligent in indicating the sources of his information. On page 46 we find the substance of a document which he prides himself on printing for the first time, but he furnishes us no clue to the repository of the original. The same is true of the record containing his "earliest reference" to the Guildhall (p. 44). Pages 52 and 140 are marred by similar omissions. He sometimes cites works without denoting the volume and page (see p. 5, note 1; p. 65, note 2; p. 134, note 1); or without giving the edition (for example, Stow, on pp. 21, 54, 121). Here are some examples of his heedlessness in this direction: "Kemble, Cod. Dip. p. 304" (there are six volumes); "Tacit. 15, Annal."; "*Antiquarian Magazine*, March, pp. 116 and seq." (pp. 45, 217, 224). The following references are wrong: p. 11, note 1; p. 12, note 3; p. 15, note 2; p. 21, note 1; p. 28, note 1; p. 220, note 2; p. 221, note 1. Doubtless a careful examination of those relating to the 'Letter Books' and other muniments of the City of London would yield a rich harvest of blunders.

SCHERER'S ESSAYS ON GOETHE.

Aufsätze über Goethe. Von Wilhelm Scherer. Berlin: Weidmann. 1886.

THE pervading quality of these essays is well indicated by the first title, "Goethe Philology." Scherer himself had the training of a philologist in the now current sense of the word. With one exception, his most important work was a brilliant contribution to the history of the German language. In his earlier years he was known as a promising Germanist, and such he continued to be to the end, save that his patriotic interest turned more and more from the language to the literature of the fatherland. Being called to Strassburg after the reopening of the University in 1872, he soon began to interest himself as a philologist in the youth of Goethe. In this line of study he was by no means a pioneer. Other scholars, notably Düntzer, had long been engaged in it, but there was just at this time a general *accès* of interest in Goethe's text and in the historical interpretation of it. To study the works, and even the words, of the poet just as he wrote them; to take less counsel of general ratiocination and more of history and philology; above all, to study the works of the poet genetically, endeavoring to follow him, so far as possible, in every detail of the creative process—this was the essence of the doctrine which began to be extensively preached and practised some fifteen or twenty years ago.

Among the ablest and the most enthusiastic votaries of this doctrine was Scherer. The first fruits of his work in this field are to be seen in the little volume, 'Aus Goethe's Frühzeit,' which appeared in 1879. From that time to the date of his death Goethe seems to have been his favorite study. He contributed to the *Jahrbuch* and to various periodicals a long series of special studies, the most important of which are here published under the editorial supervision of Erich Schmidt, formerly Director of the Goethe Archives at Weimar and now Scherer's successor at the University of Berlin. The book deserves a warm welcome both for its subject's and for its author's sake. It opens many a new vista for the student of Goethe, and it is the work of a highly gifted and inspiring writer.

The first of the essays, already alluded to, is an interesting review, written in 1877, of recent Goethe literature. The second, entitled "Gretchen," is an attempt to get at the facts which underlay Goethe's account of his first love, the Frankfort Gretchen, through whom he was brought into such unpleasant proximity to the criminal courts of his native city. This story, as recounted in 'Dichtung und Wahrheit,' has by some been thought to be a pure invention, and Goethe himself seems on one occasion to have intimated that such was the case. But Scherer finds reason for thinking that the account has a strong basis of fact, and that—which is, however, by no means a new idea—the play "Die Mitschuldigen," with its atmosphere of rascality, was a direct precipitate of this early experience of human depravity. A third study, upon "Goethe as a Lawyer," endeavors to show, contrary to the opinion of a German jurist, that Goethe's briefs were quite different from those of other lawyers of his day. Following this we have a chapter on "Goethe as a Journalist." Concerning the reviews written by Goethe and Merck in 1772, Scherer says that he does not hesitate to rank them with the best that German criticism has produced; he even finds them "brighter, bolder, and less monotonous" than the *Literaturbriefe* of Lessing. A passage in this essay will, for two or three reasons, bear quoting:

"I oppose," says Scherer, "whenever I can the coarse doctrine that reviews are written for the day only, and have no further use than to tell the public in the briefest and clearest manner whether it ought to regard some new book as nice or as abominable. Especially have I no liking for reviews which are intended to annoy or to disparage people, or to vex some third person who has nothing to do with the affair. Even reviews may be works of art. Even reviews may reflect a human soul. Even reviews may essay to become a permanent and valuable possession of the national literature; if only they spring from a pure intent, are written in the service of truth and justice, and reveal the honest thoughts of their authors."

Essays follow upon various incomplete or unwritten works of Goethe—the "Nausikaa," of which we have an outline sketch by scenes, and about a hundred and fifty lines of more or less fragmentary text; the "Iphigenia in Delphi," of which we have nothing save some allusions in Goethe's letters; and the "Pandora," of which we have a large fragment, with a "scheme" for its continuation. Each of these studies is an attempt to describe in some detail the drama that would probably have resulted if Goethe had worked out his theme. Tastes will differ as to the value of such speculations upon what might have been; those who have a fancy for them will doubtless call these essays brilliant specimens of "divinatory criticism." Scherer's ardor does not appear to be at all dampened by the reflection

that he is dealing, not with works which were interrupted by death (that would be quite another matter), but with poetical projects which stagnated simply because the projector lost interest in them.

Another favorite field of research and speculation with Scherer was the relation between Goethe's poetic creations and his multifarious affairs of the heart. Thus we have a long essay upon "Stella," in which an attempt is made to show us prototypes in real life for the chief characters and *motifs* of that curious drama. Scherer had a high opinion of the value of such studies, and bestows some rather caustic epithets upon those who are continually uttering their cautions about "going too far" in these matters. His contention is that it is quite impossible to go too far. Quoting Goethe's saying to the effect that his "works were always simply the recorded joys and sorrows of his life," Scherer argues that any one who would understand the works must study the life, must regard nothing as unimportant, and must not be too shy of resorting to surmises where proof is out of the question. This attitude of mind on the author's part is eminently characteristic of all the studies; and as one thinks of this general position, so will he be likely to think of a large part of the volume. For ourselves, while we commonly read Scherer with interest and with profit, yet we cannot always share his enthusiasm for his themes. It is doubtless true for philosophical purposes that all things hang together, and that nothing is quite isolated. It is likewise true that a life like that of Goethe will reward a more minute study than we should think proper to bestow upon a man of less importance. But, after all, life is short, and the student of literature has before him a wide and inexhaustible field, in which there are at least degrees of importance. When, therefore, one finds himself tempted to enter upon a serious and detailed study of the amatory experiences not only of Goethe himself, but of the whole amative crew with which he associated in that amative epoch, one may at least be excused for raising the question whether upon the whole it might not be better worth while to do something else. Our modest opinion is that the department of erotology has acquired in Goethe literature a somewhat factitious prominence. It is doubtless well enough to recognize the importance of the blind archer for the life of man in general, and not to lose sight of his quite exceptional importance for the life of Goethe in particular; but, really, it is quite another thing to follow up every casual shaft and scrutinize the wound with a microscope.

But the most interesting essays in the volume are those upon "Faust," and of these the most important is the one entitled "Betrachtungen über Faust," which is reprinted from the *Goethe-Jahrbuch* for 1885. Among the most difficult questions that the student of "Faust" has to deal with are those which recent criticism has raised concerning the unity and coherency of the work. That there are real difficulties along this line will probably be admitted by all save perhaps those for whom the interpretation of "Faust" is simply an exercise of the speculative imagination. Were all external testimony lacking, the poem itself contains abundant evidences of the fact that it was not the product of one sustained creative effort, but a mosaic which took a long time in the making, and is put together of heterogeneous pieces that are not always perfectly matched in form or color. Here we find a passage which seems to contradict what is said somewhere else; there the text appears to presuppose knowledge not contained in the poem or in the legends; again, a character will seem to forget his rôle and to say what he ought not to say. Difficulties of this sort, many of them doubtless imaginary, have given rise to two tolerably distinct classes of expounders—those who are disposed to press these incongruities, and to build theories upon them relative to Goethe's "changes of plan"; and those who seek rather to explain such matters into harmony with the general character and design of the poem, or at least to make them appear unimportant.

Scherer belonged to the former class of critics. His art consists in applying to "Faust" the same methods of study which modern philology has applied with such striking results to the Homeric poems, the Bible, and the Nibelungenlied. Such a procedure, plainly enough, is not to be taken as a matter of course. The Homeric poems, the Bible, and the Nibelungen songs came into existence long ago, amid literary conditions very different from those of modern times. Of their genesis we know but little from sources extraneous to the text. "Faust," on the other hand, is a thing of yesterday. We know who wrote it and, in much detail, how it was written. We know the sources from which the author drew, and can follow the whole history of his mind and art. Quite apart from the text, we know much about the genesis of the poem. All this might seem to necessitate from the critic of "Faust" a different art from that which he would apply to works of the other sort. But for Scherer these considerations are invested with no great significance. He goes on his way, let us not say ignoring, but paying upon the whole comparatively little attention to the consciously designing, choosing, rejecting, moulding personality of Goethe. A hiatus, a metrical accent, a rhythmical form, a peculiar turn of phrase, a fact of style—such matters are made by him the basis of important and far-reaching conclusions regarding the history of his author's poetic intentions.

In the essay above referred to, he examines the opening monologue of *Faust* from the beginning to where the Earth-spirit disappears. This portion of the text belonged to the "fragment" of 1790, and its coherency had not before been called in question. But Scherer, submitting it to his searching philological analysis, finds it full of inconsistencies; finds it to be, in fine, a patchwork of discordant elements, representing two or three different plans, and clumsily put together by Goethe, in the expectation that the world would never find out what he had done. We have not the space to reproduce or criticise Scherer's argument. Suffice it to say it is ingenious, subtle, and inconclusive. It seems to us a conspicuous illustration of the perils which may beset a purely philological treatment of literature.

A CRITICULE RAMPANT.

The Revisers' English. Series of Criticisms, showing the Revisers' Violations of the Laws of the Language. By G. Washington Moon. London: Hatchards. 1882.

Ecclesiastical English: A Series of Criticisms, showing the Old Testament Revisers' Violations of the Laws of the Language, Illustrated by more than 1,000 Quotations. By G. Washington Moon. London: Hatchards. 1886.

OCCASIONALLY there appears an intrinsically worthless book which, by reason of the interest attaching to its subject, or the fact that its author is earliest in the field to deal with it, calls for the recognition which, under ordinary circumstances, it would best be denied. Of this description are the two volumes now in hand. Summarily, what Mr. Moon is pleased to magnify as his "criticisms," besides the impossibility of their effecting any good, are, in large measure, calculated simply to mislead or to perplex. Consequential as are their pretensions, their actual plane is of the humblest. None but the most ignorant can require the style of lessons which they profess to afford; and such would do well to apply to a competent instructor, which Mr. Moon, beyond question, is not. Moreover, this self-satisfied and presumptuous caviller is evidently unvisited by any the least suspicion of his radical incapacity for the undertaking on which he has ventured.

Whatever the faults of language—almost wholly retentions from the authorized version of the Scriptures—on which Mr. Moon descants, and for which he hoots and reviles the retainers, there is, assuredly, not one of those scholars from whom, writing independently, we should expect English anything near so incondite as his own. His mother tongue, as he practises it, is, indeed, every here and there, in spite of his laying claim to an "excessive [*sic*] love of the beautiful," a peculiar jargon. For example, he writes: "Bearing that in mind, the expression '*exalt thyself*' [*i. e.*, this expression, if it bears that in mind] is certainly to be preferred to '*mount on high.*'" "In Luke viii, 42, it [what?] says that the daughter of Jairus was about 'twelve years *of age.*' . . . In the Authorized Version it [what?] is, 'she was *of the age* of twelve years'; and, undoubtedly, it is better to speak of a *young girl* as being [of] a certain 'age,' than to speak of her as being '*old.*'" "Was Saul king more than once, that the Revisers must needs make this alteration? The Scriptures are silent respecting it" [*i. e.*, "this alteration," it seems]. A column might easily be filled with instances of Mr. Moon's slovenliness and seamy grammar quite as flagrant as these.

Any one who is capable of such things should be very cautious how he passes judgment on the syntactic proficiency of others. Of diffidence, however, Mr. Moon does not give token of so much as a rudiment. In one place he pronounces, "It is idle to attack my criticisms"; and of this position, transparently, he is confident everywhere. Regarding the revisers of the New Testament, he says that "we have indubitable evidence that the majority are not good English scholars." And equally contemptuous is his tone with reference to the revisers of the Old Testament. Not only does he tax them with "childishness," but he asserts that they "treat with lofty disdain all rules of grammar." Again: "I give the Revisers credit for having endeavored to write correctly, but it was beyond them; they could not do it." "I can say only that I am sorry they are Englishmen." A dozen more similar samples of his swelling insolence might be produced; but we must restrict ourselves to quoting one, in which he reaches the climax of his effrontery: "I have not, in these criticisms, asked my readers to consider graces of style, and such like high matters; that were a hopeless task, with such writings as the Revisers' before us. It will be time enough to consider the higher branches of the language of the Sacred Scriptures when the Revisers have learnt to express themselves grammatically."

The stamp of Mr. Moon's philology, when excursive beyond points of syntax familiar to every schoolboy, may be seen from the musty dreamage which he retails concerning the origin of *but*, *if*, and *though*, or from his gross ignorance about *naughty*, *oftentimes* and *shamefast*. A smattering of Greek, though ever so slight, would, further, have kept him from laying it down that, in Matt. x, 4, the translation ought to run, "and Judas Iscariot *also*, *who* betrayed him." Worse than this, however, are his offers to recompose the Old Testament, where it does not harmonize with his bald fancy. A single specimen of his handiwork to that end will amply suffice:

"What do the Revisers mean us to understand when they say, in Psa. xcv., 7, 'We are the *people* of his *pasture*, and the *sheep* of his *hand*'? '*People*' do not '*pasture*,' nor are '*sheep*' led by

the '*hand*.' Doubtless what the Psalmist meant was, 'We are the *sheep* of his *pasture*'; (which agrees with Psa. c., 3, 'We are . . . the sheep of his pasture'); and 'We are the *people* of his *hand*'; (which agrees with Jer. xxxi., 32, 'I took them by the hand, to bring them out of the land of Egypt')."

Usage in speech, however venerable its establishment, is nothing to Mr. Moon, when it happens to run counter to his starveling conceptions of propriety and prettiness. In fact, his books under notice would dwindle to the skimpiest of pamphlets if, other sources of surplusage counted in, he were not constantly at war with phrases and senses of phrases which very few save himself find exceptionable. "All of you," "agree together," "assembled together," "both of them," "despite of," "each of them," "for ever and ever," "had rather speak," "one half," "he spake plain," "rise up," "vanish away," "widow woman," are among the numerous expressions which he cashiers as unbearable. Owing to simple oversight, one may presume, his criticastry takes no stigmatic note of "was being done away," the reviser's variant reading of "was passing away," in II. Cor. iii., 7. Such archaisms as "after" for "according to," "except" for "unless," "thine often infirmities," and "tell" for "count," it might be anticipated that he would not endure. "Eating no bread" he despises, as being "colloquial"; and he speaks, uncouthly, of its "inelegancy," matching which are his "arrogancy" and "emphaticness." "*Mine* hand" is to him "asinine." Travelling out of his record, he also captiously condemns the perfectly legitimate locutions, "the name of Ellicott," "three alternatives," "to expend labor," and "under no circumstances."

It is not to be gainsaid that the revisers were by no means careful enough touching the English which they sanctioned as eligible for reproduction. Every item of the infirm grammar and manifold rhetorical defects which they copy from King James's divines is registered by Mr. Moon, and commented on, but quite superfluously, seeing that his assistance in substituting right for wrong is needed by none but the most illiterate, to whom, as to others, the Scriptures are not a pedagogue's manual to teach parsing. Thus, however, his books have been rendered sizable, while his flatulent and insipid jocosity has added still further to swell their bulk. Some notion of how he comports himself in his would-be facetious moods, and how in his not unfrequently satirical, may be gathered from what follows:

"We read, in Gen. vi, 16, of there having been '*stories*' in the ark; a spelling which might, to some minds, suggest the idea that Noah and his family had provided themselves with a little light literature for rainy days." "While speaking of the proper spelling of words, let me ask the Revisers why they have made two distinct words of the compound word '*stronghold*,' and said, in Zech. ix, 3, 'Tyre did build herself a *strong hold*' [*i. e.*, though Mr. Moon appears not to know it, 'fortress,' 'keep']. . . . Would the Revisers write '*a theist*' for '*atheist*'?" "In II. Kings, iii, 16, we read, 'Then came there two women, that were harlots, unto the King, and stood before him.' Do the Revisers mean that, in Solomon's days, there were women who held the appointment of '*harlots unto the King*'? It cannot be!" "Can any one tell me why the Revisers have described Esau as '*a* hairy man,' and Elijah as '*an* hairy man'? Was it because it was considered that, in Elijah's case, the '*h*' should be dropped, "airy' being a more appropriate description of him who 'went up by a whirlwind into heaven'? II. Kings, ii, 11. For my own part I consider such jokes as quite out of place in the Bible. Let us, then, leave this specimen of lack-wisdom clerical *levity* (no pun intended), and resume our criticisms." "'Then David the King stood up *upon his feet*.'—I. Chron., xxviii, 2. Did the Revisers imagine that we should think he stood upon his head!" "Why do the Revisers speak of a 'widow *woman*'? Do they think it likely that any one would imagine that the '*widow*' was a man?" "Why do the Revisers speak of a woman's '*latter end*'? *e. g.*, 'Her flittiness was in her skirts; she remembered not her *latter end*.' Lam., i, 9." "Fortunately, they have put a comma after the word '*old*,' in Isa., lxiii, 11, or the reading would have been rather irreverent: 'Then he remembered the days of old, Moses and his people.'"

With kindred effusions of sickening silliness and blatant buffoonery the author takes up no fewer than a score or more of pages. And, after all, very probably, he has not been exhibited here at his worst. But the reader must, by this time, have had a surfeit of folly. That any useful purpose can be served by Mr. Moon's so-called "criticisms" is inconceivable. He has learned, or half-learned, something of English grammar, chiefly as propounded by hidebound dogmatists or ignoramuses; and his wearisome expense of words to make out that this or that squares with its rules, or contravenes them, suggests either that he regards those rules as profound mysteries, or that he looks upon his prospective pupils as likely to be the most obtuse of dullards.

In connection with the New Testament as newly revised, we take this opportunity of strongly recommending the 'Complete Concordance' to it, by Mr. John Alexander Thoms. Compiled with laudable care and, as concerns its typography, all that could be desired, it should be in the hands of every one that possesses the work to whose phraseology it is an indispensable key. The Messrs. Scribner are its American publishers.

Recollections of My Mother. By Susan I. Lesley. Boston: W. B. Clarke & Carruth.

READERS of the 'Letters of Chauncey Wright' may recall Prof. Thayer's portrait, in four lines, of "an admirable woman in Northampton who was a strong power in the community, who took, indeed, within the little limits of the town, all human affairs for her province." Already these filial 'Recollections' of Anne Jean Lyman had been printed for private circulation, but only last winter were they made accessible to a somewhat larger public. We then briefly commended the work as a remarkable exhibition of family life in Massachusetts, at a date (following the first decade of the century) when the New England towns, whether of the interior or the seaboard, possessed a culture, and a dignity, and a homogeneousness of population now to be sought in vain. It is, however, not simply as beautiful examples of the "old school" that Judge Joseph Lyman and his wife (a Robbins, by birth, and a lineal descendant of Anne Hutchinson) have a just claim on the public attention. His office and social station, and her Eastern connections, and their joint overflowing and incessant hospitality, drew to their home or into the current of their existence many eminent political, legal, and literary personages, and numerous lights of the Unitarian denomination. Webster and Lemuel Shaw, Bryant and George Bancroft, Harriet Martineau, Channing and Emerson, John S. Dwight and Rufus Ellis, David L. and Lydia Maria Child, the Sedgwicks, the Ellerys, the Cabots, the Robbinses, the Forbeses, the Wares, the Pickards, the Howes, the Flints, the Reveres—all these belonged to the Lyman circle as transient guests, visitors, relatives, or close friends. An intellectual welcome was at the same time extended to the best productions of the day, with the *North American Review* for a guide; and Mrs. Lyman's letters show the constant family habit of reading books, of judging them, of making extracts for future use.

Mrs. Lyman's personal traits of physical strength and a presence of almost aristocratic distinction, joined to true democratic feeling and the largest compassion and practical charity; her domestic assiduity; her energetic impulsiveness; her quick temper; her somewhat defective sense of humor, yet forcible and often droll expression—as when she writes, "I cannot compare my life this summer to anything but living on the top of a high tree, in a great gale of wind, in which all one's efforts are bent to holding on"—make a very engaging character, whose individuality borders here and there, to be sure, on eccentricity. Mrs. Lesley's delineation is delicate and at the same time faithful, and we are not spared the deepening gloom of her mother's old age, afflicted by the death of husband and child and kindred, and ending finally in the loss of her own faculties. Death had no more place in Mrs. Lyman's philosophy than it had in that of most of her generation. Her bereavements drew from Mr. Emerson letters of condolence here printed which are unsurpassable in diction.

While things spiritual and intellectual were ever dear to Mrs. Lyman, and she was full of good works, the conception of general reform was not familiar to her. Her daughter points out her want of sympathy with abolitionism, though she was an intimate friend of Eliza Lee Cabot (afterwards the wife of Charles Follen), and enjoyed the society of Mrs. Child. The author of the 'Appeal in favor of that class of Americans called Africans' offers a very instructive contrast to Mrs. Lyman, from whom she had nothing to learn in kindness of heart and good Samaritanism, while her sympathies had a broader range, and her superior literary gifts enabled her to be a national benefactor. The 'Recollections' can profitably be read in connection with the 'Letters of Lydia Maria Child'; and whereas the one will do much to inspire high ideals of the family relation, the other will take the mind abroad into that world-wide field of human responsibility and duty over the entrance to which we read, "Who is my neighbor?" Both works are fitted to benefit thoughtful girls, and both have an historical as well as moral value for young and old.

The Egyptian Campaigns, 1882 to 1885, and the events which led to them. By Charles Royle, Barrister-at-Law. 2 vols. London: Hurst & Blackett.

GREAT BRITAIN is, at this moment, engaged in an experiment without precedent in the history of mankind—the government, namely, of a world-wide empire by means of popular institutions; and it is to this fact that the want of any firm and consistent policy in Egypt is primarily due. The Liberal party came into office in 1880 pledged as deeply as men could be to an unaggressive policy abroad. They had, after a very fierce and bitter campaign, turned out their opponents on the express ground that their policy was one of incessant aggression and unjust assaults upon the rights of weaker races. Then came up this Egyptian question. The demand which Arabi and his party put forward was that the Chamber of Notables should be allowed to supervise that portion of the Egyptian Budget which did not refer to the public debt—a demand, from the point of view of an English Liberal, as legitimate as could be made. The Tories, however, adopting the precedent set by Mr. Gladstone in his Midlothian campaign, took the stump, and "the honor of the flag," "British prestige," "the highway to India," became as good words to conjure with as "the rights of the inferior races," "peace, retrenchment, and reform," or any other catch phrase. Mr. Gladstone's Egyptian policy was all along driven hither and thither by these contrary impulses. He and his colleagues were obliged to consider, not what was best to be done in Egypt, but the action

which would secure them a majority in the House of Commons. They fought bloody and useless campaigns at one time to conciliate the Jingos; they minimized intervention at another in order to soothe the outraged feelings of the men of peace. And, as Mr. Royle frankly admits, if a Conservative Government had been in power, there is no reason to suppose that they would have acted with greater firmness or foresight.

What has recently happened in Egypt is merely a recurrence of what, under like conditions, happened in Afghanistan and in Zululand and, thirty-five years previously, in the Crimea. As regards Egypt, there was no Englishman acquainted with the subject but knew that it was impossible to intervene in Egypt without being forced to intervene in the Sudan. But the number of such Englishmen might be counted on the fingers of a single hand. To the nation generally it was a question of putting down a "military adventurer"; after which everything would go on as quietly as before. Another fallacy which is largely responsible for the Egyptian muddle, is the belief, deep-rooted in the British mind, that the abuses prevalent in an Oriental administration may be rectified by the simple device of placing foreigners with large salaries, and wholly ignorant of the language and the people, at the head of the several departments. This fallacy has never been eradicated. It is in full operation at this moment in Egypt. The Dual Control honestly believed that it had greatly bettered the conduct of the administration and the condition of the people. British experience, since the intervention, has shown that this belief was altogether an illusion. All that the Dual Control effected by preferring foreigners to all the most lucrative posts in the administration was to call into existence a national party to protest against the usurpation. The English, unwarned by the experience of the past, are again filling Egypt with British officials.

In conclusion it is only fair to say that Mr. Royle's book is an account of the "Egyptian campaigns," and only subordinately of the "events which led to them." Of these campaigns, the chief objection to his narrative is its over-minuteness. He records the incidents from hour to hour, which, in the case of such trifling affairs as the skirmish at Kassasin or the capture of the Egyptian position at Tell el Kebir, becomes a heavy tax upon a reader's power of endurance. In regard to the bombardment of Alexandria, he relates an incident which is new to us. On the morning after the bombardment it appeared at one time as if the forts were still determined to hold out, and the order was given for the fleet to recruit their stock of ammunition from the storeship:

"In this matter a most unexpected difficulty arose. Through some unpardonable blunder the ship had been despatched from Malta without a single filled common shell on board, and actually without powder to fill the empty shells she had brought with her, and most of which were of an obsolete pattern and unserviceable. Further than this, she had brought no fuses; and as the vessels of war had no reserves of powder, they would, had hostilities been resumed, have been speedily reduced to a state of comparative impotence."

Familiar Studies of Men and Books. By Robert Louis Stevenson. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. 1887.

MR. STEVENSON has done his best to forestall criticism by reviewing these essays *seriatim* in the preface. He is sensible of defects and humble in acknowledgment; but in his own case almost any man is an indifferent judge. His subjects are Victor Hugo, Burns, Walt Whitman, Thoreau, Yoshida-Torajiro, Villon, Charles of Orleans, Pepys, and Knox. He confines himself to some single point of view or a few aspects of these notables; often the mass of his paper is nothing more than a succinct statement of biographical or historical fact, with such general reflections and particular criticisms as one would expect from a thoughtful and wide-ranging reader.

At the best he does not rise above the region of personal impressions. He is beset with a certain smartness, the sin of the magazine writer. He says of Thoreau—"A more bald-headed picture of life, if I may so express myself, has seldom been presented." The phrase arrests the reader, but it is a vulgarism without the excuse of having a meaning. Such "catches" are not infrequent, and, together with some colloquial Anglicisms, they give a smack to the book, but do not improve it. Of Walt Whitman Mr. Stevenson writes jauntily, but with the proper apology in the preface that he meant thereby only to do better service for that poet, of whom he is an admirer—a discreet one, as he takes pains to intimate. His criticism on Whitman may be illustrated by this half-sentence, in which he commends a phrase——"what he himself has called, with *unexcelled imaginative justice of language*, 'the huge and thoughtful night.'" This is the sort of talk about Whitman which is incomprehensible on this side the water. The phrase which we have italicized is itself a curious one, though intelligible enough, but not so curious as the criticism it conveys. To put a test, if one were told that "the huge and thoughtful night" was from "Hamlet," would he naturally think it was spoken by the Prince or by the Players? This is a small matter, however, and the essay on Whitman is particularly weak, being pitched in a tone between scoffing and worshipping which it is especially difficult to use with entire sincerity. Mr. Stevenson usually finds a good deal to censure in all these worthies, and little to praise, except in the case of Yoshida-Torajiro, of whom he knows only what he was told, and in writing of whom he says he is merely a hand to hold the pen for his informant. There is a liveliness and intellectual substance in the papers which give them a superficial attraction beyond their intrinsic merit; but the fondness of the author for creating his character, his love of the picturesque, and the common temptations of an imaginative rather than a sympathetic writer, preclude him from criticism of the higher sort. As the familiar talk of a thoughtful man upon the books he happens to be interested in, this volume is agreeable; no higher claim can be made for it.

American Home Rule. A Sketch of the Political System in the United States. By Edmund Robertson, M.P., Barrister-at-Law. Edinburgh: Adam & Charles Black. 1887.

THE object of this book is to exhibit to British readers the general scheme of government in the United States. It therefore comprehends a discussion of "Congressional" government, of constitutional law, and of the State legislatures; but it makes no reference to the government of towns and cities. Although it is quite possible to treat of our constitutional system for certain purposes without considering these municipalities, yet, when the object is to instruct a people contemplating the introduction of "home rule," it seems a mistake to omit what is of the essence of our local self-government. The attitude of our people both towards Congress and towards the State legislatures is not comprehensible unless we take into account the all-important functions of the minor political bodies. It is because these bodies perform so completely the necessary work of government that the activity of the legislatures and of Congress is looked upon as superfluous.

Within the limits that the author has set himself, however, he has done his work with singular accuracy. He has the advantage of a legal training, and he has closely followed two very intelligent guides, Judge Cooley and Prof. Woodrow Wilson. It is hardly to be expected that a treatise by a foreigner intended for the instruction of foreigners should be of any particular value to Americans; but in this case Mr. Robertson has furnished us with a really excellent political text-book. We should hardly know where to turn for a clearer and neater account of our complicated system of government within an equal space. The facts, it is true, do not always correspond to the theory of our constitution; but it is impossible, in such a sketch as this, to do more than state the generally accepted theory, leaving the exceptions to suggest themselves or be disclosed by further study. We do not incline to the opinion that political systems can be transplanted, and it would be easy to point out reasons why methods available in the union of homogeneous communities are not available when the end to be attained is the disunion of heterogeneous communities. Mr. Robertson himself makes little attempt to suggest practical applications of our system to the solution of the Irish problem, and even leaves it uncertain what his own views are. His book is really all the better on this account, being equally available to all parties. We notice one rather ingenious comparison—that of the constitutional system prevailing in the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge with the Federal organization of the United States. Such a comparison cannot be pressed very far, but it may well be of service to the British mind in the process of admitting an unfamiliar idea.

From the Forecastle to the Cabin. By Captain S. Samuels. Harper & Brothers.

THIS little book is a striking illustration of the influence of environment upon literary workmanship in a receptive subject. Captain Samuels's mind has never been stiffened into grooves by the study of canons of expression, and his book is as fresh and as free as the ocean air that he has breathed from boyhood. During a long career at sea, in situations of danger and difficulty such as fall to the lot of few men, and fewer still have the nerve and courage to meet, he has faced duty squarely, resolutely, with unflinching purpose, and the recital of his doings is given with a straightforward modesty and a self-respect that make the reader put his faith implicitly in the man and in the narrative. There is no ostentation, no awkward self-consciousness. No doubt, Capt. Samuels is a born story-teller; at least he has discovered that the best way to tell a strong story is to let it tell itself, and the exceeding force and vividness of some of his bits of description are largely due to his moderation.

Bishop Potter, whose wide sympathies are extended to all seafaring men, from St. Paul to the Captain of the *Dreadnought*, introduces the book by a preface full of graceful and manly courtesy. We are rather disposed, however, to differ with the Bishop in his conclusion that the trials of sea life, as pictured in Captain Samuels's story, will act as a deterrent to boys or men who have an inclination in that direction. The spirit of adventure may not be so rife as it was formerly, but it must be a very cold-blooded lad indeed who does not follow with eagerness the veteran skipper as he is racing with Sir Edmund Lyons in the Archipelago, or rescuing the Swedish lady from the harem in Constantinople, or bailing out the life-boat after being washed overboard at the Cape, or quelling a mutiny of the "bloody forties" on board the *Dreadnought*. In the career of Capt. Samuels the truth yields nothing in its

thrilling interest to the fictions of Marryat and Clark Russell.

It is no small service to the community to have passed through such a life, and to have met its incessant demands with such resolution and unyielding courage. It is in men of this type that the character of the American seaman has reached its highest development, and it is through the influence of such men that our seamen as a class have maintained a high standard of excellence. Therefore, notwithstanding the brutal and vicious phases of life with which they must come more or less in contact, we cannot but hope that seafaring pursuits will still attract good material among American youths, who will have the steadiness and pluck to overcome whatever of evil may assail them. As long as the merchant marine can produce men like Samuels, there is little danger that the old standard will be lowered.

Central America. Vol. III. [History of the Pacific States of North America. By Hubert Howe Bancroft. Vol. III.] 1801–1887. San Francisco: The History Company. 1887.

THE characteristics of Mr. Bancroft's historical series are now so well settled that it is needless to point them out in detail in each new volume of the rapidly lengthening list. The reviewer may come upon literary faults gross enough to make his flesh creep, but that is now one of the things he expects, and is scarcely worth mention. The vast heaps of unsmelted ore flung down at his feet may make the reader wish that they had been first carried to the reducing works; but it is much to get the ore, to be sure that it is all before him, that the mine has been thoroughly exploited, every vein followed up to its last filament.

The story of the struggles for Central American independence does not vary essentially from that of the working of the revolutionary ferment in all of the Spanish possessions of the new world during the first twenty years of the century, except, perhaps, in the failure to tell of some commanding personality—a Bolívar or Iturbide. The most striking dates and facts to be remembered in connection with the new measures enacted, independence once achieved and federation established, are the laws of December 31, 1823, and April 17 and 24, 1824, decreeing the emancipation of all slaves and the recovery of liberty by the slaves of other countries at the moment of touching Central American soil. "Of all the nations of North America, to the Central American republic belongs the honor of having first practically abolished slavery." The most readable part of the volume is the narrative of the revolution, of the brief Mexican affiliation, and of the final arrival at confederation. Here the material is skilfully handled, and there is some semblance of order and consecutiveness. Good-by must be said to all this, however, after chapter vi. Not that Mr. Bancroft does not get on as well as could be expected in the impossible task of trying to make a cosmos out of chaos. No one who remembers Stephens's amusing, if somewhat perilous, search, in 1840, after the Government to which he was accredited, and his justifiable elation at having at last "treed" it, will lightly accuse our historian of failure clearly to describe what never clearly existed. His mistake, if any, was in trying to describe in a single narrative five separate varieties of chaos. This was necessarily involved in his scheme, however, and the loose and broken threads of the great mass of this volume inevitably resulted. Some amends are made in the eight closing chapters, which are summaries of the highest value, under the heads "Central American Institutions," "The People" (two chapters), "Intellectual Advancement," "Judicial and Military," "Industrial Progress," "Commerce and Finance," and "Interoceanic Communication." The index to the three volumes of the series is not as full as it should be, to judge by a few instances of strange deficiency which we have noted.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bain, Prof. A. On Teaching English. D. Appleton & Co. $1.25.
Baker, J. F. The Federal Constitution. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Battles and Leaders of the Civil War. Edited by R. U. Johnson and Clarence C. Buel. Vol. I. The *Century* Co. 50 cents.
Baylor, Frances Courtenay. Behind the Blue Ridge: A Homely Narrative. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Brower, J. A. Paleolithic Man in N. W. Middlesex. Macmillan & Co.
Burt, Mary E. Seed Thoughts from Robert Browning. 3d ed. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. 50 cents.
Carlyle, T. Reminiscences. Edited by Charles Eliot Norton. 2 vols. in 1. Macmillan & Co. $2.50.
Carrington, H. B. The Obelisk and its Voices. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.
Clarke, Dr. J. F. Life and Times of Jesus, as Related by Thomas Didymus. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Conder, Capt. C. R. Altaic Hieroglyphs and Hittite Inscriptions. Scribner & Welford.
Dowling, R. Tempest-Driven: A Romance. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Fearnley, W. A Course of Elementary Practical Histology. Macmillan & Co. $2.
Featherstone, W. It's a Way Love Has: A Novel. G. W. Dillingham.
Floyd-Jones, Dr. L. Letters from the Far East, 1885-86. Publishing Service Co.
Forster-Barham, A. G. The Nibelungen Lied, translated. Macmillan & Co. $3.
Frances, Mary. Daddy Dave. Funk & Wagnalls.
Gammell-Jones. The Faith that Makes Faithful. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co.
Greenwood, J. M. Principles of Education Practically Applied. D. Appleton & Co. $1.
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Hamilton, Alice King. One of the Duanes. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 75 cents.
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Krehbiel, H. E. Review of the New York Musical Season, 1886-1887. Novello, Ewer & Co.
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Lindsay, W. M. T. Macci Plavti Captivi. Part I. Introduction and Text. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Lockwood, L. The P. G.: or Perfect Gentleman. G. W. Dillingham.
Lupton, J. H. A Life of John Colet, D.D. With an Appendix of some of his English Writings. Macmillan & Co. $4.50.
Martin, Mrs. Herbert. Amor Vincit: A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 30 cents.
May, Sophie. Drone's Honey. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
McCaskey, J. P. Franklin Square Song Collection. For Schools and Homes, Nursery and Fireside. No. 4. Harper & Brothers. 50 cents.
Minchin, G. M. Naturæ Veritas. Macmillan & Co. 75 cents.
The Annual Register: A Review of Public Events at Home and Abroad, for the Year 1886. New Series. London: Rivingtons. 18 shillings.

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 519

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS 522

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:
The Battle-Flag Flurry 524
The Inter-State Commerce Decision 524
Some Bearings of the Andover Decision 525
Cooperation in England 526
The Victorian Jubilee 526

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:
The Bodyke Evictions 527
Boissier's Mme. de Sévigné 528

CORRESPONDENCE:
The Surplus Revenue and the Bonds 529
A Bad Day for "Machine" Candidates 530
Corrections 530

NOTES 530

REVIEWS:
Recent Novels 532
Price's London Guildhall.—II 534
A British Sergeant 535
Life of Henry Clay 536
A History of the Baptists 536
Due North 537
Dante 537
The Phillips Exeter Lectures 537
Mineral Physiology and Physiography 538
Rapport sur les questions relatives à l'impôt sur le Revenu 538

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 539

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 23, 1887.

The Week.

THAT the idea of returning the rebel flags en masse was only the wrong way of doing the right thing, is strikingly illustrated by a letter which we find in the Philadelphia *Press* of Tuesday. The survivors of the "Philadelphia Brigade," consisting of four Pennsylvania regiments in the Union Army, have invited the survivors of Pickett's Division of Confederates to become their guests at Gettysburg on July 2, 3, and 4. During the great battle on that field twenty-four years ago, three Confederate flags were captured from Pickett's Division by members of one regiment of the Philadelphia Brigade. John W. Frazier, after conferring with leading members of the Regimental Association, says: "I believe I voice the sentiment of every member of Baker's historical regiment when I state, the climax of that reunion would be complete by the survivors of Col. Baker's old regiment returning in person to the brave men of Pickett's Division, upon this occasion of national interest, the three flags captured by them—the return to be made upon the spot where they were captured, and to be made at the time when the monument of the 71st is unveiled, July 3 next." On the presumption that official action looking in this direction will be taken at the meeting of the Regimental Association on June 25, he has therefore written the President to inquire what disposition has been made of these three flags, and to ask whether it is possible to return them to the Regimental Association. Whether it proves possible to comply with this request or not, the very fact that it is made is of the highest significance, as showing that there are plenty of Union soldiers who are ready to return rebel flags. Indeed, this has already been shown by such returns, notably in the return to a Mississippi regiment of their colors by the Ninth Connecticut Volunteers.

The "rebel flag" chorus winds up most appropriately with a speech from Gen. Benjamin Butler, late candidate of the People's Party and of the New York *Sun* for the office of President of the United States. A flag, according to the General, is an "archive," an evidence of victory. Returning captured flags is therefore a mutilation of public records, depriving our soldiers of their rightful place in history. He makes it very clear that if he had been elected instead of Mr. Cleveland, this thing would never have happened. Nevertheless, he deals very gently with the President. Strongly as he reprobates the mutilation of archives, he frankly acknowledges that the President did not know any better. The poor man had never had any experience that should teach him better. He insinuates strongly that since Mr. Cleveland never captured any rebel flags, he cannot be expected to understand their true value, and hence his giving them up is not a blameworthy act. Butler would of course have kept them, and especially all that he captured at Bermuda Hundred, Fort Fisher, and other places.

The approval by Gov. Ames of the bill passed by the Massachusetts Legislature exempting veterans from the conditions of the Civil-Service Law, is the worst blow administered to the reform since the enactment of the Pendleton law by Congress four years ago. The measure has been long and fully discussed, and the action of both the Legislature and the Governor has been taken only after ample opportunity for deliberation upon its significance. Its passage must therefore be considered as expressing the attitude of the men who manage the Republican party in Massachusetts toward the reform cause. The proposition was brought forward in the Massachusetts Legislature a year ago, and was passed by large majorities in each branch. It was supported upon the nominal ground of gratitude to the men who saved the Union, but really as an effective method of attacking the reform system. Fortunately, Gov. Robinson interposed his veto and blocked the scheme, pointing out the duplicity of its advocates and the insidious character of the measure so clearly that it was impossible to rally a two-thirds vote against him. The Republican State Convention last fall ostensibly sustained Gov. Robinson's course, and committed the party against further support of the exemption scheme by adopting a resolution which, after giving hearty support to the Federal and State Civil-Service Acts, said: "We will oppose all open or covert attacks upon them, and encourage no action which tends to impair their efficiency." The spoilsmen in Massachusetts to-day congratulate themselves that a Republican Legislature and Governor have administered what they hope may be a death-blow to the reform.

The Republican Legislature in Massachusetts, having broken the solemn pledges of the party platform to pass a prohibition amendment to the Constitution and to oppose all attacks upon the civil-service reform system, the Boston *Journal* remarks: "This seems not to be a good year for the maintenance of party promises; and political platforms are apt to pass more than ever into a condition of 'innocuous desuetude' if the precedents set this year of ignoring their provisions are followed in the future." This is quite true, and there is now every prospect that the next Presidential campaign will be fought almost entirely upon the issue of candidates, the advantage resting with that party which shall nominate a man whose own record is his sufficient platform.

The Prohibition advocates in Michigan have scored an important victory in securing the passage through the Legislature of a local-option bill applying to counties. It provides that whenever one-fifth of the voters at the last preceding election for Governor in any county shall petition for a special election to be held on the question of prohibiting the sale of liquor throughout that county, such election shall take place, no other question being voted upon at it. An affirmative vote will establish prohibition in the county. Such election can be held only once in three years, and the decision reached shall be binding during that period. The bill received a very large vote in both houses. It is said that the prohibition partisans repudiate it because it interferes with their prosperity as a party organization. They are probably sound in this objection, for there can be little doubt that the bill will have that effect. According to the vote in the last election, forty-eight of the eighty-three counties in the State are now in favor of prohibition, and under this act they can not only secure it, but, what is far more to the purpose, can enforce it by having public sentiment in its favor.

Michigan is now one of the most advanced States in the Union in the matter of regulating the liquor traffic. Its present tax law levies a uniform tax of $500 upon every wholesale dealer and $300 upon every retail dealer, the proceeds to go into the local treasuries. An amendment to the law has been passed by one house of the present Legislature, and is now pending in the other, which raises the tax to $800 on wholesale dealers and $500 on retail dealers. By adding the local option principle to the uniform State tax, Michigan follows the example of Ohio and Illinois, though her proposed tax is much higher than that of either of those States. Taken together, taxation and local option have been found to work most effectively for both the restriction and suppression of the traffic. Taxation works well where the majority of public sentiment is against prohibition, as it is in all the large cities; and local option easily maintains prohibition in the rural portions of the States. This is a rational and statesmanlike solution of the problem. It could have been reached in this State long ago without the slightest difficulty had the Republican leaders been sincere in their professions of friendliness to temperance legislation.

The Andover trouble has taken a singular shape—such, moreover, as of all imaginable shapes is least likely to satisfy anybody, and happily, therefore, is least likely to be permanent. The Board of Visitors of the Seminary have no original jurisdiction of the subject of removing a professor, their duties in this respect, as prescribed by the Seminary statutes, being to "hear appeals from the Board of Trustees," to "review and revise and reverse any censure passed by said Trustees upon any professor." The constitution of the Seminary provides that "no man shall be continued a professor in this institution who shall not continue to approve himself, to the satisfaction of the Trustees, a man of sound and orthodox principles in divinity," according to the standards established in said constitution; and that, "if at any meeting regularly appointed it should be proved to the satisfaction of a majority of the whole number of the said Trustees, that any professor in this institution has taught or embraced any of the

heresies or errors alluded to in the declaration aforesaid, he shall be forthwith removed from office"; and that "every professor in this institution shall be under the immediate inspection of the said Trustees, and shall be by them removed" for neglect of duty, immorality, incapacity, "or any other just and sufficient cause." Nevertheless, in spite of these provisions, the Board of Visitors did allow original proceedings to be taken before them, and they have now brought in their judgment that Prof. Smyth is guilty of heresy concerning matters which he did not write, and must be removed from office, while Profs. Tucker, Churchill, Harris, and Hincks, who did write the inculpated matter, are acquitted, on the ground that one member of the Board "was not present on the day of the hearing on said complaints when said respondents severally appeared and made their statements in defence thereto."

Perhaps it may seem that nothing could be added to this (except, perhaps, by the author of 'Alice in Wonderland' in a peculiarly happy moment), but in fact the Trustees, who had the power of judging, but no charge before them, thought fit to supplement the work of the Visitors, who had charges before them, but no power of judging. As the Trustees say, "We still considered that we were not relieved from the obligation laid upon us by the constitution, and that it was our duty to pass upon the charges made against the professors." "Accordingly," they say, gravely, they "have carefully weighed the evidence . . . presented at the trial," *i. e.*, before another court at another place, "and have sought light *from all other accessible sources;*" and our judgment is that the charges brought against the professors are not sustained." So the Faculty is pronounced wholly good by the rightful tribunal without a hearing, and partly bad by the wrongful tribunal with a hearing in part. What would have happened if Dr. Eustis had actually heard the defence of the four exonerated professors instead of reading it at his leisure in a verified verbatim report, can only be imagined.

The Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette* severely castigates the Chicago *Tribune* for its irreverent treatment of Senator Sherman's notions about sugar duties and sugar bounties. The *Tribune* objected to the scheme because it believed that Spain would immediately put an export tax on sugar equal to the amount by which our duty is lowered, thus preventing American consumers from getting any benefit from the reduction. The *Commercial Gazette* replies that this might be met by a discriminating duty on our part against countries that levy an export tax, and then it goes on to expound the benefits of the bounty system, which, it says, would not only compensate the Louisiana planter, but stimulate the production of beet and sorghum sugar in this country to a remarkable degree. We quote one paragraph which strikes us as a melancholy symptom of decrepitude in a newspaper way:

"The United States has any quantity of land admirably adapted for the production of beet and sorghum sugar; and in several States, notably in California and Kansas, this home industry is now flourishing, though in its infancy. Mr. Sherman contends that the same policy in this country would produce the same results, with enormous benefit to almost every State in the Union. A bounty of say one-half to one cent a pound, according to quality, paid directly to the producer of domestic sugar, would probably increase the production four-fold within the period of ten years. Upon the basis of the present production, this bounty would amount to about $3,000,000 or $4,000,000, and if it should in time amount to $12,000,000, there would still be a large revenue from sugar over and above the bounty."

We leave this remarkable sprouting of protectionist conceits in the soil of free trade to notice the Chicago *Tribune's* objection to Mr. Sherman's project. There is not the slightest danger that Spain will put any greater export tax on sugar than she now imposes, by reason of the reduction of our import duty. She cannot do this without losing the American market. Sugar is now an article of such world-wide production that the very smallest fraction, say a sixteenth of a cent per pound, will determine whether this country shall be supplied by the Spanish islands, or the British islands, or by South America, or by the beet-growing countries of Europe. The world is literally glutted with sugar. There was a time when Western farmers burned their corn for fuel. The only reason why the West Indian planter does not burn his sugar for fuel is that he does not need fuel. The planters of both the Indies, Spanish as well as British, are either bankrupt or on the verge of bankruptcy. None of them can concede the smallest advantage to their competitors in the American market. If Spain should put on a new export tax, she would complete the ruin of the sugar industry in Cuba at once, and would probably have to face a new rebellion in that island. We may therefore act our own pleasure with reference to our sugar duties, and we need not trouble ourselves to devise retaliatory measures against any country on that behalf.

A correspondent, apropos of recent events in the exchanges, asks, "What is the difference between gambling with dice, cards, or roulette tables, and betting on the future prices of wheat and coffee?" The frame of mind of the proposer of this venerable conundrum is apparently that of one who regards the legislative power as an agency for purifying the public morals. Of course a purifier of morals must be consistent with himself. He cannot condemn one form of gambling and wink at another. With him sauce for the goose is sauce for the gander. But it is a total misconception of the theory of law to suppose that it deals with morals at all. It concerns itself only with acts. These are indeed the outward manifestations of the moral nature, but a man may be as immoral in thought as you please: the law does not concern itself with him until he does something. Then it asks the question: "Shall I do more harm than good by putting this act under the penalty of fine and imprisonment?" The men who do a strictly gambling business in wheat and coffee cannot be distinguished from those who do a legitimate business. It is neither illegal nor immoral to buy or to sell wheat for future delivery. There are great advantages to both producers and consumers in such trading. In point of fact, the markets are steadied by dealing in futures. Fluctuations are lessened. Other business arrangements which depend upon the price of wheat, and, most of all, the arrangements of those who work for wages, are in a measure protected against uncertainty.

Now, the answer to our correspondent's question is, that whether there is or is not a difference in the arcana of morals between the gambler in wheat and coffee and the gambler with cards, or dice, or roulette, the former cannot be reached by the law without doing more harm than good to society as a whole. The gambler with cards and roulette can be so reached. There are no wise and beneficial social arrangements to be upset in seizing his tools and shutting up his place. All that he does is bad. There is no room for argument concerning any of his doings. The evidence of the badness of his acts is subject to no doubt. There are not two classes doing the same things side by side, one beneficial and proper and the other criminal and degrading. Differences of other kinds exist between the two things—moral differences, we think—but these we shall not now consider because the law does not take cognizance of moral differences when not translated into acts. A large part of the philosophy of Burke, which is more strikingly than anything else in literature the philosophy of Anglo-Saxon law, consists in the wholesale expulsion of what is miscalled "consistency" from the body of legislation. True consistency is the framing of laws for the best ordering of society, and is the result of experience. The consistency which calls for one law merely because another law resembling it exists on the statute-book, and without reference to its effects, is of the kind which Burke hammered to pieces in Parliament, although it still rears its head in the pulpit and the Sunday-school, where, indeed, it properly belongs.

The Union Labor party of the State of New York held a conference at Elmira on Wednesday week, and decided to call a State Convention in August next. The conference consisted of twenty-seven men and one woman, and its deliberations were carefully watched by ten newspaper correspondents and a much larger number of politicians of both "great parties." There was a general atmosphere of suspicion hanging around the meeting. In the first place, the Labor representatives were all more or less suspicious of one another, each being afraid that his associates would sell him and the organization out to some politician or other. Then the friends of Gov. Hill who were on the ground were keeping a sharp eye upon the conference, lest Tom Platt should capture it bodily; and Tom Platt's emissaries were watching the Hill men, lest they bag the game. Then the United Labor party of this city, supposed to be Henry George's property, looked askance at the Conference as an attempt to cut in ahead of them with a similar party name and steal all the Labor thunder. Several suspicious Labor repre-

sentatives were excluded from the final deliberations, and the Conference exhausted itself by appointing a State Committee, or as much of a one as could be supplied by the size of the party at present.

The new testimony which the counsel for the people presented in the Sharp trial on Friday was very interesting. With Fullgraff's story the public is familiar. After him came a bookkeeper who testified that his firm had received from Fullgraff, in February, 1885, $8,000 in payment of a loan, and that most of it was in $1,000 bills. This is not the first appearance of Aldermen of 1884 with $1,000 bills. Alderman Farley, it will be remembered, testified before the Senate Committee that he started a bank account in 1884, though previous to that period he had kept a bottling establishment and had had no use for such an account. He remembered that after starting it he frequently received and deposited $1,000 bills. "How many were there?" "Oh, I suppose about twenty." There were also several $500 bills. He got five or ten of the $1,000 bills from a "young man in Ludlow Street Jail, named Billy Jones," and four or five $500 bills. Billy was the engineer of the jail, and Farley had got him his place. Where Billy got them he didn't know. He merely brought them to him to be changed. "I knew Billy was straight as a string, and so I never asked him where he got them. I supposed he was obliging some wealthy prisoners who were confined in the jail." Farley also received "fifteen or twenty $1,000 bills" from William Hall, a liquor-dealer, now dead. Billy Jones subsequently testified that he frequently got large bills changed for visitors to the jail. In fact, he was so accustomed to handling bills of large denominations that the simple fact of a total stranger calling him up from the cellar and asking him to run out and get change for a $1,000 bill, made no impression upon him.

Other interesting evidence on Friday was that of an ex-clerk of the Assembly, who testified that Sharp had personally offered him $5,000 to make a change in the General Railroad Act of 1883; and that of Col. George Bliss, one of Sharp's counsel, who testified that a false entry had been made upon the books of the Seventh Avenue Railway Company, charging him with receiving $11,500 for services from that company. His services had been paid for by Richmond with $1,500 in cash and ten $1,000 bonds of the Broadway Company. This is the second time in which false entries have been discovered upon the books of the Seventh Avenue Railway Company. The first was the use made of the $500,000 mortgage placed upon the road for the avowed purpose of enlarging its depot and extending its facilities. This mortgage was sold for cash, the money was placed in a safe-deposit vault, no entry of its sale was made upon the books of the company at the time, but subsequently a false entry was made, first as "sundries," and afterwards this was erased and "proceeds of bonds" was written over it

We doubt if the people of this city realize fully the importance of the experiment which Mayor Hewitt is making in the City Hall. He is trying with great sagacity and pluck to give us a local government conducted upon honest principles. He is greatly hampered by his limited powers; for so long as we consent to be governed mainly from Albany, no Mayor can do more than show us what might be done if we were trusted to govern ourselves. But he is doing a great deal to call attention to the enormous expense which our present system entails upon us, and that is a service of no slight value. There is one class of the community which ought especially to support the Mayor's efforts, and that is the large one composed of salaried and other men of moderate means. Their only hope of an easier living lies in the success of the kind of government which Mr. Hewitt is trying to give us—that is, a government conducted upon the same principles which every merchant observes in the conduct of his business. Government by "halls" means the support at the public expense of a vast army of incompetents, loafers, and thieves; and the cost of this support falls finally upon the rent-payers of all degrees. Mr. Hewitt, as a business man of great ability and experience, sees that employees of this sort ought no more to be tolerated in public than they are in private service, and is doing his utmost to drive them out. It is almost impossible to overestimate the saving to the city which would ensue, could his efforts in this direction be entirely successful. The political leaders of the various "halls" and their subordinates at present upon the pay-rolls of the city draw at least one million dollars a year in salaries. As they give not only the larger part of their time and energy to "politics," but also contribute a large percentage of their salaries to the expenses of elections, they are forced to recoup themselves from the city treasury in various ways, including inefficient service, exorbitant pay, and support of all kinds of "jobs." Business principles applied to them and their work, business principles applied in the same way to all branches of the city service—that is, the securing for the city the best possible return for its outlay—would make the problem of living in New York a much less burdensome one than it is to every man of moderate means to-day.

It is a significant fact that of 111 members of the graduating class at Yale College who define their political standing, 19, or almost one fifth, report themselves as Mugwumps. It is probable that the proportion of Independents is about as large as this among educated young voters generally, and, however much the political managers may ridicule them, their votes count just as much as those of thick-and-thin partisans.

Mr. Blaine is experiencing in England some of the difficulties which are likely to beset his whole tour in Europe. He has to satisfy his American supporters, of the "capitalistic" school, that he is regarded in Europe as one of the greatest men who ever appeared in either hemisphere. Now, the only way this can be proved is by invitations from monarchs and noblemen to "banquets" and other festivities. But it is plain that if Mr. Blaine accepts such invitations, he will lose standing with "Labor" and the Irish. Accordingly, we find that while his capitalistic friends are desirous of seeing him seated on the Queen's right hand in Westminster Abbey, and the chief guest at all the jubilee banquets, he is not able to go to any of the fêtes, but has to keep close in his lodgings. Moreover, if he speaks anywhere in England and does not say a word for home rule under the nose of the Saxons, what will the Irish say of him? If, on the other hand, he does say a word for home rule, what will the nobility, gentry, and clergy think of him? The situation is a most trying one for a man of sensitive nature. It will hardly be improved when he goes on the Continent. It will not do when there to hob-nob with military monarchs, for that would damn him with Labor also. Nor will it do not to hob-nob with them, for this would destroy the theory that all classes on the Continent have been waiting for him with hushed and respectful eagerness, which compels the rulers to run about after him. It looks as if he would have to confine himself to the society of his brother historians, Mommsen, and Curtius, and the like; but he will find this awfully dull.

Nothing can well be odder than the attention paid in England to "Buffalo Bill," or, as he is there known, "Colonel the Hon. William F. Cody." He is literally the great lion of the season in London. He is an honored guest at the fashionable parties, invited out to dinner everywhere, and passes a good deal of his time in the company of royal personages. In fact, he has had a far more flattering reception than any foreigner without official rank or antecedents to help him. Garibaldi was much less favorably received, although he was, when he went to England, one of the most famous and romantic heroes of the day. Cody's social success, like that of Fred Archer the jockey, marks the enormous space which pure amusement now occupies in the life of the well-to-do classes in England. The number of people who follow amusement as a business has probably increased ten-fold during the last forty years, and the place of people who furnish amusement has been correspondingly exalted. Americans of any grade or species who can do this are especially successful in London society. Their stories, their jokes, their songs, their new card tricks, their skill in poker and euchre, sometimes supply the place, in giving them social consideration, of nearly everything else which makes a human being respectable. We by no means wish to underrate Buffalo Bill's character or capacity in his line, but it seems very odd to see the highest circles of a civilized nation paying to the proprietor of an equestrian show all the honor it could bestow, and far more than the honor it would bestow, on a great author, or inventor, or statesman. A large number of those who are fêting Buffalo Bill are, in fact, taking pains to inflict slights and insults on Mr. Gladstone whenever they get an opportunity.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

WEDNESDAY, June 15, to TUESDAY, June 21, 1887, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE President gave verbal assent to a proposition, which was suggested by Adjt.-Gen. Drum, to return the Confederate battle-flags now in the War Department at Washington to the Governors of the States from whose troops they were captured. This order provoked indignant expressions from Gen. Fairchild, Commander of the Grand Army of the Republic, from many posts, and from the Governors of several Northern States. Before it was executed—on June 16—the President revoked it, expressing the opinion "that the return of these flags in the manner thus contemplated is not authorized by existing law, nor justified as an executive act."

A postal treaty between the United States and Mexico was signed by the President June 21, which provides that the same rate of postage shall be charged on mail matter from either country to the other as each charges on domestic mail matter. It will take effect July 1.

Gov. Ames of Massachusetts, on June 16, signed the bill "giving preference in appointments to office in the State to honorably-discharged soldiers and sailors, without civil service examination." The same bill was passed last year and vetoed by the Governor. It is regarded by the civil-service reformers as a severe blow to the reform in the State. The Massachusetts Legislature adjourned June 16.

The famous ecclesiastical trial of members of the Faculty of Andover Theological Seminary, provoked chiefly by the controversy about the doctrine of future probation, was ended, for the present at least, by the decision of the Board of Visitors on June 17. Prof. Egbert C. Smyth was declared guilty of heresy, but the four other professors, Churchill, Harris, Hincks, and Tucker, who share Prof. Smyth's view about future probation for the heathen, were not declared guilty, because the chairman of the Board of Visitors was absent when their cases were heard. The Board of Trustees, with one dissenting voice, has upheld Prof. Smyth. The case will be carried to the Supreme Court of Massachusetts to determine whether or not these "heretical" professors have violated the conditions under which the institution was endowed. This technical compromise of the case has brought the ecclesiastical quarrel no nearer to a settlement than it was before.

The discussion of the usual method of teaching children arithmetic, begun some time ago by Prof. Francis A. Walker, has caused the Board of Boston Public Schools to reduce the time given to it and to order a simpler way of teaching it.

The Governor of New York on June 20 signed the bill that makes it unlawful for any steam railroad, after May 1, 1888, "to heat its passenger cars on other than mixed trains by any stove or furnace kept inside the cars, or suspended therefrom, except in case of accident or other emergency."

The Secretary of the State Board of Health of New York has been obliged to insist on the local boards' making more nearly complete returns of vital statistics. Although this is of the utmost importance, there is a strong tendency to neglect it.

The Board of Aldermen of this city passed an amendment to the ordinance that prohibits the discharge of fireworks, whereby July 4 should be excepted, and Mayor Hewitt has vetoed the amendment.

There was a conference at Elmira, June 15, of representatives of the Union Labor party in this State to make preparations for issuing a call for a State Convention. This declaration was made: "Be it known to all people that we, the undersigned, have severed our connection with all political parties, and that we will not give our influence or vote to any party except the Union Labor party, and we will support its principles as promulgated at Cincinnati, O., on February 22, 1887. We further assert that we do not hold any appointment from any political party, and hereby declare that we will not do so until we publicly sever our connection with said Union Labor party." The suspicion has found free expression in the Democratic and Independent papers that the leaders in this conference are preparing to make a "deal" with the Republican party in the State.

There was a long parade of working people in this city on Saturday night, June 18, in honor of Dr. McGlynn, the deposed priest. The resolutions adopted by the crowd declare "that we firmly protest against interference in American politics by any foreign power, whether civil or ecclesiastical, and that we denounce with especial indignation the arbitrary, unjust, and tyrannical attempt to interfere with the civil rights of the Rev. Dr. Edward McGlynn, to whom, with one heart, we pledge our devoted and unwavering support."

After consuming more than a fortnight in filling the jurors' seats, the trial of Jacob Sharp for bribing New York Aldermen to grant the franchise of the Broadway Railroad Company in 1884 has been begun. On Friday afternoon the defendant was taken to Ludlow Street Jail and confined in the room which Tweed occupied. The time of the court has thus far been consumed in hearing witnesses for the prosecution. The General Term of the Supreme Court on June 18 handed down a decision in the case of ex-Alderman John O'Neil, convicted of bribery, which affirms the judgment of the lower court.

Mr. Junius S. Morgan, the well-known American banker in London, has presented to the Metropolitan Museum of Art in this city a painting by Sir Joshua Reynolds which he purchased for £10,000. It is the portraits of Henry Fane, Charles Blair, and Irving Jones, trustees of the tenth Earl of Westmoreland, for whom it was painted.

Both branches of the Michigan Legislature have passed a county local-option bill, whereby any county can vote for a prohibitory law.

A new $1,000,000 3½ per cent. loan by the State of Connecticut was taken June 20, half by the Ætna Life Insurance Company at 103.27, and half by the Williamsburgh Savings Bank of Brooklyn, N. Y., at 102.55, and all the bids that were made aggregated nearly $7,000,000.

A soldiers' and sailors' monument was dedicated at New Haven, June 17. It is of Hallowell granite, 110 feet high, upon which stands a bronze statue, representing an Angel of Peace. The site is on the summit of East Rock, 400 feet above the city's level, or 526 feet above the level of the sea. At the base of the structure are statues representing Prosperity, History, Victory, and Patriotism. A speech was made by President Dwight of Yale, and the principal oration was by the Rev. Dr. Newman Smyth. On the same day a soldiers' monument at Arlington, Mass., was dedicated. On June 18 there was a celebration of the battle of Valley Forge, on the battlefield, by the Patriotic Order of Sons of America.

The Union Labor party in Kentucky on June 18 nominated for Governor A. H. Cargin, for Lieutenant-Governor O. N. Bradburn, for Attorney-General John P. Newman, for Treasurer George Smith, for Auditor John McMurtry, for Superintendent of Public Instruction R. M. McBeath. The Prohibition, Republican, and Democratic parties each had before nominated full State tickets.

A suit was begun in the Circuit Court in Chicago, June 17, by a contractor against a "walking delegate" of a painters' union, to recover damages caused by a strike which the delegate ordered.

The breaking of a "corner" in wheat in Chicago caused the bankruptcy of C. J. Kershaw & Co., and several smaller firms, and led on June 21 to the suspension of the Fidelity National Bank in Cincinnati.

William J. McGarigle, warden, and E. S. McDonald, engineer, of the Cook County (Ill.) Hospital, were convicted, June 18, of conspiracy to defraud the county, by making fraudulent charges for supplies, and sentenced to three years' imprisonment in the State Penitentiary. These are the first convictions in the notorious "boodlers'" cases in Chicago. McGarigle, in the early part of the Cleveland Administration, was the candidate of the Democratic politicians for United States Marshal for the Northern District of Illinois. Few applicants for any office had stronger or more numerous recommendations, and among his persistent friends were seven of the Democratic Representatives from Illinois.

The Supreme Court of Missouri has fixed August 12 as the day for the execution of H. M. Brooks (or "Maxwell"), the Englishman who murdered his companion in a St. Louis hotel in 1885, and was captured in Australia. The condemned man's attorneys hope yet to bring the case before the Supreme Court of the United States.

Ascent was made at St. Louis in a balloon equipped by the New York *World*, June 17, with the hope of reaching the Atlantic coast. The aeronauts were compelled to land at Hoffman, Illinois, on the first night of their voyage, because the gas gave out. An effort will be made to ascend again.

A large number of Hungarian workmen at the coke ovens in Pennsylvania have gone to work again, and the long strike which caused a great scarcity of coke is broken. The negroes near Laurens, S. C., have formed a secret organization to demand a dollar a day for farm work, and, it is reported, threaten murder if necessary to obtain it. The whites have organized a cavalry company for protection, and trouble is feared.

A regular train from Altoona to Pittsburgh was run June 17 by the use of petroleum as fuel, and the experiment was pronounced so successful as to warrant the belief that petroleum for this use will in a great measure take the place of coal, by reason of economy, as well as freedom from smoke and cinder.

A passenger train was robbed on the night of June 17 on the Southern Pacific Railway near Schulenburg, Tex. Two robbers forced the engineer to stop the train where their accomplices awaited it, and money and valuables to the amount of $10,000, it is reported, were taken from the express messenger and the passengers.

The Mormons have issued a call for a Constitutional Convention to meet in Salt Lake City June 30, to call a convention to apply for the admission of Utah into the Union.

Bryant B. Crandall, formerly a resident of Buffalo, N. Y., who disappeared at Niagara Falls more than a year ago, leaving a letter in which he declared he was about to commit suicide, was arrested in Salem, Oregon, June 16, for defrauding insurance companies. A body was found soon after his disappearance which was identified as his, and a large amount of insurance on his life had been paid.

On the night of June 16, the steamer *Champlain* caught fire off Charlevoix, northern Michigan, and was burned before it could reach land. There were fifty-seven persons, passengers and crew, on board, and of these but twenty-seven are known to be saved. The fire spread so rapidly that they were panic-stricken and perished in the water. On June 13, ninety miles east of Sand Island Light, Fla., the steamship *Vidette* from New York, with a cargo of merchandise for Mobile, sprang a leak, and was abandoned by the crew. The vessel sank, but all the men were landed safely.

The Rev. Dr. Mark Hopkins, who was from

1836 to 1872 President of Williams College, died at Williamstown, Mass., June 17, in his eighty-sixth year. On the evening before, the Rev. Dr. Roswell D. Hitchcock, President of the Union Theological Seminary, died, aged seventy-seven. Benjamin F. Potts, Governor of Montana from 1870 to 1883, died in Helena June 17, in his fifty-third year. On the same day O. A. Lochrane, formerly Chief Justice of Georgia, and one of the most prominent lawyers in the South, died at his home in Atlanta.

Prof. Jonathan Pearson, who has been connected with Union College as tutor or professor for half a century, died June 20. Dr. Woolsey Johnson, Health Commissioner of this city, died June 21, aged forty-five.

FOREIGN.

The celebration of the Jubilee of Queen Victoria's reign was an event some features of which were without a parallel in history. She rode in an open carriage from Buckingham Palace to Westminster Abbey June 21, escorted by her sons, sons-in-law, and grandsons as a guard of honor. The special service in the Abbey was witnessed by 10,000 persons of distinction. All the reigning houses in Europe sent representatives with congratulations, and messages and presents were received from all parts of the world. To Mr. Phelps, the United States Minister, a private audience was granted when he delivered the President's letter of congratulation. The decorations in London and the festivities in all the larger English cities were beyond precedent. The day was celebrated in the most remote British colonies and in the chief cities of the United States. In this city a Jubilee service was held in Trinity Church on Sunday, and on Tuesday there was a large meeting in the Metropolitan Opera-house, where appropriate speeches were made.

In the House of Commons, June 16, Mr. Dillon moved to adjourn the committee in order to call the attention of the House to the Bodyke evictions. The Government, he said, had refused to appoint a committee to inquire into the matter. He was, therefore, bound to demand an open discussion in Parliament. The eviction of thirty-five families had disclosed features of the greatest harshness. In the debate which followed, Mr. Balfour, Mr. Morley, Mr. Matthews, Sir William Vernon Harcourt, and Lord Randolph Churchill participated, and Mr. Dillon's motion was rejected. Several of the tenants who were arrested for resisting evictions have been sentenced to hard labor in prison for terms ranging from one to three months. On the way to prison, June 18, a crowd of their sympathizers made such a demonstration that the police hurt several persons with their clubs. On June 20 a justice of the peace, while driving near Killarney, was fired at by some person in ambush and his horse was wounded. Mr. O'Brien, on his arrival at Dublin from his trip to Canada and the United States, was received with a great demonstration.

At ten o'clock on the evening of June 17, while the sixth clause of the Irish Crimes Bill was under discussion in the House of Commons, in committee, according to previous notice the question was put on this clause, and the remaining fourteen clauses, without discussion, were put and carried, and the bill passed the committee stage. The Gladstonians and Parnellites withdrew. The scene was similar to that on the second reading of the bill, when Mr. Gladstone and his followers left the House, but was not so exciting. There were cheers, disorderly, indignant cries, and a few amusing personal incidents. The Government's rude advancement of the bill was a use of sheer force by a majority, which may be an embarrassing precedent.

At the regular fortnightly meeting of the Irish National League at Dublin, June 20, Mayor T. D. Sullivan said that he believed that they were on the eve of witnessing the suppression of the League under the operation of the Coercion Act; but that the Parliamentary party could not be suppressed. John Dillon said that there were some Irishmen who did not think the "Plan of Campaign" advanced enough, but he would not advise any further advance merely to suit the malicious convenience of the Coercion Government. Timothy Harrington referred to the general idea prevailing that the League should issue its manifesto directing the people how to meet the enforcement of the coercion measures. They were, he said, prepared to meet the Coercion Act, inch by inch, but he did not consider it wise, at this early stage, to tell their opponents just how they were going to fight the act.

In the House of Commons, June 20, Sir Henry Holland, Secretary of State for the Colonies, announced that the Governor of Sierra Leone had informed the Government that the French flag had been hoisted at Badibu, on the Gambia River. While not under the British protectorate, Badibu is within the sphere of British influence, and the British and French Governments are exchanging despatches on the subject.

Turkey has proposed to modify the new Convention with England about Egypt, so as to provide for Turkish occupation of Egypt in the event of disorders occurring after the British occupation has terminated. The Marquis of Salisbury has refused to consent to such a modification.

At the Cambridge (England) University examinations Miss Ramsey of Girton, daughter of Sir James Ramsey of Banff, is the only person who has reached the dignity of senior classic. The only person placed in the first class in the mediæval modern languages examination is Miss Hervey of Newnham. Two other ladies, Miss Pocock and Miss Powell, have reached the first class in the second part of the examinations.

The German Reichstag adjourned June 18. The imperial message closing the session expressed the Emperor's grateful appreciation of the labors and decisions of the body, and concluded as follows: "You have by your diligent and faithful labors justified the confidence with which the country sent you here in order to promote and assure its welfare and peace." The revenue from the new spirits and sugar duties will more than cover the increased army expenditures, the spirit tax alone increasing the Treasury receipts 150,000,000 marks.

Herr Kraker, a Socialist member of the Reichstag, was arrested the moment he left the legislative building after the closing of the session.

Sentence was passed, June 18, on the citizens of Alsace-Lorraine who were found guilty of treason at Leipzig, and the President of the Court declared that the object of the French Patriotic League was plainly the reconquest of Alsace-Lorraine by an armed force, involving a war of revenge; and that persons who became members shared the designs of the League, and, if German subjects, they were guilty of high treason.

This has provoked indignant expressions from the Parisian newspapers, and the League itself protests strongly against the sentences, and has issued a circular, twitting the Germans with being as actively engaged in the work of espionage as they accuse the French of being. Friends of the convicted men have signed an appeal to President Grévy to intervene for the release of one of them sentenced to a year's imprisonment in a fortress.

Uneasiness is yet felt on account of the malady of the Crown Prince of Germany. He does not speak except in a whisper.

While a party of 400 pilgrims were crossing the Danube River near Paks, June 17, the boat was caught in a hurricane and capsized. Only a few of them were saved, and more than 200 bodies have been recovered.

The floods in Hungary are subsiding, but there is great distress among the inhabitants of the inundated regions. Fifteen hundred farmers are reported to be bankrupt, and the entire damage is estimated at $5,000,000.

A mob set fire, June 19, to the Jewish quarter of the town of Duna-Szerdahely in Hungary, and 125 families were made homeless.

The French Chamber of Deputies, June 18, passed clause first of the Army Bill, which declares it to be the duty of every Frenchman to perform military service.

United States Minister McLane has demanded of M. Flourens, French Minister of Foreign Affairs, the release of Baron Raymond Sellière, brother of Princess Sagan, who was recently placed in a lunatic asylum by his relatives. The Baron declared his intentions while in the United States some time ago of becoming a citizen of this country, and this declaration, Minister McLane holds, is sufficient reason why he should have the protection of this country abroad.

The Countess Martinez Campos, a young Cuban heiress who had been divorced, was seized by two men while she was walking with a companion on a street in Paris on June 16, and the French capital enjoyed a sensational kidnapping story for two days. Then it was discovered that the lady herself had arranged to be thus captured, and the kidnapping was an elopement.

The Spanish Senate on June 20 voted $50,000 towards the erection of a statue to the late King Alfonso in front of the palace, the public to contribute the balance.

By an order of the Government Council at Ottawa, to give "to natural features in the Northwest, as is fit and proper, the names of persons more intimately connected with the inception and execution of the Canadian national highway," the names of five of the Rocky Mountains are changed: Boundary Peak to Pope's Peak, after the Minister of Railways; Mount Hermit to Mount Tupper, after the Minister of Finance; Mount Carroll to Mount Macdonald, after the Premier; Mount Cunningham to Mount McKenzie, after the ex-Premier, and an unnamed mountain is to be called Mount Macpherson.

Passengers by the Canadian Pacific route from Yokohama arrived at New York June 20, having made the trip in twenty days.

The Dominion Government has decided to grant a subsidy of $50,000 annually for a line of steamers between France and Canada. The route is to be to the St. Lawrence River in summer and to Halifax in winter, and during the first two years there will be one trip every twenty days during the navigation of the St. Lawrence, and a trip every month during the winter season, and the rest of the time fortnightly.

The Board of Trade of Toronto, Ont., concluded its discussion of commercial union with the United States, June 16, by declaring that, while increased trade with the United States is desirable, Canadians cannot assent to discrimination against Great Britain without her consent. Several more Farmers' Institutes in Canada have passed a resolution favoring commercial union with the United States.

It is reported that by the aid of subsidies from the Canadian, Hawaiian, and Australian Governments, a Pacific submarine cable will be laid from Vancouver, by way of the Sandwich and Fiji Islands, to Australia. It is estimated that it will cost $10,000,000.

News was brought by a steamer which arrived at San Francisco from Honolulu June 16, that there was imminent danger of a revolution in the Hawaiian kingdom. King Kalakaua, it is reported, never goes out now without a body-guard. A large supply of powder and ammunition has been stored in the palace, and port-holes made in walls about it behind which cannon stand. It is expected that the kingdom will be overthrown, and trade in consequence has greatly fallen off.

On June 20th 9,000 rifles, 65,000 cartridges, 25,000 primers, 6,000 bullets, 2 cases of shot, and 4 cases of revolvers were shipped from San Francisco to Honolulu, consigned to a firm of brokers.

THE BATTLE-FLAG FLURRY.

It is undoubtedly before all things desirable that such memories of the war as divide the North from the South should die out as speedily as possible, seeing that the object of the war was peace and unity. But then, in trying to extinguish them, one has to take care that the process is as agreeable to one side as to the other, and that it is seasonable. Reconciliation, to be effective, has to be mutual. For this reason Charles Sumner made a mistake in moving in the Senate, in 1862 and 1872, to have the names of the victories won against the Confederates removed from the regimental colors of the United States troops, on the ground that they were victories over fellow-citizens, inasmuch as the victors were not ready for any such display of magnanimity, and were therefore irritated by the proposal. In other words, the effect he produced was the exact opposite of what he intended, and his action was censured by the Legislature of his own State. The President has just made a similar mistake in ordering or permitting the return of the Confederate battle-flags to the States from whose forces they were captured. Nothing is truer than that no great people has ever long continued to prize trophies won in civil strife. The day will surely come when Americans will cease to treasure memorials of the humiliation and defeat of a large body of their own countrymen, which is what captured rebel colors really are. But we fear the day has not come yet, and that in consenting to surrender them, without any special demand or occasion for it, the President has done more to supply the "bloody shirt" screamers with material for execrations than the Southerners with reasons for loving the restored Union. Captured colors, we admit, differ from soldiers' monuments and the like, in being the civilized equivalent of scalps; but they are nevertheless things which every man who has served in the field and feels military traditions, prizes highly, and we think the part of wisdom would have been—as it has been the sober second thought of the President—to let the Confederate colors stay where they are a little longer, or until the reign of peace in the hearts of the "soldier element" in politics is somewhat more complete.

The awful cursing in which Gen. Fairchild indulged on hearing the news at the meeting of a Grand Army post last week in this city, gives a foretaste of the use which will be made of the order, in spite of its having been revoked. He shouted for God Almighty to help him in this matter by killing the President with two strokes of paralysis, one in the hand and the second in the brain, as if God Almighty had not done enough in this line by permitting the slaughter of 300,000 young men in the four years between 1861 and 1865. We suggest now that if there has to be any further loss of life in this quarrel, Gen. Fairchild should do his own killing. If he or any other veteran thinks the President ought to die for restoring the captured flags, he must not blasphemously call on God to slay him, but step up like a man and assassinate him himself. If anything can justify the President's course, however, it would be talk like this. People will naturally say that things which call forth such ravings must be excusable, that it cannot be far wrong to do for peace and good-will what fanatics resent in this fashion.

Happily, it can be seen already that there will be no unfortunate sequel to the affair. So far from leading to the apprehended sectional bitterness, the incident seems likely to end in showing more conclusively than anything which has happened before, how thoroughly the Union has been restored, and how far both North and South have grown away from the old era of strife. The spirit manifested by the representative men and journals of the South is converting the President's mistake into a means of illustrating the loyalty and patriotism of that section in the most conspicuous possible way. What the bloody-shirt people wanted was, in the first place, evidence that the South had been insisting upon the return of the flags; and, in the second place, the raising of the "rebel yell" when it found that it could not get them. Instead of this it has been made clear that the South did not ask for the flags, and does not want them, unless they are returned, as a number of flags have already been by Northern military organizations, with the hearty assent of those who captured them. "This request did not originate with the Southern people," said Gov. Lee of Virginia as soon as he heard of the Northern protest; "they recognized that these are the property of the victors, and were content to let them remain in their charge." And he disposed of the attempt to make a row over the affair thus: "The country should not again be agitated by pieces of bunting that mean nothing now. The South is part and parcel of the Union to-day, and means to do her part towards increasing its prosperity and maintaining the peace of the republic, whether the flags rot in Washington or are restored to their former custodians." In like manner Gen. Gordon of Georgia, while confessing the satisfaction with which he had received the suggestion, said that, in view of the Northern protest, he personally would prefer to leave the flags where they are, and that he believed that "this will be found to be the sense and sentiment of the Southern people. We are weary of strife and hate. We want peace and good-will, and prefer these to a return of even so cherished relics, if their return is to be made at such cost."

The leading Southern newspapers treat the subject in the same manner. The Atlanta (Ga.) *Constitution* says that if the flags had been sent in a generous spirit, the South would have received them in the same spirit, and "would have accepted them as a solemn pledge that the last spark of resentment between the two best armies the sun ever shone on had died out for ever." But it says that the South does not want them if the North resents their return, or if they come from churlish or unwilling hands. And it concludes an article in which there is nothing for any patriotic Northern man to criticise, with these words: "Let the North keep them if she wants them. The peace and good-will their return would hasten will come to this people in God's time and in God's way at last. The voice of the American people will be heard above the noisy protests of the hot-headed or cold-hearted when the day comes for the people to speak. The great American heart can neither be misled nor deterred. It has determined that there shall be peace. The last sectional President of this republic has been elected, and for the last time has a great party entered a campaign under a sectional flag. The war is over—its results are fixed—its passions are dead; and its heroism and sacrifices have bound this people together as they were never bound before."

Even such a Republican Bourbon as Senator Hoar appears to perceive that the day of the bloody shirt is past. In an address of welcome to the R. E. Lee Camp of Confederate veterans from Richmond, Va., at Faneuil Hall on Friday evening, the Massachusetts Senator thus disposed of the rubbish about the Southerners being "the same old rebels:" "Your presence to-night is a token that the memories of four years cannot efface the memories of 300. Terrible as was the cost of those years to both sides, I think either would be slow to wish them blotted from our history. We have learned respect for each other. You have learned something of the Puritan. . . . We too have learned to know as we never knew before the quality of the noble Southern stock: what courage in war; what attachment to home and State; what capacity for great affection and generous emotion; what aptness for command; above all, what constancy—that virtue beyond all virtues, without which no people can long be either great or free. After all, the fruit of this vine has a flower not to be found in other gardens. In the great and magnificent future which is before our country, you are to contribute a large share both of strength and of ornament. Mr. Secretary Lamar, in his oration at the unveiling of the statue of Calhoun at Charleston, for which I am happy to take this occasion to express my admiration, does not exaggerate when he declares that the late appeal to arms 'has led to the indissolubility of the American Union and the universality of American freedom.'"

THE INTER-STATE COMMERCE DECISION.

The whole batch of cases before the Inter-State Commerce Commission arising under the long-and-short-haul clause, except a few unimportant ones, have been cleared off the docket by the decision just rendered, that competition is one of the "circumstances and conditions" to be taken into account in determining whether a railroad may carry at lower rates for a long haul than for a short one. The decision is not only reasonable in itself, but it is the only practicable decision—that is, it is the only one which would enable the Commission to get through with its appointed work at all. It is plain that the multitude of cases arising under the fourth section of the law could not possibly be heard in advance. The ninety days within which a suspension of the operation of the clause had been granted to every road that could make out a good case *prima facie*, were about expiring. The time had come to decide each case on its merits after investigation. The only way to get on at

all was to do what has been done—namely, to declare what view the Commission had taken of the intent of the disputed clause, and then authorize the roads to follow this interpretation, taking the risk of making the right application of it in particular cases. The substance of the decision is found in the fifth paragraph of the opinion rendered, viz.:

"Fifth. That the existence of actual competition which is of controlling force in respect to traffic important in amount, may make out the dissimilar circumstances and conditions entitling the carrier to charge less for the longer than for the shorter haul over the same line in the same direction, the shorter being included in the longer in the following cases:

"(1.) When the competition is with carriers by water which are not subject to the provisions of the statute.

"(2.) When the competition is with foreign or other railroads which are not subject to the provisions of the statute.

"(3.) In rare and peculiar cases of competition between railroads which are subject to the statute, when a strict application of the general rule of the statute would be destructive of competition."

The principle which the Commission have taken for their guidance in construing the law is, that it could not have been the intent of Congress to destroy competition where it exists. But any ruling which should practically compel the railroads to abandon traffic wholly to the water lines or to foreign carriers, would abolish competition. So also, in a more limited sense, would a ruling which should have the effect to give all the business between two points to one line of road where now there are two or more lines competing for it. Every such case must be judged by itself when objection is made, but the principle upon which the particular decision will be made will be, that monopoly in carrying shall not be favored, but that competition, where it actually exists, shall be preserved. This is good economic doctrine and good American doctrine. We believe that it will stand in the courts of law, and in the forum of public opinion as well.

In an article contributed by Prof. A. T. Hadley to the *Independent*, that careful observer says:

"The Inter State Commerce Law was intended as a protest against the practice of the railroads in making their rates a matter of special bargain between the freight agent and the individual shipper. It was not the tariffs which furnished the ground of complaint, it was the deviation from those tariffs. The schedule rates might favor some localities to the detriment of others; but these differences were slight when compared to the secret rebates which were not in the schedule, and which favored certain individuals to the ruin of their rivals. The act clearly forbids this, and in so doing it is welcomed not merely by the public, but by the better class of railroad men. They were glad of the chance to put a stop to the system of special bargains, which was bad for public morals, and generally bad for the permanent interests of the railroads themselves."

He might have added that some of the largest fortunes accumulated by railroad managers in this country have been derived from these "secret rebates" from which the stockholders of the companies derived no advantage. The opportunities offered for swindling the real owners of the property, while working the most grievous injustice to individuals and localities, have been innumerable. That they have been availed of to a shocking extent, is known to the honest as well as to the dishonest class of railway officers. It was high time that something were done to put an end to these abuses. The Commerce Act seemed likely to do much more. The secret rebates abolished competition to a certain extent; the act appeared to abolish it to a still greater extent. The ruling of the Commission on the long-and-short-haul clause renders it possible to correct the one abuse without introducing another.

The argument by which the decision of the Commission is sustained is exceedingly strong, and cannot fail to make its due impression upon Congress. It was shown in the debates in the Senate that wide differences of opinion existed as to the interpretation of the fourth section. Some members voted for it because they believed it meant one thing, while others voted for it because they believed it meant the opposite, and still others voted for it because they did not know what it meant, but hoped that it would be interpreted in the most beneficial way, whatever that might be. We think that the Commission have found the most useful as well as the most reasonable construction, and that Congress will not controvert it without a sufficient trial of its practical working.

SOME BEARINGS OF THE ANDOVER DECISION.

It is well understood, we suppose, that ecclesiastical politics had a great deal to do with the trial of the Andover professors. Their offence was magnified far beyond the importance that would have attached to it had they not been representatives of a party in their denomination. Indeed, it is more than likely that they would not have been proceeded against at all, certainly not by the men who actually were their prosecutors, or in the way in which the accusation was brought, if it had not been thought imperative to rebuke and suppress the growing number for whom the professors had come to stand. The selection of the Board of Visitors as the tribunal before which the charges were urged, instead of the natural body of resort in the first instance, the Trustees, looked unfortunately like the politicians' habit of having their cases heard before a court which they feel sure they "own." And now the outcome of the process betrays some features which, were they present in a matter purely secular, would be called something very like sharp practice.

It was a strange thing, to begin with, that such a long and vexatious delay in reaching a decision should have followed the trial. For trained theologians, as two at least of the Visitors are, it certainly could not have required months to determine the simple question whether the theological position of the professors, so frankly declared, was the same as the theological requirements of the creed under which they held office. A stranger thing still is that the decision, once reached, June 4, should have been kept from the parties interested and from the public for two weeks. That it was held back until the close of the seminary year, until after the meetings of alumni and Trustees, will not fail to have its significance in the eyes of those who do not think the managers of the conservatives to be lacking in craft. Then there is the surprising acquittal of the four professors, owing to the fact that one of the majority opposed to Prof. Smyth was absent on the day when they presented their statements, although he knew perfectly what their statements were, and how entirely they identified their case with that of their colleague, and although it was distinctly understood that the trial could go on in his absence exactly for the reason that the case of Prof. Smyth was the case of all. Did Dr. Eustis think that it was necessary to make an example, and so vote to depose Prof. Smyth, while his regard for the interests of the Seminary led him to rely upon a doubtful technicality for the purpose of preventing the calamity of five empty chairs at once? There may be some who will so conclude; but others, and with better reason, we think, will see in all this a very clever move. The Trustees, be it remembered, are twelve to one for the new theology. They stand by the professors openly. Now, the Visitors have only the power of confirmation in the election of new professors. The Trustees are the appointing body. What advantage would it be to the Visitors to throw the nomination of five new professors into the hands of new-theology Trustees? How much better to leave four of them in their chairs, if they are content to stay there under a virtual condemnation—leave them there, if they stay, either intimidated into silence hereafter or robbed of their influence if they speak.

But the game played in this way is still deeper. It has been well understood that the professors had friends to back them possessed both of conviction and wealth. It has been more than hinted that if the result of the trial should be to eject the accused men from their chairs in Andover, funds would immediately be at their disposal to found a new seminary without the Andover fetters. All the leading churches in Boston, with one exception, are for the new theology, and would support its teachers if they were to be driven out of Andover. The manner of the decision now announced looks very much as if designed to checkmate such a scheme. Prof. Smyth will have to found his new seminary by himself. Or, if his colleagues resign to go with him, their views will be stamped from the start as not only heretical but wilful. In other words, the Visitors (always meaning their majority) do not propose to launch the new seminary fully equipped.

Meanwhile, the prospect for Andover is not a pleasing one except for those who enjoy theological squabbles. The professors announce their determination to stand together and to stay in the Seminary, pending the decision of the Supreme Court of the State. The outlook is good for a series of injunctions, ordered, dissolved, and renewed. Students will shun the scene of controversy, and thus the finest theological library in this country, the improved buildings, and one of the most studious atmospheres in the land, will be almost unused. To the lay mind this seems a clear waste of money, to look at no other aspect of the case, and a plain proof of the folly of a cast-iron endowment like that of Andover. But as long as there is such a pretty theological fight involved, we suppose it will have to be said of the veteran

warriors who snuff the fray from afar, so many of whom are concerned in one way and another in this case, as Pascal said of the theological fighters of his day, "Voilà les ecclésiastiques bien à leur aise."

CO-OPERATION IN ENGLAND.

A GREAT congress of the coöperative societies in England—the country in which they have been most successful—has recently been held. Mr. Thomas Hughes ("Tom Brown"), one of the oldest supporters of the movement, indeed, one might almost say its father, was in the chair and delivered a long address on its history and prospects. What he said was extremely important, because coöperation furnishes the one solution of the labor problem yet propounded which is worth the consideration of a rational man. It is the only one which any rational man has been able to describe in detail; the only one which has been tried and has had anything that could be called success, and the only one which promises to strengthen instead of breaking down human character.

The story he had to tell was, in brief, that coöperation in distribution—that is, in the purchase and sale of articles of daily consumption—had been an enormous success, but that coöperation in production had, where it had succeeded, ceased in a great measure to be coöperation in the early and best sense of the word. The distribution stores of the coöperative societies are numerous, and do an enormous and prosperous business, giving the members the full value of every cent they spend. They buy wholesale, and at the lowest rates, and they sell at the same, plus the salaries of clerks and rents of stores. There are no profits and no commissions, and all the coöperators stand on the same footing, and there are millions of them.

From these distributive societies coöperative production, which has always been a delicate plant, has been lately receiving a great stimulus; that is, a considerable number of the distributive societies have begun to ask themselves why they should not manufacture at least a portion of the goods they consume, in order to supply the market on which their hold is so strong and steady. The great difficulty the private manufacturer has to contend with is the difficulty of finding customers. He has to search for them with untiring energy all over the world, and exhaust his ingenuity in trying to keep them. Coöperative manufacturers, however, would have no such difficulty. They have the customers already, and hold them by bonds which no competition can weaken or break. Accordingly, two of the largest distributing societies, known as the "Wholesale Society" of Manchester and of Glasgow, have begun to manufacture boots and shoes on a great scale. The English Wholesale has already two factories, in which they employ 1,000 work-people, and their sales from both reached in 1885 over $1,000,000. The profits are, of course, very great, and they sell to the general public, putting both a manufacturer's and retailer's profit into the price. The result is, of course, greatly to swell the dividends of the Wholesale Societies, and to encourage them to extend their manufacturing operations.

But just here human nature comes in, and threatens the whole coöperative movement with disaster. This development of manufactures is not carried on along the coöperative lines. The work-people in these great shoe factories are not coöperators. They do not share in the profits of the business. They receive simply the market rate of wages. They are on just as bad terms with their coöperative employers as they would be with individual capitalists. Some of them have lately been out on strike, and are working away at the "labor problem" in the same blind way as poor Powderly and his men. If, as Mr. Hughes rightly asks, things go on in this way, if the successful coöperative societies are simply to become corporations controlling large bodies of hired laborers, how is the world going to be any the better for coöperation?

But this is not all, nor the worst. This Wholesale Society which is carrying on this great shoe manufacture is a confederation of small societies. These manufactures are carried on with the surplus funds of these societies left in the hands of the Central Committee, and managed by it. The profits are divided among these societies. No others are let into the confederation now. But outside the confederation there is a large number of small, strug gling societies trying to carry on the same kind of manufactures as the Wholesale Society, but now absolutely unable to stand up against the competition of the Wholesale. In other words, the old process of competition, for which coöperation was expected to be a cure, is showing itself among the co-operators, and they are apparently about to treat us to a renewal of the old spectacle, so familiar in the retail trade, of the strong devouring the weak.

Mr. Hughes, therefore, warns the societies against the introduction of hired labor—that is, labor which has no interest in profits—as likely to prove the destruction of the movement; but whether he can persuade the Wholesale Societies to give up the pleasant business of raking in large gains from hired labor, through devotion to the principle, remains to be seen. The root of the difficulty is something, however, which nobody but workingmen themselves can cure, and it is a difficulty of which we have ample experience in the government of the United States. It consists simply in the reluctance men who work with their hands have in admitting that brain labor is more valuable than manual labor, and ought to be paid more highly. All the successful money-making corporations of the world found out long ago that no price is too high for the organizing and superintending faculty, but the mass of every democratic community is very loth to admit it. The result is, that in every such community the State is apt to be poorly served, while the capitalists are admirably served. The co-operative societies are illustrations of the same thing. Those which happen to get hold of a high order of superintending talent—that is, to secure for the management of their operations men who are skilful in finding out markets and supplying them, and in directing huge bodies of workers, and holding the threads of intricate financial operations—and pay whatever is necessary to keep them, carry everything before them. The societies, on the other hand, which cannot bear to pay high salaries to anybody who has not to work on the bench or at the loom, and can keep his shirt and his hands clean all day, go inevitably to the wall when they attempt to enter the field of competition. That mind must rule is, in fact, as plain in coöperation as in any other field of human endeavor. Even if the whole world were caged in a phalanstery, there would have to be an organizing genius at the head of it, to prevent a free fight every morning for the victuals of the day, and he would be certain to secure the tid-bits at every meal for himself.

THE VICTORIAN JUBILEE.

THE excitement in London over the Queen's jubilee is, of course, due in great part to the powerful hold she has maintained on the English imagination ever since she ascended the throne as a young and inexperienced girl. The accession of such a person to one of the greatest of human dignities was, in itself, enough to rouse the deepest interest and enthusiasm among the people over whom she was to reign. These feelings were intensified, as time went on, by the spectacle of orderly and virtuous family life which she presented to the nation. George III. had fascinated the English people in the same way, in spite of his political follies and misfortunes. He was a model husband and father, who was happy in dining off a boiled leg of mutton with his wife and children. The British people were never tired of admiring him. George IV. outraged by his walk and conversation all the sentiments towards the throne which his father had fostered. William IV., who was a bluff and foul-mouthed sailor, did nothing in his short reign to mend matters.

Queen Victoria, therefore, when she married happily, seemed to bring back the halcyon days of the monarchy. There has been hardly a poet, novelist, preacher, lecturer, or statesman of her time who has not drawn shouts of applause from audiences of every kind and degree by the mention of her domestic virtues, of the purity and simplicity as well as of the dignity and stateliness of her home. And these excellences, of course, won for her the devotion of a portion of the population which, under kings, took little interest either in the personnel or the policy of the Government, but whose support, when the sentiment of loyalty has to be cultivated, is far more valuable than that of the men—we mean the women. It is safe to say that every Englishman to-day under fifty literally drank in admiration for Queen Victoria with his mother's milk, and was taught in his nursery to look on her as one of the best of created beings. No sovereign in history has probably ever been so thoroughly popular in the simplest and best sense of that word. Even English Republicans hardly venture to think of a republic as desirable as long as such monarchs as she can be found.

The political importance of all these excel-

lences has been increased by the fact that Victoria, when she ascended the throne, had to face the rising tide of democracy, or, in other words, to meet the entrance into the political arena of the great industrious, frugal, money-making, God-fearing middle class, which, after the overthrow of the Commonwealth, seemed to disappear from the English Government. It had triumphed over the landed gentry in the passage of the Reform Bill five years before the accession of the Queen, and was full of a certain kind of austere wrath against aristocratic folly and corruption. If it had been met at this juncture by a Tory male sovereign of dissolute manners, there is no telling in what way the great change in the British Constitution which the Reform Bill initiated, would have ended. Certainly the transition from oligarchical to popular government would not have been, as it has been, both easy and peaceful. Nor, had the public mind been absorbed in acrimonious party politics, would the nation have entered on that astonishing run of material progress which has been the great glory and wonder of the Victorian era. When the Queen ascended the throne, there were few railroads in the United Kingdom and but a few small steamboats. The cotton and iron industries were in their infancy. The colonies were thinly peopled, poor and discontented. The working classes were hungry, riotous, and disaffected. Nearly all the large fortunes were found among the landed gentry. Foreign trade was kept down to the lowest possible point by the protective tariff and the Navigation Acts. The Indian Empire was the property of a trading corporation, and was managed as such. The Jubilee literature of the day is full of the wondrous material changes for the better which Victoria has witnessed, and certainly her witnessing them is not an accident. She can honestly say that not only has she seen them, but she has been herself a large part of them. Had there been less grace, wisdom, and understanding in her life, assuredly the stream of English progress during the past fifty years would have been neither so deep nor wide nor free. She has been closely identified, in spite of the shadowy nature of her power, with nearly everything of which Englishmen are to-day most proud in the condition of the country.

We presume, however, there will not be one thinking man among the millions in all parts of the globe who will to-morrow share in the congratulations over the happy close of half a century of her rule, who will not find the cup of rejoicing more or less embittered by the reflection that Ireland, the possession of which all Englishmen pronounce essential to the unity of the Empire, is, after eighty years of English government, more completely alienated from it than ever before, and that not a single representative of the Irish people will take part in the Jubilee festival; that the condition of the Irish population is still wretched, and the population diminishing, and that this immense failure or misfortune has to be excused or explained by the old mediæval and thoroughly un-English doctrine of the total and peculiar depravity of the Irish people. The Irish question, in fact, recalls, and as long as it exists will continue to recall, the one great mistake of Victoria's reign—her persistent failure or refusal, and the failure or refusal of every member of her family, to bestow on the Irish any of those marks of favor, sympathy, or good-will, partly royal, partly feminine, by which she has so won the hearts of Englishmen and Scotchmen. The family has, from the beginning of her reign, treated as a distant and disagreeable province a portion of the Empire lying within twelve hours of London, which has supplied during all that period fully a third of the army and navy, some of the best generals and ablest administrators. In no part of the Empire, probably, would the trifles light as air which give monarchy its charm, or make it tolerable, have produced so much effect as in Ireland. The refusal to use them is largely responsible for the terrible fact, of which Englishmen by the end of the century will feel thoroughly ashamed, that the House of Commons broke up to go to the Jubilee ceremonial with shouts of rejoicing over the passage of an Irish coercion bill against which five sixths of the Irish representatives vainly protested.

THE BODYKE EVICTIONS.

DUBLIN, June 11.

UNTIL Parliament reassembled, the attention of the country was riveted on the evictions on Col. O'Callaghan's estate at Bodyke, in the County of Clare. Long threatened, they were interrupted by the illness of one sheriff and the scalding of another. Thirty-five tenants altogether were to be dealt with. Hitherto the Sheriff, assisted by some 300 police and military, has not been able to average more than three evictions a day, so that the proceedings are likely to continue some time longer. Such work would have been more summary ten or twenty years ago. It is one of the difficulties of the extreme landlord party, and even of a Conservative Government such as the present, in Ireland nowadays, that, talk as they may, they know they must carry out their policy with a minimum of violence. It is somewhat grotesque—the spectacle of an unarmed peasant dragged out of his cottage with his wife and family, and having all his little belongings carried forth by men under such military protection; but this arrangement is more merciful than attempting the same task with a smaller body of men, in the presence of whom the temper of the people would certainly get the better of their judgment, and bad work would ensue. In the same way much of what appears harsh and rough in the treatment of the crowds upon these occasions is, from the point of view of the executive upon whom a certain duty is thrown, excusable or necessary.

In a struggle such as the present in Ireland one does not gain much clearer vision or strengthen judgment much by seeing things for himself. Indeed, to some minds—those of a photographic turn—the experiment may be somewhat misleading. These questions ought to be considered broadly in the light of history and wide human experience. Too often they are urged upon the public mainly by arguments based upon minor facts and isolated cases, with conclusions which a scrupulous observer frequently finds belied by the evidence of his senses; and the position of such a one is very difficult if he take any public part in an agitation where the worst is said, and every unfair advantage taken, on both sides. It is strange that it should be so often forgotten by the masses that one may be their strenuous and unbending advocate without being able to see that everything they do is right, and that everything opponents do is wrong and from the worst of motives. Are we never to be allowed to correct the mistakes and exaggerations of those who stand upon our own platform? The anti-slavery agitation, as carried on by the abolitionists, is the only agitation, perhaps, in which such liberty was accorded, and, perhaps, we cannot reasonably expect it here. None the less, the absence of complete frankness tends to alienate or paralyze the efforts of many whose aim is one with that of the party whose exaggerations and misrepresentations, positive and negative, they cannot approve.

Five hours by rail to Birdhill, and a couple of hours' car drive, took me to Bodyke. The route along the shores of Lough Derg was very beautiful—leading, at first, under avenues of fine trees (beside Kincora, where Brian Boru once held his court), and then between hedges of hawthorn and furze, and presenting views over the lake with its islands and picturesque headlands. The attitude of agreement with or suspicion of those whom the unknown traveller meets in Ireland is exceedingly painful, and must do much to make the thoughtless suppose there is no basis of strong nationalist feeling among the masses of the people. When travelling on the Continent, I have felt partly reconciled to the imperfection of my knowledge of languages by the conviction that what we learn by conversation with the populace on any broad question is really of little value. Much more is this the case in Ireland, where cunning, concealment, and deception were so long almost the only weapons left the people. The traveller here must ascend pretty high in the social scale before he can get at real opinion; and even then he must generally be out of earshot of a third party who might differ from the man addressed. "Is there any Irish spoken about here?" I asked of the lad that drove me to Killaloe. "Well, now, there is not." "Is there none at all?" "Well, now, there is some." Of course he thought I had some questionable object in making these inquiries. After we had driven some miles, my next driver, an elderly man, anxious, no doubt, to know how he should shape answers to my questions, asked: "Well, now, sir, can you tell me who this Davitt is?"

Much of the land about Bodyke looks capable of high cultivation, and of supporting a considerable population in comfort. It is picturesque, interspersed with little woods and lakes, and rolls up from the bogs which margin the Graney River to the desolate summits of Slieve Bernagh. Out of these bogs and up those mountain sides the inhabitants have, by their own unaided exertions, carved estates for their landlord. I found it impossible within the time at my disposal to gain the exact information I desired. If the leaders of the people in such cases spent a few days making up reliable returns of the successive rises of rents to which the people have been subjected, of the length of time they have occupied their holdings, of how the accounts have stood between them and their landlord upon the whole for the past thirty years, they would do far more to attract outside public opinion than by any amount of oratory. In the case of forty-nine of these Bodyke tenants, so far as I could ascertain, the Government valuation of their holdings was £630; the rent in 1850 amounted to £595; when the present agitation broke out, these had been "racked-up," on the tenants' own improvements and the supposed rise in the value of land, to £1,224, which was reduced by the land court to £808. These were some of the earlier cases brought into court, when the reductions made were much less than those made at present, and the fall in the value of agricultural produce has been so great that in many cases it would have been as easy to pay the rack rents of ten years ago as the court rents of to-day. By more than

anything else that has been said or written on the tenants' side has my judgment been affected by the report of the interview between the representative of the *Pall Mall Gazette* with Col. O'Callaghan, the owner of the property, and by a conversation I had with a person in an official position on the Government side, who has thoroughly investigated the facts, and who told me that he believed the people had made an honest though ineffectual effort to meet their engagements. If this be true, as I consider it to be, the evictions are being carried out only in a spirit of spite against the tenants, or as an example, at the instance of the body of landlords. As a cattle run, or sheep walk, under the charge of highly paid "emergency-men," the estate could scarcely pay half the lowest rent that would be gladly paid by the associated tenants.

The particulars of the evictions have been so fully given in the papers from day to day that I need not describe them. It was harassing and dispiriting work, tramping round witnessing such scenes—the confusion of right and wrong, the absence of all that indicates a well ordered state—the sad results of generations of studied neglect, of the preference of one of the greatest empires the world has ever seen to continue this policy and drive out thousands of its population, rather than resolutely face and finally settle at any cost this Irish land question. It is impossible not to sympathize with the people in thus desperately clinging to their homes. Three centuries of British rule have not eradicated from their minds the conceptions of the Brehon laws under which they had lived from time immemorial—that they have a joint ownership in the land with the chief or landlord. We and our fathers should have been subjected to their experiences before we could safely judge them. Still less does one feel inclined to give advice which one would not be prepared to back up in one's own person, and the consequences of which one would not have to bear.

Mr. Davitt's speech on the 2d was deplorable. The enlightened public opinion of the United Kingdom would justify the Bodyke tenants in clinging to their homes and going very far beyond the passive resistance of Count Tolstoi; but a theoretical retraction of all Mr. Davitt had ever said against outrage, with threats of ultimate vengeance on England (which he himself would be the last to feel or to think of), shows how entirely he is unfitted to be the responsible leader in a great movement. At the same time, the entire guilelessness of the man was apparent; for all his private influence at Bodyke, so far as I could judge, was to prevent the people resorting to desperate extremities. One more cunning and less disinterested might, on the contrary, openly denounce and secretly abet outrage.

Nothing could be more dignified than the speech with which Mr. Harrington, at the next meeting of the League, endeavored to counteract Mr. Davitt's utterances; or more apposite than the extract he read from a late speech of Mr. Parnell's:

> "I would still urge the Irish to submit to any oppression, to any injustice, rather than to retaliate. . . . There may be some suffering to endure. There may be some tyranny—perhaps much tyranny—inflicted upon us: petty tyrants are always the most merciless. But it will be as nothing compared with what our people have gone through in the past. A little patience, a few years of waiting, and these clouds will be cleared away."

Mr. Parnell and his lieutenants are different men from what they were—from what perhaps it was necessary they should have been—a few years ago. They can speak, they can act, they can engage, as no other party could ever speak, act, or engage, for Ireland. Mr. Parnell's ill-health is the greatest danger in the present situation of affairs, a greater danger than Mr. Gladstone's advanced age. If Mr. Parnell were removed—if the *Times* and the *Spectator* could so act upon English opinion, so prolong the contest, as to disintegrate the party—we should be face to face with another miserable cycle of repression, hopelessness, and spasmodic outrage, during which the principles advocated by Dr. McGlynn would have ample time to work.

What I saw during my short tour in the west confirms me in the opinion expressed in my last communication, written after a longer journey in the south—that at no period were the Irish people, upon the whole, better off than they are at present. But this, as I before said, is no criterion of the real condition or possibilities of the country at large. I cannot better illustrate Ireland's position among other nations in this year of supposed jubilee than by stating some facts mainly brought to my notice by the acumen of a friend. Our population, which in 1881 was 5,175,000, is now considerably under 5,000,000. It decreased 8,000 with the first three months of this year. Ireland has now fewer inhabitants than it had at the time of the Union in 1800. The birth-rate is the lowest in Europe. In twenty-one towns, including Dublin, and in eight counties, the deaths within the quarter exceeded the births, and this during a period when the Registrar-General pronounces the health of the people to be on the whole good, and the death-rate below the average. Poland has increased in less than twenty years from 5,500,000 to over 7,000,000. Even Switzerland, half mountain and forest, and with no city as large as Cork, has now a larger population per square mile than Ireland. The country is perfectly well able to support in comfort a larger population than it now contains, and there is no other country in Europe which is not increasing in population more or less rapidly. D. B.

BOISSIER'S MME. DE SÉVIGNÉ.

PARIS, June 1, 1887.

THE edition of the 'Grands Écrivains de la France,' published by the house of Hachette under the direction of Ad. Regnier, may be said to be a great literary monument. It seems hardly possible to add anything to these editions, which reproduce the original text, which give all the *variantes* of the successive editions, which are accompanied by the most exhaustive notes and by a perpetual commentary. The firm may be justly proud of having attached its name to these definitive editions of our great classics; but these editions cannot be bought by everybody, they are only made for public libraries and the libraries of wealthy bibliophiles. Some of them have cost so much that it will take years before the Hachettes can repay themselves for their first expenses, before making any profit; it may be said, even, that some of them will never yield any profit.

Our great booksellers have now undertaken a new series of very cheap essays on the 'Grands Écrivains de la France.' This collection of biographical studies will have much interest, as the text will be written by very competent writers, who will have all the benefit of the long and deep researches made for the great edition of the 'Grands Écrivains.' A few names will give an idea of this new collection. Two volumes have already appeared: 'Victor Cousin,' by Jules Simon, and 'Madame de Sévigné,' by Gaston Boissier, of the French Academy. M. Caro will soon give us 'George Sand,' M. Brunetière, the critic of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, promises studies on 'Voltaire' and 'Boileau'; M. Taine will attempt to give us 'Sainte-Beuve.' I do not give the whole list of the works in preparation; these few names will suffice.

I confess to have opened with much curiosity the volume by M. Gaston Boissier on Mme. de Sévigné. M. Boissier may be said to be now one of our best Latinists: his studies on Italy, on Roman literature and Roman history, are very well known. But he has not often tried his hand on subjects which touch more directly our own literature. Was it possible to write something new on Mme. de Sévigné, after the Memoir by Walckenaer, after the long notice, which is a volume in itself, placed by M. Mesnard at the head of the edition of the 'Letters' in the 'Grands Ecrivains de la France'? M. Boissier says modestly that he has not had the ambition to write anything new. "After having read over the letters of Mme. de Sévigné, I will simply say what impression they have made on my mind, without asking myself if I repeat what others have said before me: this is the only method which I shall follow in this book." M. Bossier takes in turn the woman, the writer, the work—a somewhat artificial division. Speaking of the woman, he asks himself first, "Was she pretty?" The best picture of Mme. de Sévigné is a pastel by Nanteuil, which belongs to my friend, the Comte de L'Aubespin. As a pastel it is truly admirable, and I am not surprised that these pastels of Nanteuil, and those of the eighteenth century, have inspired some of our modern painters with a desire to revive a form of painting which had been almost forgotten during the first seventy years of the nineteenth century. Nanteuil's pastel has only one defect: it represents the amiable Marchioness when she was no longer young; she is a little too fat, her face is round. I find her pretty, nevertheless—charming; but then I am a posthumous adorer of Mme. de Sévigné. M. Boissier, who is not an enthusiast, says: "It is not quite a pretty woman; one cannot help being surprised, on looking at her, that she had so many admirers." It is quite clear that the intelligence and grace of the woman added much expression to her face; it is true that she had not the most regular features. Arnauld writes in his memoirs: "It seems to me that I still see her as she appeared to me the first time I saw her coming out of her open carriage, between her son and her daughter; all three reminded me of Latona between the young Apollo and the young Diana—such was the beauty and brilliancy of the mother and children." It was only when the first surprise had passed that people noticed "that the eyes were a little small and not quite of the same color, that the eyelids were *bigarrées* (spotted), that the nose was a little square at the end." These slight defects made Mme. de la Fayette say: "When people hear you they no longer see that something is wanting in the regularity of your features, and they admit in you the most finished beauty in the world." Bussy, her cousin, tells us of her admirable blonde hair, so thick, so supple and brilliant; and the curls she wore are still called the "coiffure à la Sévigné." Bussy also speaks of her complexion, which had a brilliancy and a freshness "which are only seen at the dawn of day on the finest roses of spring."

Mme. de Sévigné was educated by her good uncle, the Abbé de Coulanges. This "bien Bon," as she always called him, was a very original type. He did not often say his mass, and in his will he accuses himself of having "dishonored and profaned the sanctity of his condition by a life too much withdrawn from the objects to which it ought to have been absolutely consecrated." He was pious, he was a believer, he led a most regular life; but there was nothing of the priest in him. He was a born business man, an auditor of accounts. His greatest pleasure was bookkeeping. "When," said Mme. de Sévigné, "the rule of two and two make four is wounded, the good Abbé is beside himself." He kept Mme. de

Sévigné's affairs in order, he saw the lawyers, he made the leases, he was her factotum.

Mlle. de Chantal, having lost her mother, was educated with more freedom than was usual at the time, nor was the Abbé de Coulanges a very strict tutor. She learned much of life before she was married, though she was only eighteen when she married the handsome Marquis de Sévigné. She followed him to his Château des Rochers in Brittany, but Sévigné did not long remain there. His wife had brought him a large fortune (530,000 livres, equivalent to 2,000,000 francs in our time), and he began to spend it in the worst company; he kept mistresses, he played at cards, he was proud of being compared to the *grand prieur de Malte*, Hugues de Rabutin, whom he called "my uncle the pirate." Mme. de Sévigné would probably have been completely ruined if her husband had not had the folly to fight a duel for some new mistress and been killed.

She was a widow at the age of twenty-six, and it may be noticed that in her long correspondence there is not even an allusion to the wicked man who had had her first love. Her first love was also her only love. Charming, admired as she was, when she returned to the world she never again lost her heart, never renounced her precious liberty. She soon had a whole court; she received the homages of Conti, a Prince of the blood, of the famous Fouquet, the Superintendent of Finances, of the Duc de Rohan, one of the greatest names in France, of the Marquis de Tonquedec, of the Comte du Lude. Bussy, who respected nothing, tried for a moment to seduce his cousin. She liked him for the great brilliancy of his intellect and for the pleasure of receiving his letters, but she did not like him otherwise, and Bussy made a wicked portrait of her in his famous gallery of French ladies. "She has," he says, "a cold temperament, at least if we are to believe her defunct husband." I am sorry to say that M. Boissier admits this brutal explanation of Mme. de Sévigné's virtue, a virtue which even the lying and evil-tongued Tallemant des Réaux could not calumniate. And why does he admit it? Because Mme. de Sévigné was not prudish, because she lived in a society which was far from rigorous, because she liked admiration, and did not detest "le mot gaulois" and spicy stories. He adds that she was not very devout. "How is it," he asks, "that a pretty woman who played so willingly with danger did not succumb in the end?" She has herself given the reason of her continuous widowhood: she was preserved from any other love by the love of her children. "I perceive every day," she says in a letter, "that the big fishes eat the little ones." Her children were her big fishes.

Her heart, we know, was not cold; not only was she passionately found of her children, there never was a better or more faithful friend. She had a great stock of indulgence, and though her sense of humor was great, she never speaks of her friends with any degree of harshness. She likes to say the "bien Bon," the "bonne Troche," the "bon d'Hacqueville," the "bonne Marbœuf," the "bonne Tarente." She was good, and to her it might have been said:

"Vous donnez volontiers vos qualités aux autres."

She had much natural gayety, and knew how to amuse the terrible Retz, the gloomy La Rochefoucauld, the wise Mme. de la Fayette. Her friendship with Mme. de la Fayette lasted more than forty years. This lady was a widow at an early age, and had formed with La Rochefoucauld one of those *liaisons* which might be called the marriages of friendship. Among the friends of Mme. de Sévigné, we must of course name the Coulanges, a singular couple, very different from the preceding—light, free as air, always in motion. Mme. de Sévigné could please the most different people, and make herself adored by all.

There is not much to be said about Mme. de Grignan; she has been judged somewhat severely. Bussy said of her: "This lady has wit, but of the bitter sort; she is insupportably vain; she will make herself as many enemies as her mother has made friends and admirers." Mme. de Sévigné's letters do not make us love her daughter as much as she loved her; she would be sorry to know the impression which she involuntarily produced. M. Mesnard has well analyzed Mme. de Grignan's character in his introduction to the great edition of the 'Letters.' She was at the same time timid and proud; it is impossible not to see that she was a little selfish. She was a little fatigued by the exuberance of her mother's life, and such words as these, "La grande amitié n'est jamais tranquille," which Mme. de Sévigné writes to her, lead us to think that sometimes, when they were together, there were difficult moments. They both loved each other, but, as Pascal said, "il faut de l'adresse dans l'amour." Every week Mme. de Grignan wrote two long letters to her mother, full of details, and M. Boissier is probably right when he says that, had they been preserved, he is tempted to believe that we should have a better idea of Mme. de Grignan. "Those who destroyed them rendered her a bad service." He is inclined to think that she was less selfish, less indifferent, than is generally supposed; she had not the good spirits of her mother, and, on the contrary, was in the category of those who take things hard. She had a philosophical, almost an heretical, mind; she admired and understood the philosophy of Descartes. It is perhaps going a little far to compare her, as M. Boissier does, to our modern pessimists.

Among the most interesting pages which I have found in M. Boissier's work is a description of the Château de Grignan.

"It is easy," he says, "when one visits what remains of the castle of Grignan, to form an idea of the expensiveness of life in such sumptuous habitations. Grignan is built on a hill, which rises solitary in the midst of a vast plain. The rock has been cut and surrounded with walls, so as to form an artificial substruction, on which rises the château. Along the steep sides are narrow streets, lined with the houses of a miserable village which had attached itself there, to live quietly under a powerful protection. The approach to the castle was defended by a massive fortification, flanked with two crenelated towers. When you have once passed the gate and entered inside, the aspect changes; the fortress becomes a palace. Unfortunately, this palace is now almost entirely levelled; there remain only a few walls and ruined parts of halls, which nevertheless have a rare character of greatness and elegance. The walls are pierced with windows with delicate columns, in the style of the Renaissance. . . . All round, a terrace allows you to enjoy one of the finest views you can imagine—a rich plain, dotted with villages, with villas, with castles, shut in on every side by high mountains, the Lance, the chain of the Alpines, and the snowy Ventoux on the horizon."

We know that Grignan, lieutenant-general of Provence, had to keep the place of the governor, the Duc de Vendôme; that he was of a very generous disposition, and, in consequence, was always in debt. Mme. de Sévigné's daughter, who was his third wife, was even more extravagant. Mme. de Sévigné was sometimes obliged to scold them, as she could scold, tenderly and amiably.

The history of Mme. de Sévigné's relations with the Jansenists is also an interesting part of this new work. She had, it may be said, a religion of her own. She was fond of Pascal and Nicole. She thought often of death, and had inscribed on the dial, in her garden of the Rochers, "Unam time."

Correspondence.

THE SURPLUS REVENUE AND THE BONDS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have had for years a pet plan for applying the surplus revenue to the unmatured bonds, and it seems to me that the necessity of doing something, and the unpopularity of every other contrivance, will push the wise men in the Cabinet and Congress right into it.

My proposal is this: Exchange each 4 per cent. or 4½ per cent. bond that the holder is willing to part with, on these terms, for two securities—the first being a bond with the same number of years to run, but bearing a small enough interest to pass at or near par; the other being a coupon sheet or its registered equivalent, for the difference of the interest only. For instance, if I have a 4½ per cent. bond for $1,000, falling due in 1891, I might receive in exchange a 2½ per cent. bond falling due at the same date, and a sheet made up of quarterly coupons of $5, payable every three months. If a 4 per cent. bond, the separate sheet would be comprised of quarterly coupons for $3.75.

These sheets might be useful for many purposes, like the short annuities formerly in vogue in Great Britain. The reduced bonds, ruling at or near par, could always be bought up in open market. The odious measure of buying bonds at a large premium (as was done by the Taylor Administration), or of anticipating heavy interest payments, would thus be avoided.—Respectfully,

L. N. D.

Louisville, Ky., June 12, 1887.

[There is no reason why a 2½ per cent. bond should not advance to a high premium if it is known that the Government is a forced purchaser. All the rules which apply to a 4 per cent. bond in such a case would apply to a 2½ per cent. bond. The selling price of the former, in the present state of the money market and of the Government credit, is about 130. That of the latter would be about 108. It would be easy to send the former up to 140 by forced Treasury purchases, and it would be quite as easy to send the latter up to 118. The Government saves nothing by converting a part of the interest into a terminable annuity. Any refunding scheme, to command success, must show either a saving of interest or new facilities for redeeming the principal. Splitting the interest into two sets of coupon sheets does not save anything, nor would it make the bondholders more eager to sell.—Ed. Nation.]

A BAD DAY FOR "MACHINE" CANDIDATES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your Summary of the Week's News in this week's *Nation*, you say, in speaking of the recent election in Chicago, that "Grinnell and Clifford, candidates of a citizens' organization, were opposed by Kraus and English, who were candidates of the United Labor party," etc. Now the victory of the citizens' ticket was much more significant than would appear from your statement. Kraus and English were not only candidates of the United Labor party, but were the regular nominees of both the Republican and Democratic "Machines" as well. Surely, the Independent voter or Mugwump has no reason to feel lonesome any longer in Chicago when he studies the results of the last election.

E. O.

Chicago, June 11, 1887.

CORRECTIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In p. 447 a passage of mine yields, as printed, something widely different from what I mean. Read:

"Again, he delivers himself very uncritically as regards the idiom under consideration. '*Being* is prefixed to a Past Participle': this is his definition of it," etc.

Further, in p. 140, read "would be accepted [*sic*] usage"; and in p. 185, "the adjective *rily*."

Your obedient servant, F. Hall.

June 6, 1887.

Notes.

Mr. John Bartlett, whose 'Shakspere Phrase-Book' was a light recreation after the latest and perhaps final edition of his 'Familiar Quotations,' has now in hand, for speedy publication, 'A New and Complete Concordance or Verbal Index to the Dramatic Works of Shakspere.' This rival of Mrs. Cowden Clarke's will follow the Globe Edition of Messrs. Clark & Wright; and Mr. Bartlett has endeavored to give the passages "so full and entire that in most cases it will be found unnecessary to consult the plays themselves." Another improvement is, phrases as well as words are entered, so that we have *better*, for instance, in a great number of combinations with participles or nouns—a feature which, if imitated in our ordinary dictionaries to show common usage, would be a great boon to foreigners learning the language. "Better acquaintance" and "better days" are examples of what we mean.

A Victoria edition of Shakspere in three volumes, uniform with the single-volume Tennyson, and furnished with a new glossary by Mr. Aldis Wright, is shortly to be published by Macmillan & Co. They also announce, as on the eve of appearing, a Clarendon Press edition of Boswell's Johnson, edited by the author of 'Dr. Johnson: His Friends and His Critics,' with the greatest scrupulousness and with much helpful elucidation of obscure points in Johnson's history. Portraits, a concordance of Johnson's sayings, and an elaborate index are promised.

Prof. J. K. Hosmer, who, for his work on 'Young Sir Harry Vane,' has pursued his researches in the British Museum and the London Record Office as well as among the libraries of Boston and St. Louis, sees, we understand, the end of his labors approaching with the end of the present summer.

Benjamin & Bell, New York city, are about to publish with the English sheets the fourth edition of Mr. Alexander Ireland's 'Book-Lover's Enchiridion.' They have in press 'Society Verse by American Writers,' edited by Ernest De Lancey Pierson; 'Shakspere in Fact and in Criticism,' by Appleton Morgan; and 'Mr. Incoul's Misadventure,' a novel by Edgar Saltus.

'The Literary Remains of the late Professor Fleming Jenkin,' edited by Mr. Sidney Colvin, will be published shortly in London by the Longmans, and the biographical sketch by Mr. R. L. Stevenson (which we mentioned recently) will serve as an introduction.

Two books by Mr. Andrew Lang are also announced by the same house. One is 'Johnny Nut and the Golden Goose,' done into English from the French of Charles Deulin, with illustrations by Am. Lynen—apparently a pretty picture-book. The other is the important treatise on folk-lore on which Mr. Lang has been known to be working hard for several years, and in which he sets forth at length and completely his theory of the origin of myths—the anthropological explanation, as he terms it, intended to supersede the philological explanation offered by Max Müller and other upholders of omnipresent sunmyths. Mr. Lang's book will be in two volumes. It will be called 'Myth, Ritual, and Religion.'

In Mr. Freeman's series of "Historic Towns," in which his own 'Exeter,' Mr. Loftie's 'London,' and Mr. Hunt's 'Bristol' have already appeared, Mr. C. W. Boase's 'Oxford' and the Rev. Mr. Edward L. Cutts's 'Colchester' are now ready. Mr. George Saintsbury's 'Manchester: a Short History' is also nearly ready; but, although announced originally as one of this series, it will now appear independently, owing to a disagreement on certain political points between Mr. Freeman and Mr. Saintsbury.

The advertisements of the English publishers assert that Mr. Rider Haggard's 'She' has reached a sale of forty thousand copies in Great Britain. It would be interesting to know how many copies had been sold of the half-dozen rival reprints in the United States.

Zupitza's 'Elene,' edited, by his permission, by Prof. Henry Johnson of Bowdoin College, is the forthcoming addition to Ginn & Co.'s "Library of Anglo-Saxon Poetry."

Nine octavo volumes, forming "a series of systematic works covering the entire field of political science proper and of the allied sciences of public law and economics," are to be issued by the Faculty of Political Science of Columbia College. The titles are: 'History of Political Theories,' by Archibald Alexander; 'Comparative Constitutional Law and Politics,' by John W. Burgess; 'Comparative Constitutional Law of the American Commonwealths,' by Frederick W. Whitridge; 'Historical and Practical Political Economy,' by Richmond M. Smith; 'Historical and Comparative Science of Finance,' by Edwin R. A. Seligman; 'Comparative Administrative Law and Science,' by Frank J. Goodnow; 'International Law,' by Theodore W. Dwight; 'Historical and Comparative Jurisprudence,' by Munroe Smith; 'Literature of Political Science,' by George H. Baker. The first of these volumes will be published in December, 1887. The entire series will probably be completed within the four following years—that is, before the close of the year 1891.

The Ohio Archæological and Historical Society, of Columbus, is fostering the centennial celebration of the Ordinance of 1787 and the founding of the first settlement in Ohio at Marietta in 1788. It has also issued the prospectus of an *Ohio Archæological and Historical Quarterly*, to be edited by a committee consisting of Profs. G. W. Knight, B. A. Hinsdale, W. H. Venable, G. Frederick Wright, and Dr. I. W. Andrews. The first issue is set down for the present month. Members of the Society will receive this publication free.

Mr. Robert S. Rantoul makes, in the Historical Collections of the Essex Institute, Salem, Mass. (vol. xxiv, Nos. 1-3), a "contribution to the history of the ancient family of Woodbury," to which belonged Levi Woodbury, Jackson's Secretary of the Treasury, afterwards Judge of the Supreme Court. A photograph of Judge Woodbury, after Powers's bust, accompanies the paper. Mr. Geo. B. Blodgette's patient list of the early settlers of Rowley, Mass., prior to 1662 is concluded in the present number of the Collections.

Dr. Emin Pasha contributes to the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for June an account of a journey made last year to Lake Albert in his steamer, the *Khedive*. He first skirted the western shore, and at one point found that an island had been formed within the last five years, showing that "the lake is in this part gradually filling up." Fish are so numerous that "the light green waters of the lake, owing to the refraction of the sunlight on the glittering silvery scales of the fish, assumed an almost bluish-green hue." Crossing to the eastern shore, he landed at Kibiro, where are hot springs from which salt is extracted in large quantities. The region about is sterile in the extreme, even the grass for the native huts and the wood for their fires having to be bought with salt. The process of extraction from the rock and earth about the springs is elaborate, and shows considerable intelligence on the part of the natives, but they are ignorant of the use of salt in curing fish, though they carry dried fish as well as twenty-five-pound packets of salt to great distances to barter for food, clothing, and ammunition. At this village Emin Pasha received letters from Dr. Junker, Nubar Pasha, and the Sultan of Zanzibar, and was also able to send out letters. He makes no reference to his own condition nor to that of his province, but writes simply as an explorer and naturalist. In an appendix, extracts are given from a letter recently received from him, in which he says that, since this paper was written, he has made two more trips to the lake, and has discovered a large river flowing into its southern end.

There is also an account of Bechuanaland by the late Deputy-Commissioner, Mr. John Mackenzie, accompanied by a map. He gives a more encouraging opinion of the capacity of a large part of this territory for sheep raising than most writers. In describing the ruins of ancient stone forts in the gold-bearing regions in the eastern part, he makes the curious remark that the ornamentations of the stones are the same as those on the stone towers of refuge erected by the Persians on the Turcoman frontier. He suggests that they were made by Phœnician miners. A singular native word for the sea is of recent origin. The Bechuanas had no conception of the sea, but some of their people who had travelled came back to them saying, "that they had been as far as Metse-hula, that is, the water which goes out to graze; the water whose tides reminded them of the cattle in their native town going out to graze in the morning and returning in the afternoon." Readers of Lowell's verse will recall the same metaphor in his "Sea-Weed," that doubts not

> "the pale shepherdess will keep her tryst,
> And shoreward lead again her foam-fleeced flocks."

The twelfth volume of Reclus's 'Nouvelle Géographie Universelle' (Paris, Hachette), just published, is devoted to a description of the West African islands, Senegambia and the coast as far as the Cameroons, together with the countries adjacent, including the basins of the Niger and Lake Tchad. It is full of descriptions of scenery, the manners, customs, forms of government and religious beliefs of the natives, and gives also short historical accounts of the various settlements. It is strange that while there are many excellent small maps, there is no general map of the region treated. The book would also have been more valuable had the author given a list of the numerous authorities from whom he quotes.

We are in receipt of a pamphlet entitled "The True Source of the Mississippi," by Pearce Giles, who, it will be remembered, was a companion of Capt. Glazier in his expedition of "discovery." The pamphlet contains a rehearsal of the ridiculous claims of Capt. Glazier, a reprint of his absurd map, and about 150 endorsements, the latter occupying about three-fourths of the pamphlet. The claims of Capt. Glazier have been exploded in the most thorough manner by Messrs. Harrower, Baker, Hinman, and others, so that the pamphlet needs no attention in regard to the subject-matter. The endorsements, however, are of interest, as showing the number and the sort of people upon whom Capt. Glazier has succeeded in imposing. Most of them are from private citizens, minor officials, and local newspapers of Minnesota, which are of course easily

enough obtained; but in the list one sees a few names which should not be found in such company, such as those of several societies, of map and geography publishers, and of public-school officers. The New Orleans Academy of Science, the Missouri Historical Society of St. Louis, and the Royal Geographical Society of London fell victims, and are now doubtless heartily ashamed of their gullibility. An attempt was made to ensnare the American Geographical Society, but Judge Daly saved the Society that reproach. Twelve publishers of maps, school geographies, etc., in this country and England have apparently accepted Capt. Glazier and his lake, and have thereby demonstrated their ignorance or carelessness. It is safe to predict that the introduction of this error will not promote the sale of the publications of these firms or promote confidence in the works issued by them.

Macmillan & Co. send us a comely one-volume edition of Carlyle's 'Reminiscences,' as edited by Prof. C. E. Norton and already noticed by us.

'Ladhope Leaves; A Spring Garland for 1887' is the pretty name of a very pretty little vellum-clad volume without preface, editor's name, or publisher's imprint; only the name of the printers appears—T. & A. Constable. It is an anthology apparently written chiefly by Scotch men of letters, although it begins with a bit of Mr. Ruskin's prose, "Ashestiel" from *Fors Clavigera*. In the copy before us, Mr. Ruskin's assertion that from the bridge of Ettrick he "saw the two streams join, and the Tweed for miles down the vale and the Ettrick for miles up among his hills"—has a marginal note in the handwriting of a well-known Scotch poet, "Quite impossible."

To collectors of Jubilee literature we can indicate a little volume, with a quasi-religious title, 'Our Sovereign Lady: A Book for Her People,' by L. E. O'R., of which A. D. F. Randolph & Co. are the American publishers. It closes with a rhapsody on "The Coming Glory," and with "signs of the times" which were overworked in Millerite days.

Five heads of colleges and universities with three literary men of distinction told each, in the *Forum*, "How I was Educated." Nine persons of all faiths and of no faith made confession of their views on religion anonymously through the same medium. These more or less interesting and edifying disclosures have been grouped and reprinted in one volume by D. Appleton & Co.

The fact that 'Down-East Latch Strings' emanates from the Passenger Department of a New England railroad cannot make it improper to notice a bound volume of which the text is by that agreeable *causeur*, Mr. Ernest Ingersoll, and which is well supplied with illustrations and with maps of the routes to the most attractive summer resorts in Maine and New Hampshire. If hotel-keepers showed a tithe of the intelligence and enterprise displayed in this compilation, fewer Americans would go abroad for rest and recreation.

A pocket paragraph Greek Testament following Tischendorf's text, and giving in the lower margin the various readings of Westcott and Hort's Cambridge edition, has been skilfully edited by Oscar de Gebhart, and published by Tauchnitz (New York: Westermann). The type is large and clear. A "Recensus locorum Veteris Testamenti in Novo"—passages which are printed in a heavy-faced type—is appended.

The controversy in reference to lending books and manuscripts belonging to the Bodleian Library at Oxford has at length been decided by a vote of the Congregation, 106 to 60, declining to sanction the practice.

Galileo's library has been reconstructed by Prof. Antonio Favaro, with the aid of manuscripts, the astronomer's correspondence and works, and the inventory returned by his immediate descendants and those of Vincenzio Viviani, who acquired the greater part of Galileo's scientific collection. The number of works thus ascertained and classified is 521.

August Boltz reviews, in No. 23 of the *Magazin für die Literatur des In- und Auslandes*, Stratégis's translation in Greek of Goethe's "Faust," with which he is not altogether satisfied. He also prints an extract from a letter to him written by A. R. Rangabé, Greek Ambassador at Berlin, who complains of ill-health, and considers it a just punishment for his venturing upon a translation of the untranslatable "Faust," of which he says he has completed one-half: "If Goethe's 'Faust' had existed in the time of Hercules, its translation would certainly have been imposed on him by the gods as one of his hardest labors."

The new edition of Victor Hugo's 'Les Misérables,' of which the first part, 'Fantine,' is just published by William R. Jenkins, New York, will be very welcome to readers of French, especially as, for some unaccountable reason, the Paris publishers have withdrawn the 12mo edition from the market. The American reprint is on good paper, in good type, and very reasonable in price. It is to be hoped that the publisher may find this a successful venture, so that he may be encouraged to publish other prose works of the author not accessible in cheap editions, such as 'Quatre-vingt-treize' and 'Histoire d'un Crime.'

Among the late publications of the "Nouvelle Bibliothèque Populaire" (Paris: Gautier; Boston: Schoenhof) may be mentioned 'Les vieux poètes français,' selections from Eustache Deschamps, Christine de Pisan, Charles d'Orléans, Villon, and the poets of the *Pléiade*. As this series is published under Catholic auspices, we may expect to find in it several detached gems of literature not easily obtainable alone. Such are Mgr. Dupanloup's funeral oration on Gen. Lamoricière, followed by his celebrated letter to Gambetta written in 1871; Bossuet's 'Variations des Églises Protestantes,' a selection of some of the most striking passages of this remarkable work, etc. The "Nouvelle Bibliothèque" now numbers over thirty volumes at ten centimes each.

M. Auguste Garnier, the elder of the brothers Garnier, the well-known publishers of Paris, died on May 24, at the age of seventy-four. In 1833, when only twenty, together with his brother Hippolyte, four years younger than himself, he began the business which has since become an important one, in a shop in the Palais-Royal, in which they remained for forty years, removing only in 1873 to the present establishment, Rue des Saints-Pères, in a building formerly the residence of the military governor of Paris. The publications bearing the imprint of Garnier Frères are numerous. Among the best known are works of Béranger and of Sainte-Beuve, of Voltaire and of Diderot, and the Rabelais and Balzac's 'Contes drolatiques' illustrated by Gustave Doré.

—The announcement of the discovery of a poem by Edgar A. Poe, nearly a thousand lines long and hitherto unguessed, is one to excite interest of a lively kind; yet no less distinguished an origin is claimed for an obscure pamphlet published in Philadelphia in 1847, and now issued under the title 'The Poets and Poetry of America, a Satire by 'Lavante,' reprinted,' etc. (New York: Benjamin & Bell.) The finder of this literary waif prefaces it with a very able and thoroughly informed introduction, in which he seeks to show that Poe wrote the poem and left it unclaimed, and he makes out a strong case. It is not surprising that Poe should publish it anonymously as he did several of his poems, and his not acknowledging it after it had failed is quite consonant with his secretive and proud temperament. In 1847 he was, it has hitherto been supposed, idle, and this work fills up the gap in his activity; he had the money to pay for its cheap publication, derived from his libel suit in February; and it has been pointed out that he advertised, March 20, 1847, 'The Authors of America, in Prose and Verse, by Edgar Allan Poe,' as shortly to appear. This satire is believed to be the "Verse" portion of that work. The internal evidence is also strong. The hatred of Griswold, the contempt of Rufus Dawes, the jealousy of the Northern poets and the partisan Southern touch, the omission of all the "female poets," the theory of poetry expressed and the unbridled egotism and spleen personally exhibited—are leading traits that serve severally to point out Poe as the writer; and there are several minor notes of his style, not excepting redundancy and defects in the rhythm. There is certainly no overstatement in the conclusion advanced, "Either Poe wrote this satire, or somebody else, still unknown, wrote it with Poe's experience, Poe's doctrines, Poe's animus, and in Poe's language." The last thirty-five lines are as surely Poe's as mere internal evidence can make them, the very tone of his voice; but so long as no direct authority can be adduced, the proof must be regarded as incomplete. Independently of its authorship, the satire is by a practised and talented hand, but utterly without the touch of genius. It is, in fact, insignificant as literature, simply a well-written bitter squib. In satiric verse, it would seem, Poe's hand was cramped, and he did not lay about him with the vigor and point he showed in the free field of his prose. If it be granted that this satire is the summary and crowning outcome of his long labors in exposing "puffery" and "quackery," the finished poetic version of his "prose Dunciad"—and we do not see how to deny it—it only affords wholesale justification for Henry James's remark about Poe's "very valueless verses." The contemporary history of the pamphlet could probably be recovered from newspaper files.

—The third volume in Mr. John Bigelow's edition of Franklin's Works (Putnams) takes us into the year 1766, and covers his two visits to England as agent of the Pennsylvania Assembly against the Proprietaries. We have also the memorable examination before the House of Commons in reference to the Stamp Act, in which the Revolution was so clearly foreshadowed in Franklin's answers. Another statesmanlike document is the pamphlet urging British retention of Canada after its conquest. Humane and worth reading now is the "Narrative of the late Massacres, in Lancaster Co., of a number of Indians," etc. There are likewise Remarks on a Ministerial plan for the future management of Indian affairs (1765–66). Interesting are the letters relating Franklin's visit to his father's birthplace and relatives. The philosopher is seen in the correspondence touching the possible connection between volcanic eruptions and the inleaking of the sea upon the fiery core of the earth; the action of oil and water as observed in a glass at sea; the southerly origin of northeast storms on the Atlantic coast; the sound-carrying power of water, as when two stones are clashed below the surface, etc. There are, further, observations upon music. The printer comes out in the humorous letter to the founder Baskerville, narrating a little deception played on a bigoted admirer of Caslon. The classic writer of homely English appears in the letter to David Hume confessing some Americanisms in Franklin's recent pamphlet. "The '*pejorate*' and the '*colonize*,'" says the offender, "since they are not in common use here [in England], I give up as bad; for certainly in writings intended for persuasion and for general information, one cannot be too clear, and every expression in

the least obscure is a fault. The '*unshakeable*,' too, though clear, I give up as rather low." But Franklin proceeds to justify necessary neologisms, and envies the Germans their word-building, which would make "uncomeatable" as proper as "inaccessible," and more intelligible.

—Mr. Bigelow's part in editing this volume has been comparatively slight, and he has taken little pains to make its contents obvious by brief synopses in the table of contents. He sometimes foregoes them altogether. We do not know whether the foot-note on Lord Marischal (George Keith) is Mr. Bigelow's or another's; but since the document is a letter to David Hume, it seems odd that Rousseau should receive no mention in connection with the Scotch soldier of fortune here spoken of as "a person of consideration in Neufchâtel." Nor is Keith's friendship with Frederick the Great alluded to. Mr. Bigelow quotes from the Biography of Johann D. Michaelis an account of this theologian's meeting with Franklin and Sir John Pringle at Göttingen in the summer of 1766, during a Continental tour of which the records are very scanty. Franklin is represented as being then no believer in the possibility of secession from the mother country. The student who introduced the travellers—both "Englishmen" to him—contrasted their demeanor with that of Lessing, who visited Göttingen in the same summer. "The Britons, decried for their pride, were very sociable and well-informed. The German, on the contrary, was very haughty and controversial in conversation."

— Miss Isabel F. Hapgood's article, "Count Tolstoi and the Public Censor," in the *Atlantic* for July, is interesting as a practical example of just how the liberty of the press is restricted in Russia, but much more for the abstract it gives of Tolstoi's experiences as a census-taker in Moscow, and of his feelings and reflections when his peculiar ideas were still in the formative stage. Independently of agreement or disagreement with his conclusions, the criticism on social life which is involved in the autobiographical chapters of his works has a strong attraction for the mind, and nothing that has been given us of his is more genuine, simple, and direct than what is contained in Miss Hapgood's résumé. Agnes Repplier writes a paper full of literary anecdote and light criticism about the decay of sentiment, and takes occasion to contrast the reception the earlier authors of this century met with from the young and old with the mild welcome which the realistic school obtains and favors. She aims her covert arrows with great tact. Mr. H. E. Scudder returns to a favorite subject in his paper, urging the use of the best American literature in the books of the common schools. Mr. Lawton again furnishes an Euripidean study, illustrated by careful and chaste renderings from the 'Alcestis'; and Mr. Crawford begins to unravel the mystery of 'Paul Patoff,' which has been very readable fiction. The number is introduced by a long ode, "Our Country," by Mr. George E. Woodberry, replete with fervent patriotism and hopeful prophecy. One need not lack sympathy with this to enjoy most, as poetry, the closing division of the ode, which has a calm strength and simplicity very gratifying after the high-strung and at times somewhat obscure and inarticulated invocation.

—A translation of one of the most interesting of the religious works of Count Tolstoi, 'Ma Confession,' has just been published for the first time in French (Paris: Albert Savine; Boston: Schoenhof). It is one of those which have never been printed in Russia, but which circulate there in manuscript in large numbers. It seems to have been written in great part in 1879, but there is an added chapter at the end of the translation, a kind of metaphorical résumé of the whole book, with the date of 1882. This translation was made from one of the two editions of the work printed in Geneva, the form in which it has generally reached western readers of Russian. 'Ma Confession' has the charm of French well written, and it is not long enough to repel any one interested in Tolstoi. It is less than half the length of 'Ma Religion,' and adequately represents the religious growth of Tolstoi's life. It has all the straightforward earnestness and power of his best literary work, and it seizes and holds the attention and the sympathies of the reader from the first page to the last. An English translation of the same work, evidently also from the Geneva edition, appeared in 1885 in a volume called 'Christ's Christianity, by Count Leo Tolstoi' (London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.), of which it formed the first part, "How I came to believe," not quite a fourth of the whole. The second part, "What I believe," is the much longer work translated into French about the same time, the well-known 'Ma Religion,' which is dated January, 1884. The third part is called "The Spirit of Christ's Teaching (a commentary on the essence of the Gospel)." This seems to be a condensation by Tolstoi himself of part of a larger work, and completes the view of his religious ideas, as far as he wished at that period to express them. The preface of the editor of 'Christ's Christianity' is very simply and seriously written, and the book is addressed to those only "who are more in search of truth than of style." It is impossible to judge from this preface what the editor's religious beliefs may be; but, whether he accepts the views of Tolstoi or not, he is the only one among the many translators and writers about his religious and moral development, that have come under our observation, who receives these views in a sympathetic spirit. This English volume has no editor's name; but in a note at the end of a short preface an address is given, which may be that of the editor himself, to which "any kind of criticism upon the work by any one who is in earnest" may be sent: "H. F. Battersby, Ashburne, Ealing."

—'Que faire?' translated into French a few months ago (Paris: Albert Savine; Boston: Schoenhof), presents another aspect of Count Tolstoi's moral nature. While 'Ma Confession' represents his religious growth and emotions, 'Que faire?' (a still more recent work) represents the awakening to a new activity, and the gradual development of the sense of the duty of one human being towards the mass of suffering humanity around him. It is neither a story nor a personal confession; but, with the instincts of the dramatic poet of his earlier writings, he has thrown around a suitable personality the experiences and mistakes of one sincerely touched by the misery and sin he sees around him, and sincerely desirous of relieving it. The book touches on the deepest questions that occupy the philanthropist and the political economist, and that will continue to occupy them as long as there are rich and poor, upper and lower classes of society.

—Lord Gifford, one of the Scottish Judges, has left behind him one of the most remarkable wills, probably, that were ever penned. He has devised $400,000, in various proportions, to the four Scottish Universities, to be devoted to the foundation of lectureships in natural theology. The last number of *Mind* contains some extracts from the trust-deed, which we reproduce in part. Of his estate he considers himself bound to employ a certain portion for "the good of his fellow-men," and therefore founds the lectureship for promoting

"the study of natural theology in the widest sense of the term; in other words, the knowledge of God, the Infinite, the All, the First and Only Cause, the One and the Sole Substance, the Sole Being, the Sole Reality, and the Sole Existence, the knowledge of His nature and attributes, the knowledge of the relations which men and the whole universe bear to Him, the knowledge of the nature and foundation of ethics or morals, and of all obligations and duties thence arising"; having long "been deeply and firmly convinced that such knowledge is the means of man's highest well-being and the security of his upward progress." "The lecturers appointed shall be subject to no test of any kind, and shall not be required to take any oath or to emit or subscribe any declaration of belief, or to make any promise of any kind; they may be of any denomination whatever, or of no denomination at all (and many earnest and high-minded men prefer to belong to no ecclesiastical denomination); they may be of any religion or way of thinking, or, as is sometimes said, they may be of no religion, or they may be so-called sceptics or agnostics or free-thinkers, provided only that the 'patrons' will use diligence to secure that they be able, reverent men, true thinkers, sincere lovers of and earnest inquirers after truth." "I have intentionally indicated, in describing the subject of the lectures, the general aspect which personally I would expect the lectures to bear, but the lecturers shall be under no restraint whatever in their treatment of their theme; for example, they may freely discuss (and it may be well to do so) all questions about man's conceptions of God or the Infinite; their origin, nature, and truth; whether he can have any such conceptions; whether God is under any or what limitations; and so on—as I am persuaded that nothing but good can result from free discussion."

RECENT NOVELS.

Saracinesca. By F. Marion Crawford. Macmillan & Co.

The Story of a New York House. By H. C. Bunner. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Sabina Zembra. By William Black. Harper & Brothers.

Knight-Errant. By Edna Lyall. D. Appleton & Co.

Without Blemish. By Mrs. J. H. Walworth. Cassell & Co.

Sigrid. By Jon Thordssön Thoroddsen. Translated from the Danish by C. Chrest. Edited by Thomas Tapper, jr. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

She. By H. Rider Haggard. Harper & Brothers.

Miss Bayle's Romance. Henry Holt & Co.

Woodland Tales. By Julius Stinde. Translated from the German by Ellis Wright. Thomas Whittaker.

Katia. By Count L. N. Tolstoi. Translated from the French. William S. Gottsberger.

'SARACINESCA' is the introductory volume of a series in which Mr. Crawford intends to disclose the history of a noble and powerful Roman family during the last quarter of a century. It is more interesting for what it promises—an inside view of the most important political episodes in modern Italian history—than for what it is. The substance of the prologue is not sufficient to justify its length, which may scarcely be excused on the plea that it is necessary thoroughly to familiarize the reader with the scene and characters of the contemplated drama. The story, the love of a man for a married woman, is the common property of novelists, and the elaboration of certain incidents inevitably consequent on that situation is not necessary to intensify any local color. When Mr. Crawford dwells on the machinations of his villain, Ugo del Ferice, he is not advancing his avowed purpose, but, on the contrary, seems to be falling back on conventional and trashy methods for making scenes and excitement. In an author, however, who made his reputation on such extravagances as 'Dr. Claudius' and 'Mr. Isaacs,' the wonder is not that he should occasionally be showy and unnatural, but that he should ever successfully moderate those propensi-

ties. In the greater part of 'Saracinesca' Mr. Crawford has not only moderated but overcome them. He has resisted innumerable and terrible temptations. One is the relation between Corona d'Astrardente and Giovanni Saracinesca while the Duc d'Astrardente is alive. He could easily have made that appear sensual, if not base; he has really made it appear refined and delicate, and impressed the reader with the woman's purity and the man's nobility.

Another and perhaps greater temptation is to exaggerate the external and material magnificence of his people whose social rank is exalted. A novelist can hardly set himself a more difficult task than faithfully to depict the daily life and thought of a class limited, exclusive, and privileged, concerning whom the credulity of the general public is large. If he escape reckless extravagance, he may fall into coldness and colorlessness. To avoid either, he must have honest purpose, accurate knowledge of his field, cool judgment, and a nice sense of literary proportion and effect. Mr. Crawford has found the middle way and kept to it. He has carefully guarded against the sins of Ouida and minor high-pressure romancists, and yet he has given us Princes and Powers thoroughly alive and human. The ease and luxury of their surroundings have no spectacular gorgeousness; the courteous formality and dignified reserve of their daily intercourse are not travesties of high-breeding and burlesques of the English language. The Duke d'Astrardente is a poor, miserable, painted image, but he is always a gentleman and never an ape. The old Saracinesca, whose virility is in strong contrast to D'Astrardente's effeminacy, is irascible and violent, but he is a man and a Prince, not a ruffian decorated with a title. These two old men, with the younger Saracinesca, admirably illustrate a point to which the author specifically attracts attention—that is, the marked and pleasing strain of simplicity underlying the cosmopolitanism of the Roman nobility as a class. The distinct characterization of this group, and the careful ranging of all his forces, certainly indicate Mr. Crawford's ability to carry out a fine plan largely conceived. And, further, the book suggests that the life which unites intelligence and refinement with strength and passion is not for ever to be excluded from realistic literature.

If the history of a Roman family should prove to have been designed on too extended a scale for satisfactory treatment in fiction, the disappointment inflicted will be exactly unlike that we feel after reading Mr. Bunner's 'Story of a New York House.' The outline is perfectly clear, but the outline of a story stretching over eighty years requires a good many pages. Here it has demanded so many of the whole number that few are left for the filling in, and the feeling is almost crowded out. Fortunately, Mr. Bunner has qualities of gentleness and humor which manage to leave their impress even on an outline. Of course he only assumes to tell the story of a house, but literally the story of a house may be told in a line—at least until the walls which have always had ears shall develop tongues: the house is built; it stands so many years; it falls either by force or natural process of disintegration and ruin. What further may be said about a house, without superfluity, concerns the people who go in and out its doors, who live and die within its walls. It is really the story of three generations of Dolphs who lived in a house built when New Yorkers said St. John's Park was out of town, that Mr. Bunner tells, and tells so incompletely that we can form to ourselves no satisfactory picture of any one generation, scarcely of any individual. The Dolphs and their friends are interesting shadows, attractive phantoms, not solid figures to be sympathized with, thought over, and talked about. The occasional sharp strokes of characterization and pithy description go a long way; but with hints and nods and winks, however expressive, we cannot make connections smoothly over great gaps of years and sad vicissitudes. To have put so much in so little, without awkward haste, is, technically, to have done a clever thing; but it is not an artistic achievement. Moreover, Mr. Bunner, in thus cramping and limiting himself, has missed the chief purpose of semi-historic fiction, which is so to vivify the past that the sense of remoteness in time is, for the reader, practically annihilated.

Mr. Black's 'Sabina Zembra' prompts two questions irresistibly. Why did that wise virgin, Sabina, being married to Mr. Foster, straightway become a fool? Why did that frank, genial, and healthy Mr. Foster, being married to Sabina, straightway become a scamp and start at headlong speed down the path of vice to the pits of degradation and timely death? Generalization on the after-effects of matrimony fails to answer the questions, and Mr. Black offers no explanation. The only way to account for such convulsions of character is by supposing that Mr. Black began to write about the people without any definite idea, and, long before he was done with them, forgot their original personality. Indeed, throughout the novel there is abundant evidence of defective plan, or of no plan at all. The work is perfunctory, slovenly, with considerable posing and clap trap, and much laborious description of insignificant things. The author gushes very liberally over Sabina's lover and second husband, Mr. Lindsay, and makes a great point of that gentleman's devotion to a rock-crystal cup which Sabina's lips once had touched. Mr. Lindsay is certainly an excellent young man, who, if he did not owe his existence to a fellow-man, would be scoffed at as a woman's hero.

Mr. Lindsay is quite as irreproachable as Carlo Donati, the principal figure in Edna Lyall's 'Knight-Errant,' and has not the Italian's urgent motive for ingenious self-sacrifice. The men are equally beautiful in person and pure of heart, equally but not similarly dowered with genius—Lindsay being a great painter and Donati a marvellous singer. In novels sturdy virtues are seldom ascribed to individuals preëminent in art, and, if the class has been unjustly maligned, the public ought to study Lindsay and Donati and correct its long-standing prejudice. Donati's renunciations of personal desires and ambitions are for the sake of a sister, not able to take care of herself, and not very well worth taking care of. He bears great troubles and petty annoyances with the patience of a saint, and his admirable picturesqueness throughout proves that nature surely meant him for an Italian opera singer. Some years ago, a good many now, it is said that people shed tears of sympathy as Italian operatic heroes proclaimed their anguish behind the footlights. In those days the same people could probably have absorbed themselves in the woes of Donati: but he has come too late, and must, we fear, appeal to an unresponsive audience.

In 'Without Blemish' Mrs. Walworth discusses the social problem in which the negro is the principal factor. It is a pity that any one addicted to writing on subjects so serious as those which involve the welfare of communities, and even of races, should adopt the emotional view and method rather than the rational. It at once excites suspicion of the justice of his observations and distrust of the wisdom of his conclusions. Mrs. Walworth does not discourse about the negro of the South so hysterically as she did about the Mormon of Utah in the 'Bar Sinister,' but her excitability is still more evident than her critical judgment. She is unfortunate, too, in selecting, as the medium for illustrating her economic ideas, a melodramatic plot, one in the last degree sensational and improbable. It is impossible to combine a sermon and a burlesque without exciting contempt for the sermon, or leaving people coldly indifferent to it. By subjecting to a series of improbable events a number of people whose conversational methods are stagey and ridiculous, the author has nearly nullified what good her sermon might do. Still, one may glean from it some sensible and earnest arguments urging patient education of the negro by those who once were his masters, and who are now largely dependent on him for their existence. The arguments are not novel, but they have more substantial claims on our consideration than have many brilliant experimental theories.

The only interest in the Icelandic love-story 'Sigrid' is its curiously primitive conception and construction. The simplicity of the characters is harsh and crude, singularly unattractive, and the slight intrigue seems to be imitated from poor foreign models, imperfectly understood. In the preface attention is claimed for the translation as a "poetical work." On every page there is evidence that the translator is unfamiliar with English idiom, and, having read the story, it is almost certain that he has unconsciously misused the word "poetical." If he has used the word advisedly, and if, as the preface goes on to say, 'Sigrid' is a "perspicuous and comprehensive word-painting of the Icelandic people," then the Icelandic people are about as poetical as a peddler of lightning-rods or an Israelite dealer in old clothes.

It is said that thirteen separate American issues of Mr. Haggard's 'She' are now in circulation. The fact must naturally be gratifying to the author, but it is not distinctly creditable to the literary taste and cultivation of Americans. Gross impossibilities without number, pages of platitudinous reflection, a smattering of learning, scenes that are revolting, scenes that are indecent—all that is 'She,' and that is all 'She' is. Nevertheless, thousands of people have read 'She,' and probably thousands more are waiting for a chance. In the face of this spectacle, the only criticism of any value would have to take the shape of an essay on the advantages of not knowing how to read.

The typical American girl abroad, particularly as she presents herself to the eyes of the English, has been used as a subject for novels of late years *ad nauseam*. A book devoted wholly to her glorification or to her detraction, or (as is the case with the anonymous volume from an English pen, entitled 'Miss Bayle's Romance') to a would-be impartial survey of the topic, must needs be of very unusual excellence in order to attract more than passing attention at the present day. This novel certainly cannot lay any claim to being reckoned in that category, and the author's manifest cleverness would have produced more effect in any other line than this. In spite of the fact that he hints at a sort of approval of his crude heroine, by wedding her to the heir to an English dukedom, the reader cannot help feeling that she, as well as her father and mother, is being sketched with the same intention which inspires an artist to furnish the typical Yankee with a star-spangled suit, lank hair, and a white fur hat. Under such conditions, the personages in a novel can hardly fail to degenerate into mere conventional puppets. The wooden effect in this particular case is heightened by a singular stiffness and lack of flexibility in style, which makes the descriptions of action and travel read like cut-and-dried extracts from a guide-book, and betrays the fact that the writer is a novice in this field of work. The really clever passages are those which give succinct accounts of American business methods, though the sensational strength of the volume lies in the introduction of well-known personages, undisguised or very

thinly veiled. But a marionette show cannot be very interesting or exciting under any circumstances, and the author's lack of practice in pulling his wires spoils the reader's comfort and pleasure in a work which is neither absolutely insignificant nor absolutely good, so singularly are cleverness, clumsiness, and the commonplace intermingled. The noteworthy point is the author's attempt to vindicate the reputation of croupiers at the gambling tables in the south of France. Unfortunately for his purpose, he has not the courage to carry out his first intention, but dodges the issue; also, unfortunately, his reluctance on that point was accentuated shortly after the publication of his book by a glaring case of dishonesty at the very spot which he defends.

The popularity attained by Dr. Julius Stinde's amusing volumes on the 'Buchholz Family' has led to the publication of a volume of his short sketches. The 'Woodland Tales' are gracefully told, and are quite unlike the famous letters in style and scope, but they do not rise above the level of the ordinary short sketch written to order to fill a certain space in a magazine, and at times they are rather forced. They have the advantage of being well translated.

It is a pity that a short story should be cut down when the intention is to make it furnish forth a volume by itself, and especially when the story is cast in so simple a mould that it absolutely requires every word of the original to fill out the absence of incident. Evidently Count L. N. Tolstoi's 'Katia' was first translated to appear in some French publication where the space was limited; and the person who afterwards turned it into English was both unaware of the fact and unable to supply what was missing. The story as now presented to the English reader is, therefore, about one-fourth shorter than the original. The author gave it the significant title of 'Family Happiness,' which the reader will do well to bear in mind when he meets with allusions to Count Tolstoi's works. As the French translator understood the author's ideas better than he did himself, it is also natural that he should have changed the names about: for *Katia* read *Masha* all the way through, and vice versa. The sketch is one of the noted author's early and minor works, and, though pleasing and profound, to a certain degree, it lacks the power of his later writings. It is a simple, direct study of the love of a young girl for her elderly guardian, their marriage, and their speedy estrangement, arising from the different tastes natural to their different ages. The estrangement results in nothing worse or more exciting than a descent from their first fervent love to a friendly affection, and it is this gradual ebb of feeling which Masha (Katia) relates from her own point of view. It is chiefly interesting as being one of the author's first published attempts in that analysis of sentiments by which he has since so widely distinguished himself.

PRICE'S LONDON GUILDHALL.—II.

A Descriptive Account of the Guildhall of the City of London: its History and Associations. Compiled from Original Documents, with Facsimile Charters, Maps, and other Illustrations, by John Edward Price. Prepared by authority of the Corporation of the City of London under the Superintendence of the Library Committee. Pp. iii, 298. London. 1886.

We now pass to positive errors of fact, which are very numerous. On page 7 the author ascribes a document to "circa 12th century" which on page 16 he definitely says is of the early part of the reign of Henry I. Query: Does Mr. Price know what *circa* means? On page 8, rebuking Merewhether and Stephens for the weakness of their chronology, he italicizes the following words, which he ascribes to them: "The City of London continued without one (*i. e.*, a Guildhall) until this reign, Henry VI." It should be "Henry IV." "Wardmotum" in the charter of Henry I., which is cited as one of the oldest references to the London wards (p. 15), is a false reading for "vadimonia," as the text of similar town charters plainly shows. The date commonly accepted for the expulsion of the Jews from England is 1290, not "1287 or 1289" (p. 21). On page 22 we read that the laws of King Edgar legislate concerning parishes; but the latter are not mentioned in those laws. The charter of King John to Andover does not "incorporate" the guild of merchants (p. 29). Henry II., not Henry I., was the grandfather of Henry III. (p. 30). The assertion on page 32 that "at one time the site [of the old Teutonic Steelyard] was the centre of London trade, and the scene of its complete monopoly by the merchants of the Hanseatic League," is absurdly incorrect. The charter of King John to the Cologne merchants, as Mr. Price informs us (p. 33), is printed by him for the first time, so far as he is aware; but he ought to be aware of the fact that the Charter Rolls of John's reign were published by the Record Commission, on page 194 of which publication he will find the charter referred to.

The Osney Chartulary in the British Museum is not "a collection of burnt fragments" (p. 35); at least three-quarters of the matter in its 275 folio pages is still legible. On pages 42, 43 we are informed that the liberties of London were in the hands of the King from 1273 to 1297; for 1273 substitute 1285. The author is wrong in saying that from the year 1252 the Husting Rolls of London "have retained an unbroken succession up to the present time" (p. 45). There is a break, extending from 1718 to 1837. He gives 1411 as the date of the rebuilding of the Guildhall (pp. 49, 50); but both of his sources, Stow (first edition) and Fabyan, make it 1410. On page 51 we find "Vitillars (Glaziers?)"; "vitillars" is plainly intended for "victuallers," and is not in the remotest degree to be confounded with "glaziers." "Sept., 1530, 31 Henry VIII.," "Nov., 20 Henry VI., A. D. 1504," "June, 1318, 8 Edward II.," and "1396, 12 Richard II." (pp. 13, 64, 184, 113) are impossible combinations; those regnal years correspond to 1539, 1441, 1315, and 1388–89, respectively. For "Portmole" on page 10, read Portmote; for "cuihtegild," on page 19, cnihtegild; for "at London," on page 29, at Oxford. The statement that the constitution of the Common Council "has never from the first day of its establishment been changed" (p. 167) is wholly untenable. We will stop to mention only one change. According to an ordinance of 1346, the Council was strictly representative, being chosen in the ward-motes by the commonalty or citizens at large; in 1375 it was enacted that the same body should be elected by the trading companies instead of the wards (Stubbs, Const. Hist., iii, 620; Norton, Commentaries, 114, 115). The earliest reference that the author finds to the Chamberlain of London (p. 178) is of the year 1275. That officer is frequently alluded to in the printed Rolls of the reign of John, for example, Close Rolls i, 4, 21. On page 188 "Mathew Paris, p. 501," is cited as a source for the reign of Henry V. That old chronicler had been in his grave more than 150 years when Henry V. ascended the throne. "Hinch-boy," a page, is not, as Mr. Price asserts, derived from haunch-boy on account of his "following the haunch of his master" (p. 198), but probably from the Anglo-Saxon "hengest," a horse. Skeat rightly speaks of the former derivation as "a desperate guess" and "a clumsy hybrid compound."

In palæography the author is even weaker than in history and philology. His transcript, on page 192, of a portion of a manuscript in the British Museum is a paragon of inaccuracy. The spelling of about one-half of the words varies from that of the original. There are also insertions, such as "in fine Gold" in the third line, and omissions. Here is a sample of his workmanship. He prints one of the entries thus:

> "ffor 5 Banners of half yarde square wrought, on silke with fine gold and silver 5 cap. . . . . Crowns gilt in oyle with fine gold and silver at 6l 8 - - - - - £1 13 4."

According to the manuscript it should read:

> "ffor 5 Baners of halfe yarde Square wrought one [*i. e.*, on] Silke with fine gold and sillver - - - - - 080 [*i. e.*, £3].
> ffor 5 Capatall Crowns gilt in oyle with fine gold and Sillver at 6 [*s.*] 8*d.* - - - - - [£] 1 13 [*s.*] [4*d*.]"

It now only remains for us to animadvert upon the author's crowning weakness. The construction of Latin throughout this books merits even harder words than Macaulay applied to Croker's edition of Boswell's Johnson. We have here to do with a very shallow Latinist, who parades before the public in the garb of an erudite editor of Latin originals. On page 30 there is a translation of a charter of Henry III. to Oxford occupying twenty lines, which contains some fifteen bad mistakes. Here are a few of them: "Et aliis pertinenciis suis" does not mean "and otherwise pertaining thereto," but plainly "and its other appurtenances." "Nullus qui non sit de gilda illa," not "no one who was not of the Gildall," but "no one who is not of that Gild." "And that they should have all liberties, customs, and laws which they have in common with his citizens of London. And that at his festival they should serve him (the King) as those of his Butlery. And should do merchandise with him." This should read, "And that they may have all their other customs, liberties, and laws which they have in common with our citizens of London, namely, that (*scilicet, quod*) at our festival they may serve us with those of our butlery; and may merchandise in common with them (*cum eis*)." "Et non aliter, quia" is translated "and otherwise because" instead of "and *not* otherwise; because," etc. The customary closing formula of English charters, "Quare volumus, et firmiter praecipimus quod," etc., is contorted into "which we will and that," etc. Glossarists differ as to the exact meaning of "them" in the phrase "et thol, et them," but all will unanimously agree in rejecting Mr. Price's new construction, namely, "beam."

We append three passages as the author presents them and as they stand in his sources: page 7, "a tempore quo Roma prima fundatur fuit, et civitatem Lundoniae eodem tempore fundatum," for "a tempore quo Roma primo fundata fuit, et civitatem Lundoniae eodem tempore fundatam"; page 11, "Civibus Londinae mediastinus, neque foeneratoribus neque officiosis negotiatoribus," for "Civibus Londoniae mediastinis, neque foenerantibus neque officiose negotiantibus"; page 12, "Hoec (*i. e.*, London) etiam similiter illi (*i. e.*, Rome) regionibus et distincta" for "Haec . . . est distincta." The phrase "anno regis nunc primo in hustengo de Communibus tento," when translated "in the first year of the King, that now is held in trust of the Community" (p. 31), is meaningless; it should be, "in the first year of the present King, in the Hustings of common pleas, held," etc. Mr. Price is certainly original in his construction of the surname of "Guillelmo Sene," which he translates "Old William" (p. 41). On pages 12 and 21 a manuscript is cited as the 'Annales Anglia.' This specimen of low Latinity is Mr. Price's, not that of the chronicler who wrote the 'Annales Angliae.' In the Latin on page 11, note 1, the comma is evi-

dently used as the sign of contraction—a most confusing innovation. In the same passage "et altera" is printed instead of "ex altera"; "in cuj, rei fest, ego," instead of "in cujus rei testimonium ego"; "Alewy Diapero," instead of "Alewy Draperio"; "ex Lib. Osn. penes, Aedi Christi," instead of "ex Lib. Osn. penes Aedem Christi."

The attempt on p. 118 to reproduce the signs of contraction of the original is a failure. For "sciates," page 29, read "sciatis"; for "fermiter," 'quidum," "quas petent," and "per . . . maiorum," page 30, read "firmiter," "quidem," "quas petunt," "per . . . maiorem"; for "tempore Simonis de Swanlond maiore," "a partibus transmarinus," "corum," "dicta ville," page 31, read "tempore . . . maioris," "a partibus transmarinis," "coram," "dicte ville"; for "Johannes," "predictar', carectarum," page 52, read "Johanne," "predictarum carectarum"; for "in officia suo," page 71, "in officio suo"; for "hic . . . pacet," p. 130, "hic . . . jacet." Such mistakes as "emptus per ejusdem" and "per me Hugone" (pp. 126, 139) would almost make even an intelligent school-boy shudder. On page 253 the Latin epitaph of Whittington is copied from Weever's 'Funeral Monuments.' To the latter's conspicuous errors Mr. Price dexterously adds some of his own (for example, "altificans" for "albificans"; "gibi" for "sibi"; "presbiteorum" for "presbiterorum"). If the reader will compare this version with the correct one in Maitland's 'History of London,' p. 470 (London, 1739), he will understand what convulsions Latin undergoes in passing through Mr. Price's hands. In the epitaphs on pages 132 and 134 Holofernes would certainly "smell bad Latin," but as the originals are not accessible, we cannot tell how many of the mistakes are to be ascribed to Mr. Price.

We will conclude with two of the most notable memorials of the latter's egregious shiftlessness, namely, the documents on pages 139, 140. On page 139 words like "val," "tent," etc. (for "valet," "tenementum," etc.), appear without any mark of contraction. He prints "Pcett" for "P'cell'" ("parcellæ"); "Ry" for "R" or "Ri" ("Ricardus"); "omin' annorum" for "omni' (omnium) annorum"; "iii^{cio} R' cvi^{o}" for "iii^{cio} R' E' vi^{o}" ("tertio Regis Edwardi vi^{o}"). The words "Lond' Civit' 13" are incorporated in the text; in the original they stand by themselves on the dorse of the membrane. In the manuscript we meet the expression "per indenturam"; Mr. Price inserts mystic dots thus: "per . . . . . indenturam." Though the author does not mention the repository of the record printed on page 140, there can be little doubt that his source is 'Cardinal Pole's Pension Book,' deposited in the Public Record Office, London. At all events, we have there found the same matter, and thus are able to call Mr. Price to account for what he prints. His extract reads thus:

SCT LAUR IN VETERI JUDAISMO PAROCH PENSIONES.

Thom. Sandall, nup' conduct.... ....£5
Tho. Sylvester.... 5
Tho. Rilerghe Incumbent.... 6
Rowland Robynson " 5
Henry Aldred " 5
Bob Golder und Ministro [one of the Ministers] 5

GUILDHALL COLLEGE.

Rob. Rogers, Joh'is Richardson, Rob. Foxe } Incumbent 5 5 5

ST. MARY ALDERMARIEBURIE POCH^{as} PENCOES.

Rig. Ugle, Joh'is Mordocke } Incumbent 4 5

To this a note is added: "Sumat Aunuat Solucion' in hac Civitat. 1605, 16, 8. 188 Parishes with their Churches, Colleges, Religious Houses, &c., are mentioned in this list."

Subjoined is the above properly transcribed:

Parochia sancti Laurencii in Veteri Judaismo.—Penciones
Thome Sandall nuper Conducti ibidem per Annum. c. s.
Thome Silvester nuper incumbentis " " " .. c. s.
Thome Kyleigh' " " " " " .. c. s.
Rowland Robynson " " " " " ..vi. d.
Henrici Aldred " " " " " .. c. s.
Roberti Golder unius ministrorum ibidem per Annum c. s.

Guildehall' collegium.—Penciones

Roberti Rogers nuper incumbentis ibidem per Annum c.s.
Johannis Richardson." " " " " .... c.s.
Roberti Fox " " " " " .... c.s.

Parochia de Aldermanburye.—Penciones

Ricardi Ugle nuper incumbentis ibidem per Annum iiii d.
Johannis Mordocke" " " " .... c. s.

Summa omnium Solucionum in predicta Civitate London' per annum MVL.V. (*i. e.* 1605) *li.* vl.s. viii *d.* 81 Parishes together with 16 religious foundations of various kinds are mentioned in this list.

The Latin on page 40 and in the Appendix has evidently passed through abler hands than Mr. Price's.

A BRITISH SERGEANT.

The Autobiography of Sergeant William Lawrence, a Hero of the Peninsular and Waterloo Campaigns. Edited by George N. Bankes. London: Sampson Low & Co.

THE author of this autobiography was a private in the British Army during the Spanish campaigns of the Duke of Wellington. He was present at all the great battles, storms, and sieges from the skirmish at Roliça down to the last and bloody battle of Toulouse. By dint of sheer hard fighting, and the fortunate accident of being bullet-proof, he won his way to the rank of sergeant—that representing the highest rank to which, in those days, the British soldier, "fighting under the cold shade of aristocracy," was permitted to attain. On the return of Napoleon from Elba, his regiment was again ordered on service, and he passed unscathed through the battle of Quatre-Bras and "the world's earthquake, Waterloo." He had also considerable supplementary war services recorded to his credit against the Spanish settlements in South America, and against the United States. He was, in a word, an English bull-dog of the most hardy, tenacious, and fearless description. During the occupation of Paris by the Allies, he fell in love with and married a French girl, and on his return to England, having received from his grateful country the gigantic pension of ninepence a day, in complete acquittance of all he had done and endured for her, he closed the evening of his days as the keeper of a small public house near to the village in which he had been born.

Sergeant William Lawrence, despite the dignified position he held in Her Majesty's Army, never learned to write; and these reminiscences of his career were taken down by a village friend from his dictation. The Sergeant died in 1867, bequeathing the manuscript to the family one of whose members has now printed and published it for the advantage of the world. The autobiography is a plain, honest narrative of a great war from the point of view of a private soldier, and it shows what splendid fighting material Wellington must have had under his command. The Sergeant had his own conception of duty, and he cannot be accused of ever turning aside from it. He was always ready for a fight, but, as an individual, his one absorbing interest was in the matter of rations and of grog. Provided these were forthcoming regularly and in sufficient quantity, he and his comrades would seem to have accepted all other incidents of a campaign as part of the day's work, and not to have given them a second thought. A thrice-blessed deficiency of the imagination would seem to have relieved them of all anxiety respecting their own personal safety. This is amusingly exemplified in his account of the storming of Badajos:

"A storming party," he says, "was selected from each regiment, and each of the third, fourth, and light divisions was told off to a breach. I joined the forlorn hope myself. Before, however, that I proceed further in my account of this sanguinary affair, I will relate an engagement that myself, Pig Harding, and another of my comrades, George Bowden by name, entered into before we even started on our way, of which the result showed what a blind one it was. Through being quartered at Badajos after the battle of Talavera, all three of us knew the town perfectly well, and so understood the position of the most valuable shops; and hearing a report, likewise, that if we succeeded in taking the place there was to be three hours' plunder, we had planned to meet at a silversmith's shop that we knew about, poor Pig even providing himself with a piece of wax candle to light us if needed. But all this was doomed to disappointment. . . . I was one of the ladder party. On our arriving at the breach, the French sentry on the wall cried out, 'Who comes there?' three times, or words to that effect in his own language, but on no answer being given, a shower of shot—canister and grape, together with fire-balls—was hurled at random amongst us. Poor Pig received his death-wound immediately, Bowden became missing, whilst I myself received two small slug shots in my left knee and a musket shot in my side, which must have been mortal had it not been for my canteen."

Then follows an account of the unsuccessful efforts on the part of the British troops to surmount the chevaux-de-frise of sword-blades which the French had set up in the centre of the breach—efforts which had to be made under a deluge of fire poured in among them at close range. The breach was choked with the dead and dying. Lawrence tried to get out of the ditch by means of the scaling ladders by which the Forlorn Hope had descended into it, but found them all encumbered with dead or wounded soldiers, "hanging, some, by their feet just as they had fallen and got fixed in the rounds." At length, though faint and exhausted with loss of blood, he succeeded in extricating himself from the press and in making his way to the field hospital. His closing comments upon this murderous battle are characteristic:

"All being now over, thoughts of Pig Harding, George Bowden, and our engagement ran in my head, and how it had all failed; poor Pig having received seven shots in his body, and George Bowden having had both thighs blown off. Both must have met with instant death, and I myself had four wounds and was disabled for some time from getting about. I resolved then that I would never make any more engagements under the same fearful circumstances. We missed poor Pig more than any man of the regiment, for he passed many an hour away pleasantly with his jokes, being a thoroughbred Irishman; and not only that, but he supplied us with many an extra piece of tommy by his roguish tricks."

The meaning of this last characteristic of "poor Pig" is, that he was an adept in the business of supplementing the rations by pigs and other unconsidered trifles ingeniously "conveyed" from the population of the country. It is hardly necessary to point out the immense value, from a general's point of view, of the mental constitution which, on the eve of the storming of Badajoz, could concentrate itself, not upon the probable incidents of the assault, but upon a silversmith's shop in the centre of the town. The following is the Sergeant's account of the state of his regiment at four o'clock in the afternoon of the 18th of June, 1815:

"The men, in their tired state, were beginning to despair, but the officers cheered them on continually throughout the day with the cry of, 'Keep your ground, my men!' It is a mystery to me how it was accomplished, for at last so few were left that there were scarcely enough to form square. About four o'clock I was ordered to the colors. This, although I was used to warfare as much as any, was a job I did not at all like; but still I went as boldly to work as I could. There had been before me that day fourteen sergeants already killed and wounded while in charge of these colors, with officers in proportion, and the staff and colors were almost cut to pieces. This job will never be blotted from my memory; although I am now an old man, I remember it as if it had been yesterday. I had not been there more than a quarter of an hour when a cannon-

shot came and took the Captain's head clean off. This was again close to me, for my left side was touching the Captain's right, and I was spattered all over with his blood. One of his company who was close by at the time cried out, 'Hallo, there goes my best friend'; which caused a lieutenant, who quickly stepped forward to take his place, to say to the man, 'Never mind, I will be as good a friend to you as the Captain.' The man replied, 'I hope not, sir'; the officer not having rightly understood his meaning—the late Captain having been particularly hard on him for his dirtiness, giving him extra duty and such like as punishment. The man, whose name was Marten, was a notorious character in the regiment, and I was myself tolerably well acquainted with him, for he had once been in my company, but on account of the same thing, dirtiness in his person, he had been transferred to the fifth company, where neither the poor Captain had been able to reform him, try however hard he might Still, he was for all this an excellent soldier in the field."

Extracts, however, can give little or no idea of the interest attaching to a book like this autobiography. Sergeant Lawrence is not an artist writing with an eye to the picturesque or the dramatic. Rather his account of himself is interesting because there is no striving after effect of any kind. He tells what he saw and what he did—he rarely seems to have suffered from the malady of thought, so tells us very little about that—without bombast or exaggeration, and, in his simple, unstudied way, opens out that most interesting of all sights to a student of history—veritable glimpses of the lives of the humble and the obscure in a world that has passed away.

Life of Henry Clay. By Carl Schurz. In two volumes. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1887.

THE question which first presents itself in connection with the last publication in the "American Statesmen" series, is why two volumes should be devoted to Henry Clay when his great compeers, Webster and Calhoun, and even the founders of the republic, Hamilton, Jefferson, and others, have received only one. The answer is perhaps to be found in part in the personality of the man. He was certainly no greater man than Calhoun and Webster, and occupied no more prominent place than they in the public eye, while the careers of the three coincided to a remarkable degree in length and continuousness of activity. But Clay was the most picturesque character of the three, his individuality played a larger part in the history of his time, and his life was more full of incident than that of either of his rivals. No American statesman has ever had so strong a hold upon the affections of his countrymen; none has been so *magnetic*, in the true meaning of that much-abused word.

These considerations may account in part for the space allotted to Clay in this series; in part, too, no doubt, it is to be accounted for by the choice of his biographer. Mr. Schurz is not merely a writer, he is a statesman of large experience in public affairs; he is not merely a public man, he is a literary man and a thinker. More than any of the other biographers of the series, he approaches the life which he narrates from the two-fold point of view of history and practical politics. He has earnestly studied the history of American politics as a part of the life of the nation; and in writing the biography of a man whose public career covers nearly half of the years of our republican government, he has embodied in the work the fruits of these studies. In this book we have, therefore, what is really a political history of the United States, based upon the public life of Henry Clay—a history of American politics by Carl Schurz. Looked at in this light, the work before us appears as one of more than ordinary importance. If it were only a bare commentary upon American politics, its value, coming from this hand, would be great. But its literary merit is equally great. We all know how complete a mastery Mr. Schurz has acquired of the language of his adopted country, and it is no surprise to find his book written in pure and idiomatic English. But we were hardly prepared for so genial and entertaining a work. The life of his hero is not buried under a mass of philosophic reflection or subordinated to the political history of the times; it is a true biography, written in a style which carries the reader along by the very interest of the narrative.

There is another consideration besides the personality of the man which entitles Clay to an especially prominent place in the biographies of "American Statesmen." He may be regarded as, more than either Webster or Calhoun, the representative American statesman of his day. It has often been noted that his home in a border State, as well as his natural disposition, made him disposed to compromise, and he has come down to us, by the epithet which he would himself have chosen, of "the great compromiser"—an honorable epithet for a moderate statesman, exactly corresponding to that of "trimmer," chosen by Lord Halifax. For, although we were accustomed, in the days of the slavery contest, to reject the very idea of compromise, because a great moral principle was at stake, yet when there is no such principle involved, but the issue is one of *policy*, compromise is of the very essence of statesmanship. It was the misfortune of our country at that juncture that the question was not one of pure policy, but at bottom a question of public morality, which did not properly admit of compromise. It was impossible for Clay or even Webster to understand this; and so we had the melancholy spectacle of the greatest statesman, applying the most unquestionable rules of statesmanship, forced into fatal conflict with a strong and earnest sentiment of right. There is, no doubt, a danger in the compromise temper, not only when, as in this case, it is brought to bear upon questions which do not admit of compromise; and this danger is painfully apparent in Mr. Clay's attitude, even early in his career. One of the best passages in the book describes his vacillation or uncertainty of purpose in relation to the Missouri question (vol. i, p. 181):

"Clay's conduct with regard to the slavery question appears singularly inconsistent. It is impossible to believe that his condemnations of the system of slavery and his professions of hope that it would be extinguished were insincere. His feeling in this respect would occasionally burst out in an unpremeditated, unstudied, and unguarded way, as when, at this same period, while the Missouri struggle was going on in all its fury, he complimented the new South American republics for having emancipated their slaves. But the same man would advocate 'with great force' and 'in a speech of considerable length,' a bill to facilitate the catching of 'fugitives from justice and persons escaping from the service of their masters.' He would, in the Missouri struggle, 'go with his section' in doing what could be done at the time to secure the foothold of slavery in new States, and thus to facilitate the growth of its power. It is a remarkable circumstance, at the same time, that none of the speeches he made on the pro-slavery side, although they were mentioned in the record of the debaters, were reported, even in short outline. Did he suppress them? Did he dislike to see such arguments in print coupled with his name? We do not know. We shall find more such puzzles in his career."

Clay's course in his last great compromise is described with sympathy, although his policy itself is condemned (vol. ii, p. 356):

"There was no longer any vulgar ambition disturbing him. The old man felt that his endeavors must find their reward in themselves. 'I am here,' he said, 'expecting soon to go hence, and owing no responsibility but to my own conscience and to God.' Neither had he approached the problem to be solved with his old dictatorial spirit. Time and again he had assured the Senate that he was not wedded to any plan of his own, and that he would be most grateful for the suggestion of measures more promising than those proposed by him as to the pacification of the country. He had sacrificed the Wilmot Proviso, the adoption of which would have accorded best with his natural impulses. He had made concession after concession to the defenders of slavery, much against his sympathies."

Of the compromise Mr. Schurz says (p. 371):

"One effect it produced which Calhoun had already predicted when he warned the slaveholding States against compromises as an invention of the enemy: it adjourned the decisive conflict until the superiority of the North over the South in population and material resources was overwhelming, and, as it happened, until a party, and at its head a man, held the helm of affairs, whose anti-slavery principles and aims made it sure that the cause of the mischief would not in any form survive the issue of the struggle."

Mr. Schurz had already said (p. 338):

"From the pro-slavery point of view, Calhoun was unquestionably right. The slaveholding States would have been more able to hold their own in 1820 than in 1850, and more in 1850 than they proved to be in 1861."

We do not know of any book of like compass so well suited as this to give young Americans a knowledge of the history of their country during those stirring years—at once accurate, graphic, and pervaded with a strong moral sense. It is only a pity the story does not come down ten years later.

A History of the Baptists: Traced by their Vital Principles and Practices, from the Time of Our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ to the year 1886. By Thomas Armitage, D.D., LL.D. With an Introduction by J. L. M. Curry, D.D., LL.D., American Minister to Spain. Illustrated by 175 engravings. New York: Bryan, Taylor & Co. 1887. Pp. xviii, 978.

THE preface assures us that this work was "not written on the current methods of ecclesiastical history." The method actually followed would seem to be that of the Parisian chronicler who adopted as the motto of one of his works, "This I allude to lest anything should be left unsaid." We have here a system of theology properly to be described, after the style of a seminary endowment, as "both didactical and polemical"; a treatise on Christian antiquities; a history of the Church for nineteen centuries, with generous slices of secular history thrown in; a dictionary of Christian biography; and an ample store of Baptist statistics, ecclesiastical, educational, literary, and missionary. Really, considering the immense range of treatment demanded of him by his publishers, Dr. Armitage's thousand pages are a surprisingly little room to contain such infinite riches. The general reader may, indeed, complain of the sermonic leisurelness of the style in many chapters, and of the somewhat alarming tendency to bring in extraneous matter (thus Milton, "whether a Baptist or not"—*i. e.*, though not a Baptist—"demands our notice," to the extent of eight pages); but he should remember that not for him but for the denominational reader and the denominational book agent was the 'History' written.

Happily for ourselves, we are absolved from dealing with the controversial parts of the book. We may express, however, our admiration for the thorough way in which the author's adversaries are left, in every case, with not a leg to stand on; though they will be moved, we fear, to something like mirth at his intrepid handling of the Callixtine frescoes and the Ravenna mosaic, and will be tempted to call his allusions to the baptismal regulations of the "Teaching" slighting, to say the least. The Baptist theory of the church, as stated by Dr. Armitage, is that a perfect model was given in the first century, after which the church is always exactly to be

formed. "At the close of the first century, Christianity stands in its ideal beauty, fresh from Christ, . . . and in the pure mould which inspired apostles had formed, without one defect from the touch of human governments" (p. 148). This seems to us to be decidedly an "ideal" rendering of history. The perfect model is not to be found in the first century; if it were, it could not be recovered; if it could, it had best not be. The commoner Protestant theory, which admits great changes since the apostolic church, has a juster historic sense.

We are glad to bear testimony to the patient industry and research displayed by Dr. Armitage. His authorities, if not numerous, are of the best. Especially fresh and valuable are his chapters on the German and Welsh Baptists. On the colonial period he is full and able. The chapter on foreign missions is disappointingly meagre. The author's faculty for minute inquiry and ingenious hypothesis is well exhibited in the long effort to prove, in the face of an authentic and apparently decisive parish record, that Bunyan did not have his infant son baptized. We should think the glowing praise which he bestows upon some of his living denominational associates in shocking taste, did we not remember that, such is the standard of ministerial courtesy, they would have considered it shocking taste in him if he had pursued any other course.

Due North, or Glimpses of Scandinavia and Russia. By Maturin M. Ballou. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 1887.

MR. BALLOU takes us in a single sentence to Copenhagen, and there his observations begin. From the Danish capital he goes to "Gottenburg," then up the Norway coast to Christiania, Bergen, Throndhjem, Hammerfest, and the North Cape, "which," we are informed, "was the objective point to reach which we had voyaged thousands of miles from another hemisphere." Returning from the Cape to Christiania, he travels across the country to Stockholm, whence, in due time, a Baltic steamer carries him to St. Petersburg. From there he goes to Moscow and Nizhni-Novgorod, and returns thence to Warsaw. With Warsaw the book ends.

The volume consists simply of a flying tourist's observations and impressions, and is for the most part the plain, unvarnished tale of a sensible and experienced traveller. Only now and then is there an attempt at humor or a bit of more ambitious description. Such a book is very properly called "Glimpses," and its only merit lies in the faithfulness with which the traveller describes what he saw with his own eyes and the impression it made upon him. As long as Mr. Ballou sticks to this simple rôle he is interesting and readable; but where, as often happens, he introduces criticism, erudition, or philosophical reflections, then the traces of haste and of superficial knowledge are pretty sure to show themselves. It is, in fact, a weakness of his to express himself freely about matters which he knows little about, and has not the time or the disposition to look up. To this damaging count we must add another, namely, a habit of basing important statements upon guesswork, hearsay, or perhaps the authority of some untrustworthy guide-book. One or two illustrations will show what our author is capable of in these directions:

On page 17 we read, "The Danish language is a modified form of the Old Gothic which prevailed in the earliest historic ages."

Page 372: "The Polish language as spoken by the people of Warsaw is indeed a puzzle to the stranger, being a sort of Slavic-Indo-European tongue."

On page 181, speaking of Linnæus and Swedenborg, Mr. Ballou observes: "The latter graduated at the famous University of Upsala, the former in the greater school of outdoor Nature." Again of Linnæus, page 188: "This humble shoemaker by force of his genius alone rose to be a prince in the kingdom of science." Linnæus was never a shoemaker; he studied at Lund and Upsala, and took his degree at Harderwyk in the Lowlands.

Page 188: "Among the latter [*i. e.*, the important manuscripts in the University library at Upsala] is a copy of the four Gospels, with movable silver letters placed on parchment at the chapter heads, the whole being in the Old Gothic language. This book, named 'Codex Argenteus,' contains nearly two hundred folios, and was made by Bishop Ulphilas one thousand years before Gutenberg was born." Mr. Ballou is possibly not aware that these are the two funniest sentences in his book. They would deserve a place in some future treatise upon "Sight-Seeing as She is Done."

Speaking of the National Museum at Stockholm, our author says (p. 183): "As regards the curiosities collected here, they are in no way remarkable, being much like those of other collections." Mr. Ballou seems to have been in an unpropitious mood for museums that day, else why such language concerning one of the finest ethnological collections in the world? Even the calm Baedeker draws especial attention to it through his familiar machinery of double asterisks, and adds: "An Vollständigkeit und Zweckmässigkeit der Anordnung sucht das Museum seines Gleichen."

On page 114 we read concerning the University of Lund: "The number of students attached thereto we could not learn, but we saw them in goodly numbers, living in separate lodgings about the town, and only coming together at the period of recitations and public lectures. The system of instruction here is unique; enough was learned to satisfy one of that, but the details were not clearly defined." One would think that information so vacuous as this would hardly have been thought worth printing; but there is not a little such matter in the volume.

On page 174 it is observed that the Royal Library at Stockholm "is said to be a very choice collection of books in all modern languages, . . . and contains a hundred thousand bound volumes." A quarter of a million is the correct figure.

On page 265 we are told that the Russian Empire embraces nearly two-thirds of the earth's surface, and covers an area of eighty million square miles; which sounds as if our tourist had fallen into the hands of a committee engaged in "booming" the Russian Empire.

Of literary criticism we get but little in these pages, but the following gem is to be found on page 249: "The modern school of Russian romance writers is not founded upon the vicious French standard, but rather upon the best English; not upon that of Balzac and Dumas, but upon Thackeray and George Eliot."

To sum up: Mr. Ballou can tell a fairly interesting story of personal observations and experiences, but he is not a writer to pin one's faith to in matters of solid information.

Dante. A Sketch of his Life and Works. By May Alden Ward. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1887.

A LIFE of Dante which should not attempt too much has been a desideratum of our libraries, and the present unpretentious but sufficient work fills the empty place very acceptably. It is not too long, and does not enter into the vexed questions of Dante's biography, or try to be a commentary on his poems or even an abstract of his times. It gives a view of the state of parties in Florence when Dante was born, and the subsequent history of politics so far as they concerned him, without confusion and without any romancing sentiment. The author then follows his wanderings, keeping within the ascertained limits of fact, and not weaving problems and hypotheses by the way; in short, she picks out the certainties, and so simplifies the story. Italy, the Popes, and the nobles of the cities are described and given their place in the scenes; but all this is made to appear, just what it is, the historic background of Dante as a man and poet. The result is such an unconfused outline biography as is needed—one sufficient for the ordinary student at the start and capable of indefinite filling in.

When the subject of the works of Dante is reached, the same moderation is practised. The order of them in time, their topics, and their relation to contemporary culture and belief, are treated of simply and directly, but they are not analyzed or mystified or modernized for hasty readers without the preparation necessary to apprehend their meaning; and when the 'Divine Comedy' takes its turn, it is told over in prose only as a journey, as a mere narrative of fact, but in such a way as greatly to facilitate the passage of one desirous of following the poet, but unused to such hard climbing and rough descents. This general view of the poem, in its primary meaning, is of real service to the uninitiated. We do not see how any one of ordinary ability and the patience needful to any study of the highest poetry, can fail to obtain a useful knowledge of Dante by the aid of this little work and the notes which accompany the ordinary translated texts. An annotated list of the most necessary books for thorough study of the poet is added at the end of the volume.

The Phillips Exeter Lectures. Lectures delivered before the Students of Phillips Exeter Academy, 1885–1886. By Presidents McCosh, Walker, Bartlett, Robinson, Porter, and Carter, and Rev. Drs. Hale and Brooks. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1887.

THESE are such lectures as educated people would desire their sons to hear. With the exception of that upon Socialism, by President Walker, which is already before the public, they are new, and they show what some of the chief educators of the time, in college and in the pulpit, think best worth saying to boys who are to enter life through the higher education; they are therefore adapted to a much wider audience than that of the Exeter Academy, and may be read with equal profit by all young men who are beginning at college or seeking to be students in more humble ways. Most of them deal, in one or another form, with the "ideal scholar," and set forth his aims, habits, means of work, etc., in language and with illustrations fitted to young hearers; but the scholastic ideal, as presented, is less hard and fast than might have been expected, though the common defence of Greek and the patronage extended to science as a new-comer are noticeable. The modern languages seem to have entirely passed the probationary stage. The moral element is pronounced, the gymnastic is not absent, and the religious is put forward kindly, temperately, and firmly, in a singularly simple and practical Christian spirit. The dominant idea, perhaps, of all, with the exception noted above, is that youth is a period for inspiration even more than for acquisition; and the aim of the speakers was to touch the boys' lives, and to show them how themselves to touch them, to "fine issues." Phillips Brooks alone drops the exhortatory method, and, in an excellent sermon on biography, teaches by example, and names books to be read. A body of young men is lucky that has such instruction; the mere presence and living voice of such men bears to the youthful

student a sense of intellectual comradeship of the most inspiring force.

Mineral Physiology and Physiography: a Second Series of Chemical and Geological Essays, with a General Introduction. By Thomas Sterry Hunt, M.A. 8vo, pp. xvii, 710. Boston: S. E. Cassino. 1886.

In this massive volume Dr. Hunt has brought together and emended some of his more important contributions to the literature of geology which have appeared since the publication of his 'Chemical and Geological Essays' in 1874. Although all the chapters in this book except the sixth have for some time been at the service of his fellow-students, geologists will find that they owe the author their thanks for the unity which is secured in this better form of presentation. The science of geology is not, like mathematics or chemistry, a distinct branch of learning. We ought, in fact, to speak of it in the plural, as the *sciences* of geology. In its problems nearly every method and instrument of research is demanded. The result is, that the advance of geology is not made along one line of march, but by many parallel lines, and these separate divisions do not move with much harmony. The first triumphs were won by the physical geologists; then the palæontologists had their measure of success. The students of the chemistry of the earth were long regarded as feeble allies, but now it seems that it is their turn to lead in discovery. They are winning the most from the unknown.

The first essay in this volume concerns the "nature of thought and language." It is an admirable and scholarly defence of the use which is made of the terms Physiology and Physiography in the title of the work. It is, in fact, a plea for a recognition in the terminology of our earth sciences of that unity which is confessed in the principles that guide our modern students of nature. The second brief essay is on the "order of the natural sciences," and proposes a classification of those branches of learning which is at once simple and comprehensive. In the third essay, on the "chemical and geological relations of the atmosphere," Dr. Hunt gives a most important extension to the work done by Berthier and Ebelmen on the decomposition of felspars and of protosilicates such as amphibole and olivine. Reviewing Ebelmen's data, he shows that the decay of enough felspar to form a layer of kaolen 500 metres in thickness over the whole earth would require an amount of carbonic dioxide equal to more than twenty-one times the weight of the present atmosphere of the earth. So, too, the limestone, the coal, and the other forms of fixed carbon in the rocks show that many thousand times the volume of the carbon in our atmosphere must have been taken from it and buried in the earth. It is obviously impossible that this amount of carbonic dioxide could ever at one time have existed in the air. The continued existence of *air*-breathing animals from a very remote period of the earth's history is, of itself, a complete disproof of this supposition.

Whence, then, came this supply of carbon to the atmosphere? how did it come in such a measured way that there was never either lack of it or an over-supply? The common notion of geologists is, that it is constantly returned to the air by volcanoes and other subterranean agents which disengage oxidised carbon. The author shows that this explanation is entirely insufficient, and proposes the hypothesis that the carbon, with other elements of our atmosphere, exists in space in a thinly diffused form, and is slowly but constantly gathered to the earth as it swings through space. This idea of the earth feeding on the diffused matter of space has suggested itself to many speculative physicists, yet Dr. Hunt is the first to show that it is not an idle fancy, but what seems to be the only explanation of the most puzzling fact with which geologists have to deal.

The body of this work naturally concerns the history of the crystalline rocks. More than two hundred pages are given to the problems connected with this part of the geological sciences. Many students will contend against the details of these chapters, but the unprejudiced inquirer will find in them the most suggestive considerations concerning this group of rocks which have been published. With a simple and seemingly irrefragable proposition the author clears the way for his inquiry: it is, that "the history of the origin of crystalline rocks is the history of the origin of the mineral species which compose them." In the development of his "crenitic hypotheses" we have what seems to the present writer the most satisfactory view of metamorphism which has yet been advanced. It combines the facts which were already in the possession of the science with a great amount of original investigation into a coherent and logical whole. In the essay on "A Natural System of Mineralogy," the author endeavors to show how far it is possible for us to institute a classification of minerals which shall be like in nature to that which we apply to organic species. It is an effort, in the light of modern science, to return to the discarded system of Werner and of his pupil, Mohs. It indicates a striking feature in all Dr. Hunt's work, viz., an effort toward the unification of our conception of nature. The success which has attended this endeavor will have to be determined by the patient criticism of those who are special students in the department of mineralogy. As applied to the group of silicates, to which, in the main, the essay is limited, the method appears to be successful; it brings together in natural groups a host of forms which are widely scattered in the classifications now in vogue. We shall await with great interest the system of mineralogy, based on the same principles, which the author is now preparing.

The later chapters of the book concern the pre-Cambrian rocks, serpentines, and the Taconic question. The essay on serpentines is of the most immediate value, as it conclusively shows that this group of rocks is normally if not invariably of aqueous origin. But it is impossible to do justice to the matter of these essays in a notice of this nature. They are full of the results of laborious research, and singularly rich in their references to the labors of others. Containing a great deal which is original, they necessarily contain much which is debatable—much that will be furiously debated. But even to the holders of entirely opposite views, they are sure to be suggestive of truth. The book is well made, and there is an admirable index to it.

Rapport sur les questions relatives à l'impôt sur le revenu. Par Yves Guyot. Paris: Guillaumin & Cie. 1887.

M. Guyot has republished as an octavo volume a report made by him at the request of the French Budget Commission on questions connected with proposals relating to the establishment of an income tax in France. Several chapters are devoted to descriptions of income and property taxes in the United States, Germany, Italy, Switzerland, and the United Kingdom. The author gives estimates, taken from the best sources available, of the comparative wealth of France, Great Britain, and the United States.

In France one great fiscal wrong is the inequality of the assessments of real property in the different departments. This is increased by the fact that the French land tax is not levied at the same rate on all property, but the proportion of the whole amount which is to be paid by each department is fixed by the central authority; the departments allot the quotas to be paid by the several communes, and the communal authorities apportion their quota among the individual taxpayers. The tax is, to use the French technical term, one of *répartition* and not of *quotité*. If it were the latter, each taxpayer would pay in proportion to his property; the rate of the tax would be fixed by the Government, instead of the amount to be raised from each department. The valuation on which this tax is levied is the net annual value, and was fixed unsystematically and imperfectly from fifty to seventy years ago; the value of real property has changed, but the original assessment is still in force. The result is, that some departments pay from six to eight times as much as others in proportion to their real annual value.

M. Guyot advocates a tax on the capital in place of on the annual value. There is, as he points out, a manifest injustice in taxing the same amount of capital at different rates, according to the mode in which it is invested. In France a capitalist might invest his money in building ots, or other land temporarily unproductive, but held for resale at a profit. The investment, yielding no income, would practically escape taxation. If the same sum were invested in safe securities yielding an income of three per cent., the tax would be levied on that income; while if placed in business where, though it might temporarily yield twelve per cent., the loss of the whole would be risked, the owner would pay four times as heavy a tax as in the previous case.

The same objections have been frequently urged against the income tax in England, but there a difficulty exists in the way of assessing the capital value of land, viz., that land is generally the subject of letting, and seldom of sale. In France, however, not only are there nearly a million sales of land each year, but on every devolution by inheritance the capital value of the land is officially registered. The ascertainment of the capital value of the entire country would be an easy matter, and such an assessment would be of more durable benefit than an official estimate of the annual value, which, necessarily varying from year to year, would be a much more fluctuating and uncertain basis for taxation than the selling value.

The reforms proposed by M. Guyot would increase the land tax in those departments which are undervalued; and he estimates that a revaluation for taxation would cost ten million dollars, and that it would take ten years to complete. He thinks the complaint by landowners of overtaxation generally is unfounded; but he would nevertheless relieve them in the interest of free-trade principles from the vexatious and heavy duties on transfers, which, with legal expenses, make the costs of sales amount to 10 per cent. of the price paid. This heavy impost prevents sales, and its removal should be supplemented by establishing a simple system of transfer on the record-of-title principle. These reforms, which involve equality of taxation and free trade in land, are, in M. Guyot's opinion, essential to the well-being of France, whose greatest wealth consists in her land. Fifty per cent. of the population are engaged in agriculture, and, without releasing them from their fair share of the public burdens, they should be placed in such circumstances as will permit land to pass into the possession of those who are most capable of working it to advantage.

This book, written by one of the ablest French economists, and a practical statesman, is well worth the attention of students of finance and politics.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, S. B. Ten of Us. Original Stories and Sketches. Boston: Laughton, Macdonald & Co.
A Lost Reputation: A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 15 cents.
Barbey d'Aurevilly, J. Les Œuvres et les Hommes: Sensations d'histoire. Paris: Frinzine; Boston: Schoenhof.
Bigelow, J. The Works of Benjamin Franklin. Vol. III. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $5.
Bolles, A. S. The Law relating to Banks and their Depositors and to Bank Collections. Homans Publishing Co.
Bryan, Mrs. Mary E. Munro's Star Recitations. George Munro. 25 cents.
De Gebhardt, C. Novum Testamentum Græce. Ex ultima Tischendorfii recensione. B. Westermann & Co. 95 cents.
Du Bolsgobey, F. Death or Dishonor. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. 25 cents.
Fillmore, J. C. New Lessons in Harmony. Philadelphia: Theodore Presser.
Grumbine, J. C. F. Evolution and Christianity. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co. 50 cents.
Hale, Gertrude Elisabeth. Little Flower-People. Boston: Ginn & Co. 50 cents.
Henry, Ch. Lettres inédites de Mlle. de Lespinasse. Paris: Deats; Boston: Schoenhof.
Howard, C. H. C. Life and Public Services of Gen. John Wolcott Phelps. Brattleboro, Vt.: Frank E. Housh & Co. 25 cents.
"Karl Kron." Ten Thousand Miles on a Bicycle. New York: Karl Kron, University Building. $2.
Lee, Yan Phou. When I Was a Boy in China. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.
Lefranc, F. Études sur le théâtre contemporain. Paris: A. Dupret; Boston: Schoenhof.
Lorenz, Otto. Catalogue général de la librairie française. T. x. (T. II. du Catalogue de 1876-1885.) 1er fasc. Iconographie-Pensées. Paris; Lorenz; Boston: Schoenhof.
Ludlow, J. M. The Captain of the Janizaries: A Story of the Times of Scanderbeg and the Fall of Constantinople. Funk & Wagnalls.
Maupassant, Guy de. Le Horla: Nouvelles. Paris: Ollendorff. New York: Christern.
McCosh, President J. The Motive Powers: Emotions, Conscience, Will. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50.
Mercer, L. P. The New Birth, with a Chapter on Mind Cure. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co. 50 cents.
Our Sovereign Lady. A Book for Her People. A. D. F. Randolph. 50 cents.
Polte, Lieut. S. C. F. Lawn Tennis as a Game of Skill. New ed. Charles Scribner's Sons. 75 cents.
Perey, Lucien. Histoire d'une grande dame au XVIIIe siècle. Paris: Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof.
Phin, J. Trade "Secrets" and Private Recipes. Industrial Publication Society.
Poe, E. A. The Poets and Poetry of America. Benjamin & Bell.
Porter, Mrs. M. J. Frankincense; or, The Bride of Clairemont. G. W. Dillingham.
Preliminary Report of the Commission Appointed by the University of Pennsylvania to Investigate Modern Spiritualism, in accordance with the Request of the late Henry Seybert. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
Proceedings of the Society for Psychical Research. Part xl. May, 1887. Trübner & Co. $1.
Ragozin, Z. A. The Story of Assyria. From the Rise of the Empire to the Fall of Nineveh. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Ramabai Sarasvati. The High Caste Hindoo Woman. Introduction by Rachel L. Bodley, Dean of Woman's Medical College of Pennsylvania. Philadelphia.
Reignolds-Winslow, Catherine Mary. Yesterdays with Actors. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. $2.
Roach, Rev. T. Elementary Trigonometry. Macmillan & Co. $1.10.
Sand, George. The Lilies of Florence. J. W. Lovell Co. 20 cents.
Scharf, J. T. History of the Confederate States Navy, from its Organization to the Surrender of its Last Vessel. Illustrated. Rogers & Sherwood. $4.50.
Scott, Sir W. Waverley Novels. Library ed. Vols. IX., X., and XI. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.75 per vol.
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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 541

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS 544

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:
Reform of our Jury System 546
A European Zollverein 546
Vacations in Churches 547
Col. Ingersoll's New England Mystery 548

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:
The First Pilgrimage to Caprera 548
Geffroy's 'Mme. de Maintenon.' 550

CORRESPONDENCE:
The French Finances 551
The Question of Church Union 552
An Important Element of Municipal Government 552
Senator Hoar or Citizen Hoar 552
The Fire at the Opéra Comique 553
American Ancestry 553

NOTES 553

REVIEWS:
Recent Railway Publications 556
British Power in India 556
Life and Services of Gen. John A. Logan 557
The First Nine Years of the Bank of England 558
Obiter Dicta 559
When I was a Boy in China 559
Greek Lessons 559

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 560

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 30, 1887.

The Week.

THE investigations made in Cincinnati respecting the failure of the Fidelity National Bank disclose the most graceless and brazen frauds that have come to light since James D. Fish gutted the Marine Bank in this city. Every variety of swindling was resorted to. Money was taken out of the bank to the amount of $1,000,000, and nothing put in its place but memorandum slips of paper, showing who had taken it. Bank stock was issued that was not authorized by law, and was sold or hypothecated for money to be used in the "wheat deal" at Chicago. False statements of the bank's condition were made and forwarded to Washington, under oath, of course. Such an accumulation of penalties under the National Banking Law has seldom been brought together. When we recall these penalties and the exemplary severity with which they are commonly enforced, we are moved to wonder why Harper, Baldwin, and Hopkins are not now in Canada instead of waiting for the action of the Grand Jury in Cincinnati. The only palliation discovered by their friends up to this time is, that the Chicago Board of Trade is to blame for altering its rules and making a greater quantity of wheat "regular" than they expected to be obliged to take. In other words, they went to Chicago not to corner wheat, but to corner storage room. What they ought to have bought was warehouses, not No. 2 spring. This is interesting, but it will not go far with a jury.

We have felt sure for some days past that it would be discovered by somebody that President Cleveland was in some manner to blame for the recent financial troubles. Our readers may remember that a hardware house in this city, which failed last year, ascribed their downfall to his nomination. As soon, they said, as his nomination began to be talked of even, the demand for steel springs began to fall off. People said they should use only very few steel springs until they saw whether he would run for the Presidency. When he was actually elected, of course, they ceased buying steel springs altogether, and down came the house. Now comes Senator Sherman and says: "The recent business troubles in Ohio are the possible forerunners of financial depression, for which he blames the inefficiency of President Cleveland's Administration." We quote this from a *Tribune* "special." What other cause could there be? When he came into power the speculators got together and said, "Now is the time for corners in wheat and coffee," and got permission from the Administration to get up one on a large scale in each article. At the same time Hopkins and Harper determined, if he approved, to rob the Fidelity Bank, and telegraphed to Washington to know whether any notice would be taken of a considerable bank robbery in connection with the corners. On receiving the laconic answer that "they were to go ahead," they plunged into crime, with the result we now witness.

A gallant effort has been made by Mr. Sherman, in an interview with a reporter of the Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette*, to reconcile his Nashville and Springfield speeches. He maintains that there was no inconsistency between them, because his Springfield speech was an "historical statement," while his Nashville speech was "made to persuade the people of the South that their material interests would be promoted by the policy of the Republican party." In other words, he was telling the Springfield people what a bad lot the Southerners were, but he was telling the Nashville people that there was money in the "Republican policy." He will not retract either speech now, because he says he always governs his conduct simply by "the rule of right," and cares little for "the rule of policy." In fact, he is apparently one of the simple sort known as "Plutarch's men."

It turns out that at the very time when Adjt.-Gen. Drum was organizing his scheme for a general return of the rebel flags, representatives of an Ohio and a Louisiana regiment were in correspondence with reference to the return of one banner. On the 28th of July, 1864, the Forty-sixth Ohio captured the flag of the Thirtieth Louisiana in front of Atlanta, and it was deposited in the Ohio State-house. The survivors of the Ohio regiment are to hold a reunion in August, and some time ago they decided to return the flag, provided the State authorities would surrender it to them. Accordingly a letter was sent to the Adjutant-General of Louisiana asking his assistance in reaching members of the regiment from that State, as it was desired to have some of them present at the reunion. In due time a committee of the Louisianians acknowledged the receipt of the communication, returned cordial thanks for the offer, and expressed the hope that the Ohio State authorities would allow the purpose to be carried out, as "such acts, accepted in the spirit of conciliation and good-fellowship in which they are meant, have done and are doing much to bring about that era of fraternity which all good citizens desire to see entertained by the people of all parts of our country." This last letter was written early in June, just before the recent outbreak on the flag question, and whether Gov. Foraker will now consent to "recognize the success of the rebellion" by giving his consent to the removal of the colors from the State-house, remains to be seen.

The death of Craig Tolliver of Rowan County, Kentucky, after having defied the Sheriff and the courts for many years, and taken some part in the murder of about thirty men, closes a very curious episode in social life. His final freak in getting himself elected justice of the peace, and then issuing warrants for his enemies, and inflicting capital punishment on them as soon as they were arrested, is surely one of the most grotesque incidents of Western politics. But Tolliver was a product of the period before the war, and of a kind of civilization which has been disappearing since the war. He could not have existed in any community which had got out of the barbarous stage, in which physical courage is considered by far the highest of virtues, and in fact a sufficient substitute for most others.

Attention has been directed lately to the increasing amount of silver certificates outstanding, about $139,000,000 at the present time, and the silver men have improved the occasion to say that all the predictions of disaster to result from continued silver coinage have been falsified, since no disaster whatever has resulted. It is not considered a disaster to have accumulated nearly $80,000,000 of unused silver dollars over and above the amount of certificates outstanding; but the fact that it is not such must be attributed to the wealth of the country, to its ability to "carry" the stuff without feeling the burden. The carrying capacity of the country is much greater than any strain that has been put upon it yet. Nobody anticipated, when the Silver-Coinage Act was passed, that national-bank notes to the amount of more than $100,000,000 would be speedily retired through the payment of the public debt, and that another large vacuum in the circulation would be made by the cancellation of the one and two-dollar greenbacks. The space filled by both these disappearing elements has been taken principally by silver certificates, these being the only kind of new paper circulation of denominations under $20 available. For amounts of $20 and over, gold certificates have been equally available with silver, and have been taken out to answer the purpose of settling bank balances and for the larger requirements of commerce.

It must be admitted that the effects of the Silver Coinage Act, where so many unknown elements entered into the problem, were of a kind that could not be accurately foretold. If the fears of its opponents have not been realized, those of the bimetallists have been likewise falsified. The latter predicted dire calamities to the civilized world if gold should remain the single standard of value. Gold has remained the single standard both in Europe and in the United States. Not one step has been taken towards bimetallism in any country, nor is there now the smallest probability that any will be taken. Yet commerce and society have advanced with no less prosperous strides since 1873, when the German demonetization, which was for all practical purposes the European demonetization, of silver took place. So far as predictions go, there is nothing to be claimed in favor of the bimetallists, or of the silver men, pure and simple, who have not ranged themselves with the bimetallists. Some things, however, have been proved by the course of events. One is, that any silver coined under our law not wanted for trade purposes will pile itself up in the Treasury a dead weight, constituting an abstraction of so much capi-

tal from the business of the country. Another is, that any vacuum happening in the circulation by reason of the withdrawal of older forms of currency, or through the settlement and cultivation of new territory, or in any other way, will be filled for the most part by silver certificates. Still another, and the most important of all, is, that an excess of silver coinage does not change the standard of value from gold to silver, has not yet done so, and does not show any sign that it will do so hereafter.

A well-known banking firm in Wall Street have issued a circular recommending the policy of bond purchases by the Treasury as the most economical means of getting rid of the surplus, and relieving any stringency in the money market caused by the excess of revenue over current expenditures. The circular assumes, and rightly, too, that if a 4½ per cent. bond, having still four and a quarter years to run, is bought, there is a saving of 6 per cent. to the Government, even though a premium of 13⅛ per cent. is paid for it. The same rule holds good as to the 4 per cents, which have twenty years to run. There is a much greater saving in that case. In fact, the Government could afford to pay a much higher premium than the 4's sell for and still save money by the operation, and this for the reason that the Government, unlike an individual, has no other use for its surplus money than to pay its debts. A business man who has a debt falling due some years hence, can invest his funds in many ways so as to make interest equal to the interest he must pay. The Government can do nothing of the kind. Its total liability on a 4 per cent. bond is the par value of the bond plus 4 per cent. for twenty years, *i. e.*, 80 per cent. Each $100 of that class of indebtedness calls for $180. This is the bill that the taxpayers have to foot, and the question is whether they had best foot it now by paying say $130, or let it drag along and pay $180 eventually. This raises the question whether the interest money (the $80) will "fructify in the pockets of the people" during the twenty years, if left there instead of being taken in the form of taxes to cancel the debt in advance of its maturity. The opinion of the wisest thinkers on this subject is that the best and surest fructification of interest on the public debt is attained by paying the principal as soon as practicable, and stopping the interest altogether.

The *Financial Chronicle*, on the other hand, holds that although the purchase of bonds at a premium is authorized by law, and therefore the Secretary of the Treasury would be protected in buying "at rates not exceeding that of the current market," yet the law was passed at a time and under circumstances so different from the present that it would be imprudent for the Secretary to resort to that power except under very great stress; and that it will be much wiser to wait until Congress shall have had opportunity to pronounce upon the question in the light of existing facts, using meanwhile other and undoubted means for getting rid of the surplus—as, for instance, paying interest in advance for a whole year if need be. We think that the *Chronicle's* advice is most judicious. It would be highly inexpedient, in a political sense, to buy bonds at a premium in the short interval that remains before the meeting of Congress. It is impossible to say what view the public would take of such purchases. It is certain that if the Secretary were to appear in the market as a buyer, the premium would advance. The bond market is virtually cornered. The amount outstanding is a fixed quantity. Any large and regular buyer whose wants were known would find the price rising upon him at a rate quite irrespective of the value of money. The article would acquire a scarcity value, and the charge would be made that the Government's policy had been adopted to put money into the pockets of the bondholders and bond brokers—a charge that it would be as impossible to refute as it is to prove a negative. We should therefore concur decidedly with the *Chronicle* in the opinion that, pending the decision of Congress, almost any course would be preferable to bond purchases by the Treasury.

The bricklayers' strike in Chicago, which was simply a continuation or extension of the carpenters' and hod-carriers' strike, and began on the 30th of April, has proved a dead failure, and been declared "off." The master-masons met the strike by the formation of a union of their own, and the publication of a set of "principles" to which all men employed by them hereafter would have to be bound, and which would have the effect of freeing them from the interference of the trades-union in the management of their business. The members of the Union have not given in their adhesion to the principles, but they have formally abandoned the strike and left every man free to do as he pleases about obtaining work. It is calculated that the three strikes which have in succession lasted since April 4, have caused a loss in wages of nearly $2,500,000, besides the transfer of much capital from Chicago to other cities.

We presume it would be no exaggeration to put down the total loss to laborers alone caused by the strikes of the last year and a half in various parts of the country at $10,000,000. They were for the most part due to the extravagant expectations excited among workingmen all over the country by the appearance of Powderly on the scene with his organization of "Knights." The organization had been in existence several years, but it received a sudden extension in 1885, and obtained great publicity by the promise it seemed to hold out to the laboring classes of a new weapon in the shape of a "general strike"—that is, a strike of all trades, or of several, in sympathy with each one. This literally made the Master Workman and the Walking Delegates drunk with the pride of power. It seemed to them as if they had only to snap their fingers to bring the whole community to its knees by a general suspension of trade and traffic. Many of the clergy and professors, too, in various parts of the country were panic-stricken, and began to shout to "Society" and the capitalists that their hour had come, and that they must run for shelter. We then had the Southwestern railroad strike, and the street-railroad strikes, the 'longshoremen's and coalheavers' strikes in rapid succession in and around this city. They all ended in the same way — that is, in immense loss to all concerned. But probably the Powderly bubble could not have been pricked at less cost. Nothing is more certain than that no community can have in its midst a great mass of ignorance and credulity without paying for it smartly in cash.

It is not clear just how much the "revolution" which has been brought about in the management of District Assembly 49 will change the methods of that curious body of Labor. Quinn, the leader in the Old Dominion and other strikes, has been deposed, and Dunn, the leader in the silversmiths' strike, reigns in his stead. Both men are about as unworthy specimens of the free American workingman as could be found anywhere. Dunn is by trade an engineer, but he has done no labor with his hands since he became an active Knight and an arbitrator. He confessed upon the witness stand, in the silversmith inquiry, that it was his custom to lie freely in the cause of Labor, and to advise every other Knight to do the same. His theory of the boycott, also frankly avowed, was to use it as a means of levying blackmail upon employers. He and Quinn were unable to get along together because of the unwillingness of each to yield to the other's orders. It is said by many that Quinn and his associates have made free use of the Assembly's funds, and if Dunn's triumph enables the truth upon this point to be revealed, there will be one good result of his election.

The Anti-Poverty Society has now got so far on in its work of abolishing poverty that it takes up two collections at its weekly meetings. When the baskets had been passed on Sunday night and the receipts counted, Mr. George announced that there was not enough to pay "current expenses," and the baskets were sent through the audience again. Whether "current expenses" were satisfied at the second round, we are not informed. As the Society advances in its work, we presume the number of collections will increase until each poverty abolisher is asked to empty his pockets as he leaves the hall. While this process may abolish the poverty of those who are incurring the "current expenses," it is difficult to see how the humble members of the Society, who have paid their initiatory dollar as the cost of having their poverty removed, are getting ahead. Their enthusiasm at the weekly meetings is said to be as tremendous as ever, but the constantly growing number of collections must inevitably damp it sooner or later.

"Poor old Uncle Jake Sharp," as he called himself in one of his numerous sojourns at Al-

bany, is in a querulous state in reference to his imprisonment in Ludlow Street Jail, and has written a letter to the newspapers on the subject. It is certainly a time calling for the exercise of philosophy, and it happens that philosophy supplies an example and a precept which fit the case of any innocent man unjustly locked up in prison. When Socrates was incarcerated on false charges, his friends urged him to break jail and clear out, but the old man gently chided them for their advice, and improved the occasion to give a discourse on the theory and uses of government. When we entered into the social state, he said, we agreed to obey the laws. Disobedience of the laws is a bad thing. Whether it is a bad thing for me to be in jail, or even to drink hemlock, are matters of doubt and uncertainty, but it is no matter of doubt and uncertainty that jail-breaking is wrong. Shall we do what we know to be wrong in order to avoid something that we have no positive opinion about, one way or the other? There are many other things that Mr. Sharp may find in this case of false imprisonment that may strengthen an innocent man even while riding in the Sheriff's carriage to and from Ludlow Street.

As Sharp's testimony before the Senate Committee has now been admitted as evidence, it is not improper to recall some of the answers which he made to the repeated attempts of Mr. Conkling and others to ascertain what he did with his bonds and money. The total amount which he said he "diffused generally" during the period in question was $2,500,000 in bonds and $500,000 in money. He was unable to remember what he did with $239,000 worth of bonds and $875,000 in money, derived mainly from the sale of bonds. He had made no entries upon the stubs of his check-book for twenty years. He had drawn checks for $74,000, $155,000, $260,000, $65,000, and other such sums, all in one day, and he was totally unable to remember to whom they were made payable. When Mr. Conkling asked, "You diffuse your checks generally?" Sharp replied, "Yes, that is the true statement of the way that I have done this thing for years and years." When Mr. Conkling asked to whom he diffused them, Sharp's answer was, "I don't know; look at that check-book," the book in question consisting entirely of blank stubs. When Mr. Conkling said, "I don't believe I shall ever know what you did with the checks," Sharp replied, "I don't believe you ever will either." At another time he said, "It seems to me that this Committee is entirely out of its sphere in trying to see whether the Aldermen were bribed." In regard to Moloney, when he was asked if he knew him, Sharp replied, in answer to a series of questions, "Billy Moloney? Yes, I know him. I've known him for years. I have met him at the office of Scribner & Bright. I can't say how many times. I don't know how he came or how he went. I may have seen him there ten times."

Governor Hill's disposal of the remainder of the bills left in his hands is, like his action in most things, a mixture of bad and good. His approval of the Subway Bill, we think, gives general satisfaction, as its failure would have postponed indefinitely the putting of the wires under ground, and would have involved the city in protracted litigation. The bill is the one agreed on by all parties as suitable and safe early in the spring, except that the Comptroller and Commissioner of Public Works have been excluded from the Commission, and only the Mayor left on it to represent the city. This is very unfortunate, but what better could one expect from such a body as the late Legislature? and what likelihood was there of doing any better next year? As long as we are under Albany rule, most city improvements will have to be made with unsatisfactory machinery. It is to be presumed that the work of the Commission will now be promptly done, and Mayor Hewitt has the power, at all events, of sounding the alarm if anything goes wrong.

The Governor has made the bicyclists happy by signing their bill forbidding the Park Commission to discriminate against them, and they offer to minimize the evil by coöperating with the Commission in drawing up new rules. Unhappily, however, the public did not intend and does not wish the bicyclists, respectable as they may be, to take a share in the government of the parks, which is apparently what they think this Bill enables them to do. It wishes park rules to be drawn by Park Commissioners, and to be such as commend themselves to the judgment, not of wheelmen, but of municipal officers. The force of this objection to this legislation we think the wheelmen do not yet fully appreciate. The Bill is another blow struck at municipal independence by a body of incompetent and corrupt country legislators, and all we get in compensation for it is the admission of a few score of young men on wheels to the east drive. The vetoing of the zoölogical garden scheme is a public service; that of the National Guard parade-ground was a foregone conclusion. Gov. Hill has signed the bill giving the taxes back to the insurance companies, but without giving reasons, and his silence, we think, was, on the whole, judicious. The bill is one of those things which may possibly be justifiable, but which would take enormous talent and endless pains to justify.

The Governor has, in his memorandum attached to the Five-Gallon Bill, furnished a number of points which will be very useful to those who draft anti-liquor legislation next winter, and we trust they will make a note of them and act on them, whether their aim be to put him in "a hole" or restrict the liquor traffic. He advocates local option in its broadest sense, with regard both to the sale of liquors in bulk and at retail; the payment of all liquor-license fees or taxes into the local treasuries; the fixing of the minimum license fee by the Legislature, and the maximum by the local authorities. It does not appear from this why he objected to the High-License Bill, because if the Legislature is competent to fix the minimum, it is competent to fix the maximum, or if the judgment of the local authorities is good enough for one, it is good enough for the other. One of his objections to the Crosby bill was that it made the fee higher for some places than for others. But why not, if the Legislature knows what the lowest fee ought to be for all places?

The persistence of the belief that anybody can draw as a lecturer in this country was curiously illustrated by the attempt of the English "Claimant" to make a living on the platform a year or two ago. The man, Tanner, who fasted forty days tried it, with no better success. Sergeant Ballantyne tried it also, and was astounded by the smallness of his audiences, and intimated freely that somebody had lied to him grossly about the American appetite for this species of entertainment. Some of the noted robbers of the West have also figured on the platform with more or less attractiveness. It is, in fact, a great resource of everybody who has for any reason become notorious and is "down on his luck." The latest candidate for public attention in this field is Cutting, the Texan editor whom the Mexicans locked up. He is here, it is said, ready to lecture, with stereoptical views of his "dungeon." If he makes money, he is to go back to El Paso, start his paper again, and make the Mexicans howl. The dungeon appears to be chiefly remarkable for having contained Cutting for two months. One view will hardly illustrate it sufficiently, and we presume the pictures will show Cutting in it at various periods of the day.

Nothing probably does so much to damage the Irish cause abroad as the way its defenders thrust it on the attention of indifferent bystanders. Nothing can be more ill-advised and better calculated to excite hostility and disgust than attempts to compel Americans to take sides in it, whether they wish to or not, on their own soil. Nothing has done more to alienate or repel public sympathy with Irish wrongs in this country. It is as ridiculous to insist on people's sympathizing with you as to insist on their loving you. It was, therefore, most injudicious, as well as absurd, for some Irishmen in this city to raise a row in 1883 because the Brooklyn Bridge was opened on the Queen's birthday. It was absurd, too, besides being criminal, to get up a riot in Boston because Englishmen were allowed to hire Faneuil Hall to celebrate the Queen's jubilee. Such things make the very name of everything Irish, including home rule, detestable in the ears of tens of thousands of Americans. How can people expect to be considered rational and fit for any kind of rule who expect all mankind to hate Queen Victoria and the British nation because a large body of Irishmen hate them? Of course every American who is bothered in this way, asks himself what have Irishmen done for him that he should groan over their woes or help to do their cursing. It seems sometimes as if there was nothing the Irish cause needed so much on this side of the water as common sense, because from common sense comes a reasonable regard for the comfort and convenience of one's neighbors.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, June 22, to TUESDAY, June 28, 1887, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND has accepted the dedication to him of the eulogy on Henry Ward Beecher by the Rev. Dr. Parker of London. In his letter the President wrote of Mr. Beecher as "my loved and honored friend."

Near Bluff City, Utah, a party of five Navajo Indians recently went to the trading post of A. M. Barton and murdered him with great cruelty. For six months a band of desperadoes near Albuquerque, N. M., have murdered police officers, wrecked trains, broken into houses, and stolen horses; and the citizens have organized a vigilance committee to rid the country of them.

Gen. Miles sent a despatch from San Carlos, Ariz., June 26, saying that the hostile Apaches had been driven back to the reservation, that they had surrendered, and that he had instituted an investigation, and detailed a general court-martial for the trial of the three guilty of military offences, "thus ending the present disturbances."

Up to June 28 forty-three cases of yellow fever had been reported at Key West, Fla., and nineteen patients had died.

Five thousand acres of grain and garden crops have been destroyed by grasshoppers near Pernam, Minn.

The steel stern-post for the United States cruiser *Charleston* was successfully cast at San Francisco June 22. It is twenty-two feet long on the keel with an upright of twenty feet, and weighs more than 15,000 pounds.

The transpacific steamship line from Vancouver has caused a reduction in fares from San Francisco to Hong-Kong and Yokohama to $200. Round trip passage is sold for $350.

Gov. Hill of this State has signed a bill prohibiting the sale of liquors in quantities of five gallons or upwards in those cities, towns, or villages wherein the local authorities do not grant a single retail license, and a bill requiring the licensing and registering of physicians, and he has vetoed a bill to tax "bucket-shops."

The General Term of the Supreme Court in New York has rendered a decision reversing the recent decision of a lower court, whereby it was declared unlawful for hotel keepers in this city to serve wine to their guests on Sunday.

At a public meeting at Rochester, N. Y., June 27, it was resolved to have the city rid of a number of Italians who live in such squalor as to endanger the public health.

Foreign laborers employed by building contractors at Rochester struck June 27, and became so riotous that one was fatally wounded by the police. On June 28, the three large cotton mills at Manville, R. I., were shut down on account of a strike by the weavers, and 2,000 persons were thrown out of employment.

In the trial of Jacob Sharp in this city for bribing Aldermen in 1884 to grant him the Broadway Railroad franchise, the time was consumed until Monday by the prosecution; then the defence was begun. Because of a suspicion that the prisoner might try to make his escape, he has been confined in jail.

The failure of the Fidelity Bank at Cincinnati, in consequence of the recent wheat panic in Chicago, led to the discovery that its business was improperly conducted. Its officers have been arrested, charged with conspiracy to defraud and with transmitting to the Comptroller of the Currency a false and fraudulent report of the bank's condition.

Mr. John R. Buchtel, the founder of the college at Akron, O., that bears his name, has given $175,000 to its endowment fund. He had previously given $125,000.

The last Indiana Legislature made an appropriation to enclose the Tippecanoe battle-ground, where the Prophet and his Indian horde were defeated by Gen. William H. Harrison in 1811, and the Commissioners of Tippecanoe County have ordered the work to be done under their supervision.

The Bricklayers' Union of Chicago on June 23 withdrew the demand for a Saturday pay-day, and declared the long strike ended. As a result of this fruitless strike, miners were idle in Pennsylvania, sawmills and their operatives in Michigan and Wisconsin, and thousands of men thrown out of work in the stone quarries; the pressed-brick trade was affected all over the United States; thousands of dollars were lost to the railroad companies, and every branch of manufacture identified in any way with the building trades suffered directly. An estimate of the loss in wages to striking and locked-out employees in the vicinity of Chicago is $2,500,000.

The Rev. Dr. McGlynn, the deposed priest who is lecturing for the advancement of the doctrine of the communal ownership of land, declared at Chicago, June 27, that he intended to join the Knights of Labor, and to give what time he could to the building up of that organization.

On July 26 a fire in the stockyards at Chicago caused a loss of more than $800,000, and many hogs were burned to death.

The whole town of Marshfield, Wis., was burned June 27; 2,000 people were made homeless, and the loss of property was not less than $3,000,000. A locomotive spark started the fire in a lumber-yard. A large part of the mining town of Hurley, Wis., was burned June 28. The loss is about $80,000.

A boat that was going to rescue the passengers of the steamer *Champlain*, which was burned off Charlevoix, Mich., a few days ago, met a woman swimming shoreward with a child which she held by its clothing in her teeth. When the captain of the rescuing boat offered to take her on board she told him to hurry to the others, as she could take care of herself. She reached the shore in safety, and when another of the shipwrecked passengers was taken from the boat in an almost frozen condition, she took off her flannel underskirt and wrapped it around him. Her name is Miss Mary Wakefield, and she lives at Charlevoix.

Charles W. Owens, Isaiah Waters, John Brandau, John B. Sanner, and William J. Byrne, in Baltimore, were sentenced June 27, each to two years' imprisonment, and James H. Hamlin to two years in jail and to pay a fine of $1,000, having been convicted of fraud in the last municipal election. They were clerks and judges of election.

Natural gas has been discovered at Fort Scott, Kan., which flows in sufficient volume for use as fuel in manufacturing establishments. The recent discovery of gas at Paola, Kan., was made the occasion of a popular celebration on June 28.

While boring an artesian well near Fort Worth, Tex., June 24, men struck petroleum at a depth of 240 feet.

A severe wind storm in Gregg County, Tex., on Sunday night killed five men, one woman, and two children, and did much damage to property.

At Morehead, Rowan County, Kentucky, May 22, a sheriff's posse shot to death the outlaw and murderer, Craig Tolliver, and his two brothers, Jay and Budd Tolliver. Three weeks ago Tolliver, who had had himself elected a justice of the peace, issued warrants for two brothers, W. H. and John B. Logan, members of the opposing faction, placed the young men under arrest, and had them shot. These were the last of the long series of murders that were caused by the "feud," and there had for three years been an intermittent war in Rowan County. When the posse surrounded the town a battle ensued, but only one of the attacking party was injured.

The Knights of Labor have approved the new Constitution which was submitted to the subordinate assemblies by the general officers. One new provision is, that "no local or other assembly or member shall directly or indirectly give, sell, or have any ale, beer, or intoxicating liquors of any kind, at any meeting, party, sociable, ball, picnic, or entertainment whatever appertaining to the order." Any member found guilty of violating this clause shall be suspended not less than six months, or expelled. The section on coöperation provides for the creation and disbursement of a fund to aid coöperative enterprises. Each local assembly is required to collect and deposit not less than two cents per month for every member in good standing. The money is to be invested by the Coöperative Board, and profits are to be divided equally between the General Assembly, the coöperative fund, and the workmen who create the profit.

Caveats have been filed at Washington on an instrument whereby it is said a manuscript can be duplicated instantaneously several hundred miles away. It is called the graphophone, and a graphophone company has been organized under the laws of West Virginia.

This has been commencement week at most of the foremost colleges, and there have been a number of semi-centennial celebrations—one of the graduating class of '37 at Yale, another of the Alpha Delta Phi Fraternity at Amherst, and another of the founding of the University of Michigan. Six young women were graduated from the Harvard Annex, which during the year has had seventy-five students.

In the Eastern Yacht Club regatta, off Marblehead, Mass., June 22, the *Mayflower* crossed the line nearly seventeen minutes ahead of the *Galatea*.

The Yale University crew won the race at New London, Conn., June 24, over the University of Pennsylvania crew by four lengths. Harvard won the boat-race at New London June 27, over Columbia. Time—Harvard 20:15, Columbia 20:25.

The Boston *Daily Advertiser* has been sold. Under the new ownership it will remain a Republican and protectionist paper.

Prof. V. Botta of this city has received from the King of Italy, in recognition of his late publication, 'An Introduction to the Study of Dante,' a copy of the magnificent edition of the 'Divina Commedia' which the King recently had printed for private circulation. Besides the text of the poem, the edition contains a commentary of the fifteenth century in Latin, illustrating almost every verse of the 'Divine Comedy,' which had remained a manuscript almost unknown among the treasures of the Royal Library in Turin.

Among the notable persons who died during the week were Mrs. Sarah Sophia Cowen, one of the organizers of the Soldiers' Aid Society of Hartford, June 24; Freeman Clark of Rochester, a business man of wide influence, who had been a member of Congress and was Comptroller of the Currency under President Lincoln, June 24; Gen. James Speed of Kentucky, who was Lincoln's Attorney-General, June 25.

FOREIGN.

Jubilee festivities have not yet ended in London, and will not for a week or more. The Queen is entertaining guests at Windsor. United States Consul-General Waller presided at a Jubilee dinner given by the foreign consuls, at which 200 persons were present, including representatives of forty nations.

Prince Albert Victor and Prince George of Wales, who went to Dublin June 27 to attend the Jubilee celebration there, were received

with enthusiasm by one part of the population and with hisses by the other part.

The Jubilee yacht race around Great Britain was won by the *Genesta*, which sailed the distance in 12 days 16 hours and 55 minutes, arriving June 27. On June 25 the yachts *Thistle*, which will race for the *America's* cup, and *Irex* started from Rothesay on a fifty-mile race, and the *Thistle* won, covering the course in 4 hours 6 minutes and 45 seconds. The time of the *Irex* was 4 hours 18 minutes and 45 seconds. On June 27 another race was sailed by the same yachts over the Northern Yacht Club course, and the *Thistle* again won, covering the course in 4 hours 9 minutes and 40 seconds, the *Irex's* time being 4 hours 17 minutes and 46 seconds.

Among the peers to be created in the distribution of Jubilee honors, the following have been announced: Sir John St. Aubyn, a Liberal Unionist, member of Parliament for the St. Ives Division of Cornwall; Mr. Henry William Eaton, a Conservative, member of Parliament for Coventry; and Mr. Edward Fellowes, a contributor to the Conservative electoral fund, and formerly member of Parliament for Huntingdon. Baron Londesborough will be made an earl. The Earl of Strathmore, now a Scotch representative peer, and Viscount Galway, an Irish peer, will be made peers of the United Kingdom. Baronetcies will be conferred upon thirteen persons, including Sir Algernon Borthwick, editor and proprietor of the London *Morning Post*; Mr. Moon, Chairman of the London and Northwestern Railway; and Mr. William Pearce, the shipbuilder, member of Parliament for Govan. Thirty-three persons will be made knights, and a long list of decorations conferred on the royal visitors.

Mr. Smith, the Government leader, announced in the House of Commons on June 27 that the Government intended to proceed with the Crimes Bill until it passed the report stage. Mr. Morley moved that the duration of the act be limited to three years. It was the first time, he pointed out, that any Government had the shameful courage to propose perpetual coercion. In any exceptional mutilation of civil rights, particularly in so grave and serious a mutilation as this bill contemplated, the Government ought to be compelled from time to time to examine whether the circumstances still justified the existence of such exceptional legislation. This was the first Government that had cast to the winds the old fashioned regard for the liberty of the subject, and the doctrine that exceptional legislation should not last one day longer than circumstances demanded. Mr. Gladstone urged that the special character of the bill was a reason for limiting its duration. Its enactment as a permanent measure would aggravate existing evils, and intensify that alienation and estrangement from the law wherein lay the fundamental evil of Ireland's social condition. But Mr. Morley's amendment was rejected by a vote of 180 to 119.

June 28 Mr. Smith announced in the House of Commons that on June 30 he would move that at seven o'clock on the evening of July 4 the remaining resolutions on the report stage of the Coercion Bill be put seriatim without debate.

Sir George O. Trevelyan published a letter June 28 about the statement recently made by Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, that the only obstacle to a reunion in the Liberal party was the refusal of the Gladstonians to make any concessions in their Irish programme. He pointed out that the Gladstonians have made concessions on all the disputed points, and therefore interpose no obstacle to a reunion of the party. "The Liberal-Unionists," he concludes, "will be unable to destroy the Liberals, but a reunion of the Liberal party would serve to moderate its policy."

The Irish National League are preparing to meet coercion by establishing branches throughout England and new and larger headquarters in London, in anticipation of the suppression of the organization in Ireland.

William M. Murphy, a Nationalist member of Parliament, while sailing in his yacht in Bantry Bay with a party of friends on June 22, hoisted a green flag. The captain of H. M. S. *Shannon* sent a party of marines who hauled down the flag and carried it off. The Mayor of Cork hoisted a black flag on the occasion of the Jubilee, and the divisional magistrate superseded him and ordered that only a resident paid magistrate shall try prisoners. *United Ireland*, William O'Brien's paper, said in its first issue after the Jubilee celebration in London: "Ireland is the only civilized country in the world which did not share in the Jubilee celebration. She stood sternly and sorrowfully aloof. . . . England is cumbered by the struggles of a sullen captive, when she might purchase by justice the aid and comfort of a friend." Frank Hugh O'Donnell, formerly member of Parliament and ex-Vice-President of the Home Rule Confederation, has brought suit against the London *Times* for libel, in its comment on his recent letter of correction. It is expected that the *Times's* articles on "Parnellism and Crime" will be brought into court during the trial.

The royal British commission appointed to inquire into the Pasteur system of inoculation for hydrophobia has completed its report, which, in the main, is favorable.

There continues to be trouble at Constantinople over the ratification of the Anglo-Turkish Treaty about Egypt. On June 22 M. Nelidoff and the Count de Montebello, the Russian and French Ambassadors, addressed a note to the Porte which, it was reported (but subsequently denied at Paris), contained a threat that war should ensue should the convention be ratified. Sir Henry Drummond Wolf, the Special English Envoy, declined to modify the terms of the convention. On June 23 a hastily summoned Cabinet meeting was held in London to consider the subject. On June 27 Sir James Ferguson, Under Secretary for Foreign Affairs, announced in the House of Commons that Turkey had urgently asked England to consent to a postponement until the 4th of July of the ratification of the convention, and that England had consented.

On June 28, Lord Salisbury in the House of Lords declined to lay the papers relating to the convention upon the table. The Government, he said, had acceded to the delay in signing it, on the definite understanding that the treaty should be ratified by Turkey on July 4 without fail. On the same day it was declared at Paris that England had offered Germany the protectorate of Syria in return for Germany's support of England in the Egyptian question.

Some time ago it was announced that the Pope would send two special messengers to Ireland to make a report to him on the social and political condition of the people. Subsequently it was given out that the plan had been postponed because of a feeling that so active a part in Irish affairs might produce a bad effect. But again on June 28 two Italian priests were ordered by the Pope to proceed to Dublin and to execute the original mission.

Discussion has been continued of the Pope's political ambition. On June 27, it was published at Rome that he had ordered a circular to be prepared instructing Nuncios abroad concerning his attitude on the conciliation question, and that in it he will declare that he will not renounce his right to temporal power in Rome. On the same day Mr. Smith declared in the House of Commons that no proposal to establish diplomatic relations between England and the Vatican had ever been contemplated, nor had any such proposal been made to or by the Government.

At a meeting of the French Patriotic League in Paris June 24, M. Deroulède and M. Sansbœuf delivered harangues against the Leipzig sentences of the Alsatian members of the League. A crowd gathered outside the meeting hall, shouting "Vive Boulanger," "Vive Deroulède," but it was dispersed without trouble. Some importance is attached to his meeting because it is expected that it is only the beginning of a series of demonstrations to disquiet Paris, and frighten President Grévy into either resignation or submission to Gen. Boulanger.

This meeting of the League, and the angry protests that were made against the action of the Leipzig Court, have caused the resignation of many members. Letters have been received from various branches of the League protesting against "throwing France at Boulanger's feet."

Gen. Boulanger has been appointed to the command of the Thirteenth French Army Corps.

The election of the Senate by universal suffrage has been a subject of debate in the French Chamber of Deputies. A motion to that effect was made June 27, and urgency for the motion was moved and rejected by a vote of 317 to 205. The committee appointed to inquire into the position of foreigners in France on the same day rejected a proposal to levy a special tax on them, but a proposal was made that foreigners shall be obliged to declare their domicile, in order to insure identity and subject them to the same taxes as are imposed upon Frenchmen exempt from military service, which is now under consideration.

Mr. McLane, United States Minister to France, has denied that he made other than a personal effort in behalf of Baron de Sellière, who is confined in a lunatic asylum, and who had declared his intention to become a citizen of the United States.

It is announced at Berlin that Austria and Russia will issue no invitations to foreign officers to witness the forthcoming army manœuvres.

Russia has decided to undertake the colossal enterprise of building an Asiatic trunk railway to stretch from Tomsk across Siberia to the Pacific by way of Irkutsk. The work is expected to be completed in five years. By this route the trip from St. Petersburg to the Pacific can be made in fifteen days.

It is reported that the rebellion against the Amir in Afghanistan has failed, and that the Ghilzais are returning to their homes.

A bill has been prepared at Rome, to be presented in the Chamber of Deputies, providing for the preservation of ancient Roman remains in the vicinity of the forum, the baths of Caracalla, and the Via Appia, by means of an archæological promenade enclosing them. The estimated cost of the work is $8,000,000, and the proposition is to pay it in annual rates out of the municipal treasury.

The *Lancet*, the London medical journal, on June 22 contained the following announcement: "Crown Prince Frederick William of Germany is enjoying excellent health. The appearance of the larynx is quite satisfactory. There is no congestion, but the ventricular bands are slightly relaxed. Solution of perchloride of iron has been applied on several occasions. It is probable that more of the growth will be removed early next week." The German Emperor has regained his usual good health.

King Otto of Bavaria has been officially declared insane. It is thought that an effort will be made at the next session of the Bavarian Parliament to dethrone him.

The Canadian Government recently ordered its custom officials at Windsor, Ont., to make a record of all Americans who daily cross the line to work in Canada; and the United States Collector at Niagara Falls and Suspension Bridge began June 24 to make record of the ages, residence, and occupation of the laborers, about 200 in number, who cross daily from Canada. Notices have been served upon the employers of these men that if they continue to employ foreign labor after July 1, the United States District Attorney will be advised to proceed against them according to law.

REFORM OF OUR JURY SYSTEM.

THE Mayor's action in ordering the Commissioners of Accounts to investigate the management of the office of Commissioner of Jurors will command general approval. We trust that the Bar Association will accept his suggestion of appointing a committee to assist in the inquiry. As the Mayor says, in his letter to the judges of the city courts, the "state of public opinion in regard to the jury system" has made it his duty to order the investigation. It is in no sense a partisan persecution of the Commissioner of Jurors, or of anybody else, but a public spirited effort to find the causes of the glaring defects in the present system and reform them. For this reason the Mayor has done wisely in asking the coöperation of the lawyers and the judges, for the reform is one which they are not only deeply interested in, but are best fitted to bring about.

The evils of the present system were strongly portrayed by Judge Barrett in a recent interview with him, when he said:

"The principal drawback to the present system is, that there is really no system at all. If the dregs of the Directory, supplemented with a limited percentage of good names, had been pitched haphazard into the jury-box, we could not have had anything worse than at present exists. The box is an insult to this great city. It seems to preponderate with a representation of everything that is low, ignorant, vicious, and unintelligent. The panels in these great trials have constantly brought forth a preponderance of illiterate and disqualified jurors. There seems also to be a preponderance of particular interests. Take the retail liquor business as an example. These people are of course entitled to representation in the jury-box the same as all other citizens. But why should they so vastly preponderate? They come to us in every name and guise, as 'liquors,' 'eating-house,' 'importer,' 'wines,' 'lager beer,' 'restaurant,' 'grocer,' 'saloon,' etc."

We have reached this pass by a steady downward course for many years. Each year the office of Commissioner of Jurors has been conducted in a more lax manner than it was the year before. The number of fit men whose names get into the jury-box steadily diminishes, for various reasons, none of which are creditable. It is merely stating what is common knowledge, to say that many pay liberally for their exemption. Undoubtedly the present Commissioner is to some extent the victim of a bad system, but it is the frankly expressed opinion of Judge Barrett and other judges that he has not made such good use of his powers as he might have done. He has governed himself rather by the methods pursued by his predecessors than by the laws upon the statute-book. Anything worse than this system which has been built up by practice it would be difficult to conceive. It puts the decision of questions of the utmost importance, involving even life itself, into the hands of men whom in private life no intelligent person would think of consulting on any subject of moment. As Judge Barrett said: "When it is considered that New York is the greatest city, commercially as well as numerically, in the Union, when her shipping, banking, insurance, and mercantile interests are thought of, it is simply frightful to contemplate controversies growing out of these special and complex matters submitted to such jurors."

The remedy which he suggested is such a complete change of system as would put upon the list all the properly qualified jurors in the city. The tax-books and lists of electors would do for a starting point. Then the membership rolls of the great exchanges and other mercantile organizations could be added. The books of the commercial agencies also could be used. Every large retail establishment in this city has an enormous book in which is set down the name of every regular purchaser of goods, with his record as a good or bad payer of bills, and it is time that the city took some such precaution for its interests as every business man has taken for years. A complete jury census of the city could be taken. Judge Barrett says 30,000 names would be ample to supply all the courts, and certainly this city, with a voting population of 230,000, ought to be able to furnish such a number of upright and intelligent men. The Judge thinks that this would require only five days' service once in two years for each man, and no public-spirited citizen could object to giving that. He thinks, also, that the convenience of business men could be consulted, and they be assigned to service during those months in which they are least occupied.

All this is rational and practicable. It is simply a proposition to apply to the public service the same principles which every business man applies to his affairs, and which, moreover, are absolutely essential to the existence of any reputable business. The trouble with the office of Commissioner of Jurors is the old one which is at the bottom of all our municipal abuses. The office has been "run," not with the object of giving the best possible service to the city, but to make it useful to "politics" first and the city afterwards. The public is at fault, for it has got full as good service as it has demanded. Nobody can deny that the tendency to shirk jury duty is almost universal among the class of men who are best fitted to perform it. The Commissioners of Jurors have taken advantage of this tendency, and, like good politicians as they have been, have used it "for all it was worth." So long as the mass of our respectable and intelligent citizens got off from duty, they did not grumble. The shocking revelations made in these long and almost hopeless searches for even decently fit men to try the "boodle" cases, have aroused a good many of our citizens to the dangerous pass to which their own neglect of duty has brought us, and to this we owe the present strong public feeling in favor of reform. The Mayor has done well, therefore, to order the inquiry at the present time.

A EUROPEAN ZOLLVEREIN.

IN obtaining a modification of the sugar duties and an imperial duty on distilled spirits, Prince Bismarck has secured a new and important support for his policy of making the Empire financially independent of the German States; of raising it from the position of an "importunate creditor" and "burdensome pensioner" of the States to a self-supporting organization. Not that the change is yet complete, for the increasing expenditures of the Empire, principally for war material, still make it in a measure dependent upon loans or upon the subscriptions made by the States to meet whatever deficiency the budget may show; but every new source of revenue for the Empire strengthens its position, and tends to lessen what has been one of the leading causes of friction in the confederation.

What the next step will be it is difficult to forecast, notwithstanding the clear outlines with which Bismarck has defined his general policy. At the end of the last session of the Reichstag the Government asserted its intention of imposing "further duties," an intention that was at the time, and doubtless in future will be, opposed by the Liberals and Progressists. What these further duties will be, and on what classes of commodities they are to be imposed, the Minister of Finance did not disclose; but it is more than probable that they will be internal or of an excise character. For years Prince Bismarck has striven for new spirit and sugar taxes, and for a tobacco monopoly such as is enjoyed with so much profit to themselves by some of the neighboring nations. He has obtained a part of his objects, though not in the form which he proposed; and a tobacco monopoly, certainly a fiscal expedient of no small importance, is yet open to agitation, however great has been the opposition it has encountered in the past

A further consideration leads to the belief that an excise duty will be the form that the Chancellor's financial schemes will assume. The tariff policy of the Empire, though regarded by many as the principal cause of Germany's industrial expansion, is not capable of being resorted to again and again for revenue purposes. Special duties, like those upon grain, cattle, or the proposed duty on wool, may be urged, but their purpose is not revenue, but protection; and it is an old maxim that where protection begins, revenue ends. As it is, the most productive duties from a revenue point of view are those that were not levied with a view to protect home industry, and more than 53 per cent. of the total customs revenue in 1884 was collected from the four commodities, coffee, tobacco, petroleum, and wines. The grain duties supplied nearly one-eighth of the total, a proof that foreign supplies of grain are essential to the support of the German population. True, the average rate of taxation under the German tariff is not very high, when measured by numbers of population; it is about the same as the per-capita tax levied through the customs in Italy, and less than that collected in France. At the same time the rate in Germany has almost doubled since 1879, and there is a strong opposition to further increase.

But, apart from this inelasticity of the German tariff from a revenue point of view, an even greater obstacle stands in the way of an increase of duties, and that is, the adoption of the protective policy by nearly every other State of continental Europe, in imitation of or in retaliation for the German tariff. Italy in 1878 raised her tariff, and thus began the change before the passage of the German law in 1879; but she has recently again modified it in the direction of higher duties. In 1881 France increased import duties by changing the rates from ad-valorem to specific form. Austria-Hungary followed these examples in 1882, Switzerland in 1885, and Rumania in 1886. Each nation is

engaged in raising barrier after barrier against the competition of other nations. In 1885 Germany deliberately excluded Belgian linen from her markets, inviting reprisals, which have not yet been determined by the injured country; but in raising the duties on grain she was promptly imitated by Austria-Hungary, whose export of cereals was seriously impaired by the increased charges. And Switzerland, after two years' experience of her new tariff, is overrun by German goods and is seeking new means for removing the pressure of that competition. The duties upon wool, which a party in Germany is advocating, are really levelled against France.

The result of such a conflict of tariffs must be the same as followed a like policy so freely applied under the old mercantile system. Restriction and prohibition generally enforced must react so injuriously upon the manufactures and trade of each nation that means must be sought to remove them and make trade more free, either by the reduction of duties, a concession applying equally to all nations, or by the formation of commercial treaties in which trade privileges are exchanged reciprocally. It was only two years ago that Austria gave evidence that the pressure of hostile tariffs was already becoming unendurable; and Count Károlyi, himself a protectionist, asserted that "the European States, by their present retaliatory tariffs, would in a few years do themselves more hurt than international competition could possibly inflict."

It is by no means improbable that the treaty system will be adopted in preference to a general revision of the tariffs, as by that means there would be no necessity for removing the protection to agriculture which formed the nucleus of the higher rates and served important political ends. Switzerland is offering to enter into such a commercial treaty with Germany, while Austria is seeking to renew upon more favorable terms its agreement with Germany which expires next year, and is conducting negotiations for special commercial advantages with Italy and Rumania. The piercing of the Alps brought Germany into closer trade relations with Italy, and the economic differences of the two countries offer a fair opportunity for mutual advantage under a reciprocity treaty. Is it, after all, so wild a supposition to believe that Prof. Kaufmann's plan of a Zollverein among the nations of central Europe is more than probable? Certainly Germany, as the leading industrial nation of the Continent, would be the largest gainer; but the gains are not to be obtained by increasing the protective features of the German tariff—a step that could only excite hostility on the part of other nations.

Such a commercial union in Europe would have a peculiar significance for the United States. The attitude of Europe towards the export trade of this country has not been, and is not now, friendly. The prohibition of our hog products, the successive additions to the duties on grain and cattle, and the readiness with which any complaint against an American staple is taken up and widely circulated, often in a grossly exaggerated form, are indications of what would be the position of the customs union towards us, could it become an accomplished fact. Nor is it any secret that it was our own tariff that supplied a model to be imitated by Europe, though the most mischievous feature—the duties on raw materials—was discarded. It is by the application of our own methods and instruments that a most telling blow can be struck at our production and commerce. When the "United States of Europe"—the phrase is borrowed from the *Kölnische Zeitung*—are pitted commercially against the United States of America, perhaps the question "What have we to do with abroad?" will receive more respectful consideration than heretofore.

VACATIONS IN CHURCHES.

This is the season when annually arises the question of clerical vacations, closed churches, the suspension in great measure of evangelizing work; that is, of the most important business, and in the professed belief of those who run away from and abandon it, the only seriously important business of mankind. That the question annually recurs should indicate that it deserves attention; yet if by those most concerned it is never heeded but merely is put by, with perhaps a petulant retort flung over the shoulder of some retreating parson on his way to the mountains or the sea, it may seem hardly worth while to raise it, after all. Still it does press for answer. The inquisitive public does not settle down forgetful, and content with a petulant retort, nor will it cease to be faithless and become believing until some competent person shall explain why it is that the supreme and only really serious business of this world cannot go on in a temperature much over eighty degrees of Fahrenheit.

A good deal of extravagant statement is current on this topic, and not a little unthinking or deliberately unfair comment. An item now going the rounds of the country press says that 126 ministers sailed from New York for Europe on a recent Saturday's steamers. This tale is not confirmed by any facts known to us, and is wholly improbable; still, no doubt, a great many clergymen do go abroad every year, probably more in proportion than of men in any other calling But there are good reasons for this, of which perhaps the first of all is that a vacation is a very good thing and a useful thing, which a man may gladly take when he can fairly get it; then, besides, there are many cases where the sanatory effects of a sea voyage and of diversion really are needed, and the journey serves to repair or confirm or strengthen bodily and mental powers in a manner truly economical. Then some of the clergy may have strictly professional concerns abroad, while some are eminent scholars and preachers, who have a sort of representative function, and whose presence and action in high places in foreign lands do honor and credit to this country and amount to a public service. Besides these particular considerations, there is the general one that, so to speak, the technique of the clerical profession is more uniform than that of other callings, from which it happens that in its exercise one man may serve in place of another more readily and with better effect, and that continuing ministerial work efficiently is in great part a mere matter of "supply." We believe, indeed, that the clerical vacation business is overdone, but we think by no means to the extent which is sometimes pictured, after all fair allowance is made.

This, however, is only the fringe of the matter. The real question is about the cost, and as to that we are clear that no preacher of the Gospel should take a vacation, as many do, at the cost of suspending religious ministrations in his own field. The public instinct is wholly right concerning this. There is, in truth, no reason imaginable, on the ministers' own theory of their existence, for closing up the churches and stopping all offices of religion. Even in cases of repairs which render a building actually uninhabitable for the time, plenty of other places for temporary use may be found. Yet we find in the *Mail and Express*, under the heading, "Satan Will Be on Hand While the Preachers Are in Europe," a partial list only, in which we count seventeen Protestant churches of New York, including a few of the "low" Episcopal variety (The Incarnation, Zion, and St. Mark's), which are to be closed this summer for periods varying from two weeks to two months. Here are a few examples:

"The Memorial Church will be closed during July and August, while Dr. Robinson takes his vacation in the White Mountains."

"The First Church will be closed until September 18, and the new organ will be placed in position by the Roosevelt Company. Rev. Richard D. Harlan, the pastor, sailed for Europe last Tuesday on the *Alaska*, and will be gone all summer.'

"The Scotch Church will be closed in July."

"Rutgers Church will be closed during July and August, and Dr. Booth will have two months of vacation."

"The Church of the Covenant will be closed during July and August, while Dr. Vincent is at Bristol, R. I."

We have been led ourselves to consider the subject newly from reading a sort of confession and avoidance published lately in a religious periodical by a Doctor in Divinity—something in advance, and as it were in deprecation, of expected strictures, as we may infer from the remark that "it were very much to be wished that people who are so ready to criticise the churches on this point would bring a little common sense and knowledge of the facts to bear, instead of taking up the hue-and-cry started by newspaper flings." How much of common sense and knowledge of the facts is brought to bear by the writer of that remark may be judged from his employment of the question-begging phrase "deserted, sun-beaten streets of New York in August." "Deserted," with a million and a half of people in them—more than are actually preached to by all our missionary agencies on the face of the globe! The writer says:

"There are churches which ought to be kept open, either because their own congregations largely remain in town, or because they command districts out of which a summer congregation is sure to be gathered. There are other churches where neither of these reasons holds, and where an expenditure of $200 or $300 and preaching of the best quality are met with an attendance of from 60 to 100. I passed a part of last August in the city, and attended service on two successive Sundays in two of our most prominent Presbyterian churches. The days were fair, the preaching excellent, but the congregation in one church was not over a hundred, and in the other and larger church suggested Virgil's familiar line:

Apparent rari nantes in gurgite vasto.

The amount of the matter is, that in many cases, if the pastor *did* remain at home, he would have principally empty seats to preach to."

Really, on reading this one must stop to ask if there is not in the New Testament an authoritative valuation of a human soul, and whether it is "two or three hundred dollars" for "from sixty to a hundred."

But the clerical writer has reversed the procedure of Balaam, and, being called to bless, he has cursed altogether. For he says immediately:

"In this same summer, however, I had brought home to me, as never before, the justice of a complaint which is urged in connection with the summer exodus, but which is wrongfully bound up with the matter of the minister's vacation. When it was known that I was in town, I was besieged with applications for funeral services, and was impressed with the difficulty of finding any one to officiate. I had not supposed that the city was so stripped of ministers."

Precisely, and there is no answer to this but "repentance and better minds"; all answers in words excite either regret or laughter, according to the temperament of the reader. The writer of the article now under mention, *e. g.*, says:

"The demand for periods of recreation in the case of ministers is peculiar. I am tempted to say that it is *greater* in their profession than in any other. I confine the discussion here entirely to city pastors. . . .

"I have heard a distinguished New York minister say that if he had only his regular preaching and pastoral work to do, he should feel quite like a man of leisure; and yet most men would consider *that* work quite sufficient. The city pastor is not allowed to confine himself to his legitimate work. . . . They must dabble in finance, in real estate, in journalism. They must confer on the interests of seminaries and act as examiners of candidates for the ministry. Editors are after them for articles; societies of all kinds for speeches."

No doubt there is something of truth in this, though, to speak of what we may be allowed to know, we have very grave doubts that "Editors are after them for articles." But the point is, that, so far as it is true, it is true of everybody else. What man in full work in New York to-day can "confine himself to his legitimate work"? The foregoing may be called a typical passage, but for a perfect illustration of professional myopia take the following:

"Every one of these men [*i. e.*, men of worldly business] has fifty-two days in each year when business is suspended and he can do what he will. If he choose to keep himself occupied with business on those days, that is his own matter; but he must not plead that folly as a reason why another man should be a fool. Those fifty-two days are a minister's hardest working days, days of strong excitement and great expenditure of nervous energy."

We are obliged to say, in phrase doubly appropriate, "Why, this is very Midsummer madness." Turn the phrase around, and we have, "Every one of the ministers has 313 days in each year when business is suspended and he can do what he will. Those 313 days are a layman's hardest working days," etc. One is as true as the other, and more forcible in proportion to the numbers involved.

At the end of the list of closed churches from which we have quoted we read: "The Roman Catholic churches are of course always open every day. If their priests take any vacation, it is not perceptible in any decrease in the number of services." This well-known truth is a perfect answer to all the evasions of the Protestant brethren. It would be fortunate if the latter could once fully know and feel how their neglect of duty and their feeble excuses for it, their practical insincerity and lack of taking their own professions seriously, affect the public mind, and could be persuaded of the truth of the saying of Dr. Phillips Brooks: "Popular scepticism being what it is, the main method of meeting it must be, not an argument, but a man; the minister, in other words, who deals with unbelief most successfully to-day will not be he who is most skilful in proving truths or disproving errors, but he who is most powerful in strengthening faith in people's lives by the way in which the power of faith is uttered through his own character." If by such means, or by any means, they might learn that religion suffers more, perhaps, from their summer neglect than it gains from their winter labors, it is possible that we should see the end of a grave scandal.

COL. INGERSOLL'S NEW ENGLAND MYSTERY.

THE account given by Col. "Bob" Ingersoll in the Beecher "symposium" memorial volume, just published in Brooklyn, of the conditions under which Henry Ward Beecher was born and brought up, is one of the blackest pictures of life we have ever read. The preacher's birthplace, according to the Colonel, was "a Puritan penitentiary, of which his father was one of the wardens—a prison with very narrow and closely grated windows. Under its walls were the rayless, hopeless, and measureless dungeons of the damned, and on its roof fell the shadow of God's eternal frown." His home was simply "an inquisition in which babes were tutored for the good of their souls," in which "their wills were broken or subdued, their natures deformed and dwarfed, their desires defeated or destroyed, their development arrested or perverted. Life was robbed of its spring, its summer, and autumn. . . . No laughter, no sunshine, no joyous, free, unburdened days." The orthodox Congregationalism of that day, too, was as "heartless and inhuman" as the religion of cannibals. "It despised every natural joy, hated pictures, abhorred statues as lewd and lustful things, execrated music, regarded nature as fallen and corrupt, man as totally depraved, and woman as somewhat worse." All this and a good deal more in the year 1813, in which Henry Ward Beecher was born. And yet, the Colonel admits, in "this atmosphere of theological miasma, in this hideous dream of superstition, in this penitentiary, moral and austere," "the virtues found a welcome cordial and sincere; duty was done as understood; truth was told; self denial was practised for the sake of others, and hearts were good and true, in spite of book and creed."

Now, how is this contradiction, we would ask the Colonel, to be explained? How was it that children who grew up in this infernal state of things cared, by the time they reached manhood, anything about the virtues or tried to practise them? How was it that their hearts were good and true? How was it that, after having had their wills broken or subdued, each generation had will enough left to keep the penitentiary going for their own babes? How, in short, did society keep civilized and decent, while professing this barbarous creed for well-nigh two centuries?

The answer is, we think, very simple. The old New England Congregationalists did not believe with their hearts what they talked with their mouths about the nature and prospects of the human infant, any more than the Colonel believes his own descriptions of the effect of their creed on their lives. There was a monstrous deal of rhetoric in their expositions of the old doctrines, just as there is in the Colonel's account of their homes. Henry Ward Beecher could not have come out of one of these homes, as the Colonel says he did, simply by "getting glimpses through the grated windows of his cell of the outer world of fields and skies." Cause and effect worked in the usual way in the old New England. Animals and plants produced after their kind. Grapes did not grow on thorns or figs on thistles. The old Puritan homes, making allowance for the scanty means and simple lives of people in those days, were very happy except on Sundays. For the principal cloud on them for the infant was not really a theological cloud at all. He was no more in constant dread of being damned than his father was, but he did live in more or less fear of corporal chastisement in his mother's chamber or in the woodshed. But then, owing to the wonderful adaptability of human nature to its environment, the child of 1813 did not suffer mentally from exposure to the rod as a child in our day would. It was the common lot of all his friends and playmates, a daily risk they all ran, and which they got used to, and which did not in the least repress their cheerfulness. That they passed their time in constant dread of God Almighty and Satan, and had their lives saddened thereby, is—we do not mean to be disrespectful—rhetorical gammon.

Undoubtedly there were passages in the lives of a great many New England people in which they were made profoundly unhappy by meditation on their own relations to their Creator as they understood them. But no one can read the journals, or letters, or travels of the end of the last century without seeing that the community was on the whole a happy and cheerful one, whose main sorrow was that the good things of life were so hard to get at. When obtained they were thoroughly enjoyed, although rum probably contributed more to social mirthfulness than we now think desirable. Ministers and deacons drew awful pictures in church of the condition of "the sinner," and of the outlook for him, but they did not allow these views to influence their social or business activity or their treatment of their families, in the way in which the Colonel supposes when the rhetorical fever is upon him. They undoubtedly ought logically to have felt and behaved as he says they did, but then there are and always have been but very few people in the world who are willing to be thoroughly consistent in the government of their lives, and these few are mostly found in Trappist monasteries.

THE FIRST PILGRIMAGE TO CAPRERA.

GENOA, June 7, 1887.

THE originators of the first pilgrimage to Caprera were three silent, deed-doing veterans,

all of the Thousand: Missori, who saved Garibaldi in a hand-to-hand fight at Milazzo against desperate odds; Bruzzesi, "present" at every roll-call; Antongini, wounded everywhere, wept for as dead by Garibaldi in the Tyrol, found and restored to health and again foremost on the battlefield of Mentana. Benedetto Cairoli, the last of five brothers—four dead for Italy, he himself maimed—was elected president, but sudden, and it is feared dangerous, illness detains him in Rome. The railway and maritime companies accorded tickets half price, and at midday on the 5th instant three fine vessels of Rubattino's American and Indian line steamed out of the port of Genoa, other two from Civitavecchia, with something like 5,000 pilgrims bound for the Caprera shrine.

The sea was calm as a summer lake, the sky blue and cloudless, the *evviva*s of the populace assembled on the quay following us till Genoa herself grew dim and the eyes of all on deck sought eagerly the belfry tower of Quarto, whence the expedition of the Thousand started on the 5th of May seven and twenty years ago. At eight next morning we sighted the Maddalena; then, on entering the Strait of Moneta, the small White House rose to view. What visions realized, what hopes foregone, returned to memory in the silence that fell upon us all! To my mind returned most specially the evening of October, 1867, when, gazing from the terrace on the Italian fleet that hemmed him in, we arranged the General's flight, one of the most marvellous feats that he ever effected, eluding in his tiny dingy the vigilance of nine men-of war and all the craft of the surrounding islands pressed into service.

The Government having placed barks and steam-tugs at the service of the pilgrims, we landed at Caprera without touching at the Maddalena, on the rough pier of granite blocks built by the General. The steamers from Civitavecchia had arrived before us, and the pilgrims from the south were already ascending the heights by the one tolerable road leading to the bit of level land sheltered by the huge gray granite rocks where the house and garden stand. We, leaving the procession, wound our way through the low copse of cistus in full white bloom, of the myrtle just budding, and so reached the enclosure where Garibaldi lies, his two children, Rosa and Anita, beside him; myrtle and cistus, tamarisks, cedars, firs, and pine trees encircling them. It was only quite late in life that Garibaldi set his mind upon having his body burned. He had always had a horror of being buried in the sea, and when, in a sea-fight against Brazilian foes, most of his comrades lay dead upon the deck, he, prostrate with what he deemed his mortal wound, after giving practical directions to the one able seaman for gaining Santa Fé, whispered to a schoolmate and now a comrade to bury him on shore, to place over his grave—

> "A stone distinguishing my bones from those
> Which Death sows infinite in earth and sea."*

From the time he purchased his rocky plot at Caprera, which he had longed for since it served him as a refuge after Anita's death, when Sardinia exiled him, France expelled him, England refused him refuge at Malta, and America gave him his only asylum, he decided to be buried there—indeed, asked formal permission from the Italian Government in 1862. The solitude, the stern wildness, the very barrenness of Caprera was congenial to his nature, a nature *that never acted on impulse*, though the lightning swiftness of action following upon long-matured designs led people to believe that this was the case. There among those rocks in 1858 he decided to place his republican sword at the service of Victor Emanuel for war against Austria, spent but three days on the Continent to see the King and sound the tocsin, three months remained silent there till in April he could cry, "To arms." So, in the four months that elapsed between the prohibition to pass the Rubicon and the expedition of the Thousand to Marsala, there he planned the attack on Rome which ended on the Bitter Mount, and again that other expedition which ended at Mentana. There he decided "on offering all that was left of him" to France, invaded and nearly annihilated, there he buried his two young daughters and wrote his yet unpublished memoirs—a simple record of facts, having nothing in common with his crude attempts at novel-writing or his declamations against priests and tyrants.

When the first idea of being burned occurred to him I cannot say, but I have always fancied that he took it from Capt. Roberts, a great friend of Byron's, who was with the poet when Shelley was drowned and burned upon the shores of Lerici. I remember once, in 1875 or 1876, telling him about the heretics' cemetery at Rome, and showing him a photograph I had just had taken of the tombs of Keats and Shelley. "Roberts told me all about the burning of Shelley," he said, "but I never asked where they could get wood enough on that barren shore. Perhaps they used the tarred planks of the many wrecks strewed there." I told him the details of the whole proceedings as Trelawny has recorded them, and no more was said. But at the end of 1876, after a long conversation with Dr. Prandina, an old ambulance surgeon who died last year, he wrote with his own hand the following letter:

"My Dear Prandina: You have undertaken the burning of my corpse, and I am very grateful to you. On the road leading from this house northward to the sea, at a distance of about three hundred paces to the left, is a hollow surrounded by a wall. Build up there a pyre two metres square with boughs of acacia, myrtle, lentisk, and other aromatic trees; place on the pyre an iron brand [literally, bedstead]; on this the open bier, and within, my body, adorned with the red shirt. Save a handful of the ashes in any sort of urn, and place it on the tomb which contains the bodies of my daughters, Rosa and Anita.

"Ever yours, G. Garibaldi."

About the same date, in a letter, he writes:

"As I have in my will and testament ordered my body to be burned, I charge my wife to obey my bidding before giving notice to any one of my death."

This, of course, was impossible. Menotti, the eldest son, arrived in time to close his father's eyes; the heart of all Italy beat but for Caprera; none dared to deal with remains so precious in such sudden, simple fashion. Absolute obedience, too, seemed impossible, as the aromatic timber that could be collected was insufficient, and Garibaldi had willed to be burned, pagan fashion, in open bier, with face upturned to sky, not "cremated," shut up in an iron coffin, as the modern fashion has it. The family and friends, deputies and senators, ministers, and a whole army of volunteers, gathered on the island, discussed, protested, pleaded; but Garibaldi, dead, was not obeyed: the remains were embalmed, coffined, and covered with this immense granite block, after four had broken into fragments as though disdainful of their office. But the time will come when the voice of the dead Duce will be obeyed as ever it was in life; his remains will be burned, and above them will tower a massive granite lighthouse for the illumination of mariners and others tossed on life's stormy sea.

Yesterday, by tacit consent, no allusion was made to the vexed question which so convulsed Italy in 1882. Only a few pilgrims wandered northward to the now neglected hollow where the General, who knew himself to be dying, had caused to be collected heaps of aromatic boughs.

At the White House, Teresita greeted us with her father's smile and voice; her husband, Canzio, and Menotti gave the welcome so dear to old comrades, to whom nothing of the past remains save memory. Garibaldi's bedroom is left just as when he died; only his sword of 1860 hangs over it, while in what was once the dining-room are carefully preserved all the commemorative offerings brought or sent during the last five years—a very hecatomb of crowns and garlands, wreaths of fresh flowers, bronze shields, curiously carved medallions, portraits of fallen braves, inscriptions innumerable. All round the house the garden was ablaze with flowers, the scarlet geranium luxuriating in such immense masses that one might imagine an army of red shirts bivouacking there.

From the shadow of a pine tree by the fountain which supplied the General with the sparkling water he liked so well, we watched the grand procession organized as for battle-march defile. At the tomb the flags and banners (and there were hundreds) were all lowered as they passed—some all too new and bright to have seen much good work done, but among these were tatters concealed from the Austrians in Lombardy, from the priests in Rome after 1848 and 1849—flags that had seen the flight of the Austrians from the heights of S. Fermo, at Como and Varese, been carried at a dash up the terraces of Calatafimi, floated over the smoking ruins of Palermo, flashing "victory along all the line" on the Volturno; flags borne triumphantly at Bezecca, on the dismantled fortresses of the Tyrol, only to be lowered at Ponte Cafaro when, to the order of exodus, the General answered, "I obey." There was the flag, too, that had covered the hero wounded on the Bitter Mount, that other that replaced the white and yellow on the turret tower of Monte Rotondo, and, though rifled by French bullets, guided the defeated of Mentana. Then the last but dearest of all, the flag of the Thousand put together on board the *Piedmont*, the first lowered on Mazzini's tomb by express order of the General, who, on hearing of the death of the Apostle of Unity, said, "Let the flag of the *Mille* float over the tomb of the grand Italian."

The defiling occupied a couple of hours, twenty bands playing at intervals Garibaldi's hymn, Mameli's war march, or the "Addio, Ninetta, addio," or the sad lament for "Camicia mia, camicia bella." Such a profusion of flowers wrought into love messages never have I beheld. Nice alone sent ten magnificent garlands of living flowers or of immortelles, one having in the centre an alabaster model of the tomb where Garibaldi's mother and Anita sleep—on foreign soil. Too painfully strange it seemed to all to see the French tricolor, draped in black, streaming from the beautiful garland sent by the *Ville de Nice*. Palermo did her liberator due honor, sending a deputation of six municipal councillors; even so Rome and Naples. The Chamber of Deputies was represented by old Achille Majocchi, amputated at Calatafimi in June, who yet again officered his battalion at S. Maria di Capua in October.

The speeches were few, short, and simple. Majocchi at the tomb insisted on the duty of the people's representatives to complete the moral unity of the country, to whose material unification Garibaldi had consecrated his life. Cavallotti, a favorite soldier and poet of Garibaldi's, spoke from the terrace of the White House for unredeemed Italy, and, wisely avoiding the vexed African question, said: "Our meeting here from every part and province of Italy ought to mean the burial in that tomb of all municipal strife and discord, a hearty reconciliation between Italians to complete the works left unfinished by our dead. This is the only conciliation that Garibaldi's soldiers and mourners under-

* A quotation from Foscolo's "Sepulchres," which, as a boy, Garibaldi learned by heart.

stand." The perfect silence that prevailed throughout the day, broken only by the bands and these speeches, preserved the ceremony from any theatrical effect. After every one of the pilgrims had been admitted to visit the memorial rooms, entering to the south and making their exit to the north of the house, all dispersed over the island to collect relics—coral, shells, red granite, sparkling mica, myrtle, lentisk, broom, wild olive branches and cistus, uprooting the entire trees if possible. Nor did Signora Francesca complain, though the gardens were utterly despoiled—despoiled in vandal English fashion, and it is the first time that I have seen such a thing done in Italy. I say, "Donna Francesca permitted it." Garibaldi's three children by Anita (who, by the way, was Garibaldi's lawful wedded wife, nor ever the wife of any other man, as biographers report) resigned all claim to the island, wishing to present it to the country; but, as the youngest boy, Manlio, is a minor, his mother objected, and so the question remains in abeyance until he comes of age. Manlio was not at Caprera, as he is just passing his examination at the military college at Leghora, but sent a magnificent wreath to his father's tomb.

Were I to recount all the incidents and episodes that occurred during the forty-eight hours, my letter would be far too long; but one is worthy of note. On board the *Balduino*, a large steamer of the Rubattino-American line, the third-class passengers complained of their fare as scanty and savorless, while the table of the first and second class was most amply provided with viands and four sorts of wine. So a vote proposed was carried by acclamation to have but one table in common, the first and second-class passengers contenting themselves with only ordinary wine and two instead of six dishes of meats and vegetables. That trait of Garibaldian equality was a real bit out of the past.

Arriving at Genoa, such of the pilgrims as were not compelled to start by train wound their way up to Mazzini's tomb at Staglieno. Here, with a translation made by an American lady, is Carducci's sonnet, bearing the motto of young Italy, and referring to the actual first meeting which took place between Mazzini and Garibaldi in 1830:

ORA E SEMPRE.

(Davanti il Pantheon.)

"Ora—: e la mano il giovine nizzardo
Biondo con sfavillanti occhi porgea,
E come su la preda un leopardo
Il suo pensiero a l'avvenir correa.

"E sempre—: con la man fiso lo sguardo
L'austero genovese a lui rendea;
E su 'l tumulto eroico il gagliardo
Lume discese di l'eterna idea.
Ne l'aer d'alte visïon sereno
Suona il verbo di fede, e si diffonde
Oltre i regni di morte e di fortuna.

"Ora—dimanda per lo ciel Staglieno,
Sempre—Caprera in mezzo al mar risponde:
Grande su 'l Pantheon vigila la luna.

"Now! And the fair-haired youth of Nice extends
His hand, with flushing cheek and sparkling eyes,
And, like a leopard on the prey it rends,
His thoughts rush on to where the future lies.

"Forever! While his steadfast gaze he bends,
Genoa's austere son accepts that hand;
And on th' heroic tumult of the land
The light of the eternal Thought descends,
And in the heaven of visions high and fair
Resounds the word of faith, and through the sky,
Beyond the realms of death and chance, spreads free.

"Now! Ione Staglieno's tomb calls through the air;
Forever! cries Caprera from the sea.
Over the Pantheon the moon watches high."

GEFFROY'S 'MADAME DE MAINTENON.'

PARIS, June 17, 1887.

M. Geffroy, member of the French Institute, has undertaken a somewhat ungrateful task, not in publishing a critical selection of Mme. de Maintenon's letters, but in preceding it with a long biography, which aims to be a complete apologia of this famous royal favorite. It seems difficult to make a complete edition of the letters of Mme. de Maintenon. It is well known now that the edition issued by La Beaumelle has but little value, and that he completely disfigured the admirable documents which fell into his hands. Mme. de Maintenon destroyed, so it was said by her contemporaries, all her correspondence with Louis XIV., and it must be much regretted that she made this sacrifice, as these letters would have an extraordinary value. M. Lavallée, who undertook to publish all the correspondence of Mme. de Maintenon, found many inedited letters; but his work was interrupted, and his fifth volume, which is very rare, does not go beyond the year 1705. We have in reality nothing on the latter period of the reign of Louis XIV., during which she played such an important part. Of the earlier period we have chiefly mere copies made at Saint-Cyr, and composed of fragments which served for the education of the young ladies in this establishment. It is not impossible that we shall find some day the letters of Mme. de Maintenon to Boufflers, to the princes of the royal family, to the Duke of Burgundy, to the Queen of Spain, to the Duc du Maine. M. Geffroy gives us chiefly her correspondence with her spiritual director, the Abbé Gobelin, her letters to the "dames de Saint-Louis," to the Archbishop of Paris, who became Cardinal de Noailles, to Mme. de Dangeau, to Mme. de Caylus, her long correspondence with the Duc de Noailles, and with Mme. des Ursins.

Mme. de Maintenon has remained to this time a psychological problem: she has her enemies and her friends. Some call her ambitious, others believe her to have been humble and afraid of her own power and influence. Was she an intriguer, a ruling spirit, had she the head and the heart of the greatest statesmen, or was she merely placed by circumstances in the sphere of absolute power, and did she long, in her brilliant Olympus, for a quiet and obscure existence? Was she a victim of her own beauty, of her own wit, of the charms which had made her the favorite and the secret wife of the greatest sovereign of her time; or was she an artful, wicked, cruel, hypocritical woman, determined to establish and to maintain her empire, and to sacrifice everything to her love of power? Was she the cleverest of women, at a time when French society produced so many remarkable women, or had she a common, ordinary intelligence? It has been said that in the seventeenth century the cooks wrote the best of French; her detractors will not even admit any great literary merit in her letters; they pronounce them to be no better than the letters of any other lady of the day. "Adhuc sub judice lis est." M. Geffroy is on the side of the apologists; he is, indeed, the most passionate among those who have dared to take up the defence of Mme. de Maintenon.

Is it necessary to name her enemies? Their name is legion. Who does not remember the burning invectives of the honest Duchess of Orleans, the mother of the Regent? She expressed a real horror for Mme. de Maintenon. What shall we say of the judgment of Saint-Simon, written not for his contemporaries, but for posterity? He speaks of her extraordinary fortune in terms which cannot be forgotten. He tells us how M. and Mme. de Montespan knew Mme. Scarron, at the house of Marshal d'Albret; how, when Mme. de Montespan became the mistress of Louis XIV. and had her first children by him, she proposed to the King to confide them to Mme. Scarron, to whom a house was given for that purpose in the Marais. Afterwards, the children were brought to court and their governess with them. Louis XIV. did not like Mme. Scarron at first, but was induced by Mme. de Montespan to give her the estate of Maintenon. She repaired the old château and became Mme. de Maintenon. Louis XIV. could not understand the great friendship which Mme. de Montespan had for her, and asked several times for her dismissal. He began to change his mind when the governess took the young Duc du Maine to certain spas, and travelled with him to Flanders, to Barèges in the Pyrenees; Louis XIV. read her letters and found them sensible and well written.

Mlle. d'Aubigné cannot be blamed for having married at the age of sixteen the poet Scarron. She had no protector, no fortune. Scarron was to her a friend, not a husband. She became a widow at the age of twenty-five. Scarron had made her acquainted with good society; she cannot well be excused for having consented to become the governess of two children, born of a double adultery. This is, in my eyes, the critical part of her life. She was essentially wrong in accepting the situation which Mme. de Montespan offered her. She professed to be very religious, and speaks constantly in her letters of the charms of conventual life; she would have done much better, if she could not marry again, to enter a convent than to live in equivocal relations with Mme. de Montespan and with her royal lover. Mme. de Sévigné, who had much good sense, knew her as Mme. Scarron, and, as such, liked her. "We take supper every evening with Mme. Scarron. She has a mind amiable and naturally right. It is a pleasure to hear her discuss; . . . her society is delicious." Afterwards, when people began to see the favor of Mme. de Maintenon increase, Mme. de Sévigné writes to her daughter: "I will show you, my dear, a *dessous de cartes* which will surprise you. This great friendship between Mme. de Montespan and her friend became two years ago a real aversion. It is a bitterness, an antipathy: it is white and then black. And why? Because the friend's pride is in revolt against the other. She does not like to obey. She consents to belong to the father, not to the mother."

Mme. de Montespan's love for the King was a continual tempest. The favorite was proud, ill-tempered, exacting; the King longed for rest. He longed for a quiet, solitary, decent *liaison*. He could not bear solitude, but he wanted a companion who would be to him what the shadow is to the body. He discovered by degrees, and somewhat to his astonishment at first, that the governess of his illegitimate children could fill his leisure hours noiselessly, pleasantly. She was discreet, reserved, sensible; she could keep a secret like a confessor; she could give advice and not boast of it; she could enter wholly, completely into the occupations, the preoccupations, the anxieties, the emotions of his own life—lose herself, so to speak, completely, and give him the sense of a sort of dual existence. Greatness is solitude; and who was ever as great as the "Grand Roi"? He was naturally sad and needed a companion, an echo. Mme. de Maintenon became this echo.

She was an echo much more than an inspirer. She was not of a despotic and overruling disposition. The pamphleteers and even the historians have made her responsible for many acts and resolutions which were really not her work. In one sense, however, she might be said to be responsible: she acquired a great influence—the influence due to a constant assiduity and to a complete devotion; and she might have used this influence in sometimes resisting and counteracting the royal resolutions. But who knows if the influence we speak of was not due to the complete abdication of her will? When two human beings have lived long together, like Mme. de Maintenon and the King, inseparable, tied together by the strongest of human ties, it becomes very difficult to say which of the two has had more influence in such or such a determination.

When Mme. de Montespan fairly fell into disgrace and was reduced to the honorary post of

superintendent of the Queen's household, Mme. de Maintenon was appointed *dame d'atour* of the Dauphine. She thus became entirely independent of Mme. de Montespan. Her favor soon became apparent; the King entered with her into a new and unknown country, which Mme. de Sévigné calls "la commerce de l'amitié et de la conversation, sans contrainte et sans chicane." The courtiers whispered that Mme. de Maintenon's real name was Mme. de *Maintenant*. She spent all her evenings with the King, and how did she employ her new favor? First, in converting or trying to convert all the members of her family, who were still Protestants. She stopped at nothing, and employed means which were a sort of anticipation of the methods followed at the revocation of the Edict of Nantes. She sent M. de Villette, who refused to be converted, on a long journey (Mme. de Villette was the favorite daughter of the famous Agrippa d'Aubigné, and an ardent Calvinist), and during his absence she procured the abjuration of his young son, and placed him in a military academy. She also took advantage of the absence of M. de Villette to get possession of Mlle. de Mursay, who became Mme. de Caylus. Mlle. de Mursay left her mother and arrived at Paris with some cousins—young Saint-Hermine, Mlle. de Saint-Hermine, and Mlle de Caumont. "We arrived together in Paris," says Mme. de Caylus in her memoirs. "Mme. de Maintenon came immediately and took me to Saint-Germain. I wept much afterwards; but the next day I found the King's mass so beautiful that I consented to make myself a Catholic, on condition that I should hear mass every day and that I should never be whipped. This was the only controversy employed, and the only abjuration I made." The other cousins, being a little older, resisted a little longer, but finally they all gave in.

These conversions are not a glorious page in the history of Mme. de Maintenon, and her conduct towards the children of M. de Villette lends much probability to the opinion of Saint-Simon, who makes her afterwards chiefly responsible for the revocation of the Edict of Nantes. It is well known that converts are often intolerant, and easily become persecutors. The religious intolerance of Mme. de Maintenon was a sort of self-justification. M. Geffroy tries in vain to upset the theory of Saint-Simon; he finds no good arguments. It is true that in her letters she recommends to her brother, D'Aubigné, tolerance towards the Calvinists in his government, but she applauds constantly after 1685 the destruction of heresy, and even the massacres of the Camisards in Languedoc. In an answer to a memoir written in 1697, 'On the best manner of effecting the conversion of the Huguenots,' she declares that it would be dangerous to recall the Huguenots and to abolish the decrees published after 1685. We do not attach much importance, in this question, to the opinion of Voltaire, who wrote to Formey, on January 17, 1753, "Why do you say that Mme. de Maintenon had much part in the revocation of the Edict of Nantes? She had no part at all in it. This is a certain fact. She never dared to contradict Louis XIV." We may easily believe that she did not often contradict the King; but an artful woman has many ways of bringing her lover to her own opinion. Mme. de Maintenon was artful, though some writers would try to persuade us that she was a simple-minded person. She first used her increasing credit in trying to separate the King from his mistresses, and preached to him virtue and conjugal fidelity. Did she ever really work in the interest of the Queen? Would she have been contented, by the side of the Queen, with the part of a confidante and an adviser? She was older than Maria Theresa, older than Louis XIV.; but in 1680 she was only forty-five years old. She could not foresee that the Queen would die in 1683. She had already become indispensable: she had brought Louis XIV. to the point where he could refuse her nothing. She was married to him secretly, and D'Aubigné, her profligate brother, called Louis XIV. boldly, "my brother-in-law." Saint-Simon pretends that her ambition even then was not satisfied, that she wished to be declared Queen, that Louvois, the Archbishop of Paris, Harlay, Fénelon, the Duc de Beauvilliers, fell into disgrace for having determined the King to refuse her this last favor. M. Geffroy tries to prove the contrary. There are mysteries which are never unravelled. Louis XIV. was weak as a man, but he had a very exalted idea of royalty. He could not live without his Maintenon; he did not wish to present her as the Queen to his own people and to his brother-kings in Europe.

Correspondence.

THE FRENCH FINANCES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your issue of May 26, No. 1143, contains an article entitled "The French Crisis," which it is impossible for a Frenchman, and, I may add, for an impartial and well-informed reader, to let pass without a word of protest. Neglecting all minor errors—such as the bold assertion that popular sentiment demands Gen. Boulanger as a necessary member of the Cabinet—I willingly point to that most astonishing phrase: "The shrewdest financial heads in France, in fact, such men as Léon Say and Paul Leroy-Beaulieu, believe that a Treasury collapse of some kind is not far away." I have read with the greatest care for the past five years every book, every article, written by Say and Leroy-Beaulieu. I consider both of them to be clever, patriotic, and sincere men, not afraid to speak harshly when it is necessary to enforce a painful truth on public opinion. Now, I can declare that neither one nor the other ever wrote or spoke *a word* predicting a Treasury collapse in our country; further, I maintain that Leroy-Beaulieu, the only one who writes regularly in the *Économiste Français*, has not ceased to repeat that if the state of our Treasury is embarrassing, French finances and French public wealth are very far from being in danger. About six weeks ago Beaulieu, examining the returns of the taxes on donations and legacies, showed how steadily and speedily those taxes have increased for the last twenty years, and came to the conclusion, which is shared by all financial authorities, that the improvement of our finances would be a matter of no difficulty if only peace and interior tranquillity could be maintained. What must Americans think of French statesmen who are accused, without the slightest foundation, of having uttered *words of treason* such as the foretelling of a financial collapse would be? And what must American readers think of the French public which is mad enough to pay 82 francs for 3 per cent. funds, when those 3 per cents are in danger—according to your writer—of not being paid to-morrow or the day after?

I will not trespass upon your space by trying to give a correct idea of the state of French finances and of the real or unreal embarrassments of our exchequer. But two points I must briefly insist upon, (1) that Gen. Boulanger, whatever may be said against him, has not had the least influence on the French budget and deficit: any Parliament and any Minister of War would have felt the necessity of modifying our rifles when Germany had adopted a similar change in her armament, and this has been the only extraordinary expense for the War Department during the last twelvemonth; (2) that people ought to reflect, before they speak about a possible, nay, a probable, collapse of the French Treasury, on the privileged and exceptional nature of the French public debt. Not only is the debt almost entirely in the hands of Frenchmen, so that the payment of the interest does not make the country a franc poorer, but—and I am afraid many Americans do not know this—*all the French railways must become the property of the State a hundred years after their opening to traffic.* In fact, as early as 1950 the greater part of our railways will already be State property, thus affording at once the means of repaying, if it be thought necessary, more than half of the public debt. A country which possesses the bare ownership of all the railways built on its soil is not in danger of a "Treasury collapse."—Truly yours,

Salomon Reinach.

Paris, June 5, 1887.

[We were thinking of going over M. Leroy-Beaulieu's articles on French finances in the *Économiste Français* during the last two or three years for the purpose of showing, by numerous quotations, how rash M. Reinach's assertions are, and how defective his memory is, when we took up the last number, of June 14, containing another discussion of the same subject by the same writer. In it M. Leroy-Beaulieu shows that the public debt of France is per head of population more than one-third greater than that of England, Austria, or Italy, and three times as great as that of Germany, and calls this a low estimate. He winds up by saying: "In spite of all these devices [imperfect statements of liability] of our budget, although we have been constantly taking pains to conceal its real amount by special accounts or occult methods (*quoique nous ayons eu une préoccupation constante d'en dissimuler, par des caisses spéciales ou des expédients occultes, la grosseur réelle*), it is, nevertheless, plain, from all the testimony, that the French budget largely (*d'une façon considérable*) surpasses in all its principal features the budgets of the other six great States of Europe. *This situation,*" he adds, "*cannot last without, in the long run, seriously affecting the national vitality* (*sans que la vitalité nationale à la longue en soit profondément atteinte*)." It will be seen that this is a far more serious charge than the one we have ascribed to him, of thinking a "Treasury collapse of some kind not far away." If the latter be "words of treason," what must the former be? And let us add that there could not be, to our minds, a stronger illustration of the risky condition of French finances than the fact that a Frenchman of M. Reinach's intelligence thinks it treasonable to express alarm about them. Our assertion about what other "shrewd financial heads" thought of the situation was possibly indiscreet, because it was based on private information, which is—of course, without meaning to reflect in any way on M. Reinach's good faith—more valuable to us than his general denial can possibly be.

As to the condition of popular sentiment about Gen. Boulanger, that is, of course, a matter of opinion about which it is useless to bandy contradictions. All we can say is, that our view of it is shared by hundreds of excellent political observers, both in France and in foreign countries. That Gen. Boulanger himself shares it, may fairly be inferred from the

remarkable sentence in his farewell order to the army, in which he called attention to the fact that in going out of office he was "setting an example of both republican and military discipline." The only possible construction at all creditable to his intelligence one can place on this is, that under the circumstances less patriotic men than he might have felt justified in staying in office, even if the President or his colleagues wished him to go.

We may add in conclusion that we did not mean by the phrase "a Treasury collapse of some kind," the total repudiation of the public debt, as M. Reinach seems to imagine. There might be many a collapse damaging to French credit and humiliating to French pride before that pass was reached. In fact, some financiers would call attempts to conceal the real amount of the debt by cooked accounts, such as M. Leroy-Beaulieu describes, a collapse of a very painful nature. But the remedy never can be applied as long as earnest talk about the evil is considered traitorous or even unpatriotic.—Ed. Nation.]

THE QUESTION OF CHURCH UNION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The only way a Protestant can experience the delights of the doctrine of infallibility is by having an infallible newspaper on which he wholly leans, and in which he heartily believes.

Such has been my belief in the *Nation* from the time when, as a college boy, I subscribed for it, since which time I have never been without it. When it has ruthlessly criticised my own books as they have appeared one by one, I have fallen back upon the wisdom of Irving's character in 'Sleepy Hollow,' Ichabod Crane, who, when he whipped the boys in his school, invariably remarked that they would thank him for that afternoon's performance the longest day they lived.

I have never addressed a letter to my lifelong friend, the *Nation*, through all these years until to-day, when, in all deference to the doctrine of editorial infallibility, I venture to suggest two or three fallacies in your editorial of June 9 on "The Question of Church Union."

First of all, no one enlisting in this enterprise of church unity expects that it is going to be a mere matter of ninety days, as Mr. Seward said of the War of the Rebellion. Obstacles are to be encountered; prejudices are to be aroused; the dark shadows of ecclesiastical and theological bias must be awakened. Our Lord said of the religion which he came to establish, "I come not to send peace but a sword." A movement like this drives men back to their definitions, and clearness of thought comes with clearness of definition. Men must ask to day what they mean by the church, and what they mean by church unity. Is it the mediæval idea of hierarchical organization, or the practical American idea of a national Federation?

Secondly, the Congress of Churches has held no meeting this year, simply because already the manufacture of the material of church unity has exceeded the available demand. We do not want to go on talking generalities when we are wide of the vital question before the house. Each church must settle its own details. The Congregationalists are driven back to the question of the authority of their mission work, or the problem of centralization cropping out in their polity. The Episcopal church is divided about the problem of its change of name. The prophetic sword has already pierced the fabric of the past, but peace will come after the sword thrusts of the immediate present.

Thirdly, no meeting of the Congress of Churches was held this year for another reason. It was hoped that something definite and practical could be accomplished in the matter of Christian unity by the churches of our towns and villages meeting together for united service during Holy Week, and especially upon Good Friday. This was accomplished, and now, in addition to the theory of Christian federation, a practical precedent has been established in the matter of keeping the Christian year, which will serve for the second step forward when the time for the next meeting comes.

The chief fallacy of the editorial in the number of June 9, however, consists in this—that, as a matter of fact, it is the town which is the practical centre of Christian unity, and not the city. Churches and ministers are too busy, in their endless routine and in their crowded city life, to stop to see how this problem of unity can become practical. This movement of the Congress of Churches began in the felt needs of town life, and has been carried on by the convictions of many Christian workers who live in country, not city, life. Already in half-a-dozen towns in Massachusetts, steps have been taken towards realizing practical unity by keeping Holy Week as a Christian town—taking as the norm of unity the local church in a place, such as "the church which is in Corinth," or "the church which is in Amherst."

To sum up, then, the points in this case, we may say:

(1) The question of church union means the work of a generation, not the work of a day.

(2) The question of church union drives men back to their definitions, and inevitably draws the sword of discussion first, before peace comes.

(3) The question of church union is one in which we must allow plenty of time and space and charity, and the happening of the unexpected, for the settlement of lesser local details.

(4) As a matter of fact, it is city life, with its endless routine and its lack of bird's-eye view and perspective, which has, up to this point, presented the chief obstacles to the practical realization of Christian unity—not "the sweeping social revolution" which you seem to think would follow were church unity realized in the country.

I write thus as a country minister, and can name several towns in Massachusetts where the effort to realize practical church unity has been tried without incurring any "sweeping social revolution."—Very sincerely yours,

Wm. Wilberforce Newton.

Pittsfield, Mass., June 23, 1887.

AN IMPORTANT ELEMENT OF MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A paragraph in your last number begins with these words: "We doubt if the people of this city realize fully the importance of the experiment which Mayor Hewitt is making in the City Hall." As this goes to the root of one of the strongest of my political hobbies, I ask your indulgence for a moment. If it should appear out of place for me to discuss New York city politics, you will perhaps remember that the experiments in government in every city are of the deepest and most direct interest to all the rest, and that New York is the most central and the most important of all,

New York and Brooklyn have taken a strong lead in the right direction in giving greater power to the Mayor, and especially in taking away from the Aldermen the right of confirming his appointments; and it seems as if the drift of opinion was towards a still further extension of these powers. But while this system offers great advantages with a good Mayor, it involves serious risk with a bad one, and there is danger of losing sight of that which is the safeguard against bad and the encouragement in good use of power—the public enforcement of responsibility. I believe that the government of Brooklyn by Mayor Low was very satisfactory to the best citizens, but the mass of the people knew very little about it; and, perhaps for that very reason, he has a successor who is, I presume, much less satisfactory, while silence, so far as I can learn, has settled over the whole arena.

Perhaps the purest form of government in this country is the New England town-meeting. This may be true of other local governments, but I speak of that which I know best. The town government may sometimes be extravagant and sometimes foolish, but anything like systematic corruption or dishonesty among town officials is extremely rare. The reason is, that the whole responsibility for administration rests with the officials, and mainly with the selectmen. The town meeting assembles once or twice a year, the selectmen and officials being present; and individuals bring forward their grievances and discuss the conduct of their agents in their presence and before the company. The test is so severe that none but honest men can stand it.

When the town becomes so large that the meeting is too cumbrous, relief is sought in the form of the representative council of a city. In theory, this council should do the same thing as the town-meeting—that is, keep the people fully informed of the character and actions of their responsible servants. In practice, the council, by its system of committees, and by excluding the executive officials from its sessions and depriving them of all voice and initiative, gets hold of executive power, breaks up and diffuses responsibility, and carefully covers up not only its own tracks, but those of the executive power. In restoring power to the executive, the true function and power of the council should be kept in view. If a body of one or two hundred men from all New York city were to meet, say once a month, and if the Mayor and the chief officials were to appear before this body in public session; if the body were forbidden by law to interfere with the executive power, but limited to criticism and to the voting of money upon executive proposal—or, in other words, to a veto—then the character and actions of the officials would speedily and fully become known to the whole city, and then for the first time we should have the right to blame the people if things went wrong.

There is a curious symptom of the dim consciousness of this want in the provision which is running the rounds of the various city charters, that the Mayor shall at stated times call the various officials together for consultation. But they may consult just as little or just as much as they please. They are all interested on one side. Their tendency, like that of all officials, even if honest, is not to waste time on the public—to do their work rather than talk about it. It is not at all the same thing as to have a body whose interest lies in seeing that the public are well informed.

G. B.

Boston, June 25, 1887.

SENATOR HOAR OR CITIZEN HOAR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the current issue of your paper I have read with great surprise an extract from the address of welcome delivered by Senator Hoar to the R. E. Lee Camp of Confederate Veterans upon their reception at Faneuil Hall. I cannot suppose that you invented or even "edited" the speech, which I therefore assume was delivered,

It is expressed in terse and elegant English, and it expresses the best thought of the time as to the war which "has led to the indissolubility of the American Union and the universality of American freedom."

But suppose this deliverance had been made, not by a Massachusetts Senator who, in his official capacity, gives a pet place in his wardrobe to the bloody shirt, but by a man, of what distinction soever, either in civil council or in loyal military service, who by political affiliation was a Democrat or by non-affiliation was a Mugwump—what then? Would it not have been accounted little short of treason, and would not he have been pilloried as a rebel at heart?

"Is it love the lying's for?" I ask with Hervé Riel; for there is a juggle with the truth somewhere. Is it Senator Hoar or Citizen Hoar, Senator Sherman or Citizen Sherman, who is speaking; or is Mr. Facing both-ways the best American type? JOSEPH PARRISH.

PHILADELPHIA, June 23, 1887.

THE FIRE AT THE OPÉRA COMIQUE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the account of the burning of the Opéra Comique printed on page 462 of your issue of June 2, it is said, ". . . the whole stage was immediately enveloped in flames. The fire soon spread to the rest of the house, *although the iron curtain was lowered.*"

If uncorrected, this statement would tend to spread the belief that an iron curtain affords no protection to the audience of a theatre in which it is used. In fact, no attempt seems to have been made, on the occasion in question, to lower the iron curtain; at any rate, it was *not* lowered.

L. E. O.

PARIS, June 14, 1887.

AMERICAN ANCESTRY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In consequence of the notices in the *Nation*, both in December last and more recently in your review of our Albany volume, we are receiving a very large number of communications regarding our work. Will you, therefore, allow us to state through the same widely circulated medium that, while our *local series* merely publish lineages of persons residing in certain localities, our *standard series* will publish lineages sent from any part of our United States, and thus place on record for all time the ancestry of any living American whose ancestor resided in America at the time of the Revolution?—Yours respectfully, JOEL MUNSELL'S SONS.

ALBANY, N. Y., June 25, 1887.

Notes.

TICKNOR & CO., Boston, publish immediately 'Penelope's Suitors,' a story of the old Colony days, by Edwin Lassetter Bynner; and 'Home Sanitation: a Manual for Housekeepers,' edited by Ellen H. Richards and Marion Talbot.

Mr. Frank D. Millet, the well-known artist, has translated into English Count Leo Tolstoi's powerful work entitled 'Scenes from the Siege of Sebastopol.' His intimate knowledge of the Russian people and Russian life should be a guarantee of his success in this task. The translation is introduced by a chapter on Tolstoi from the pen of W. D. Howells, and the book, which contains a portrait of the author, will be shortly issued by Harper & Brothers. They announce also 'Horsemanship for Women,' by Mr. Theodore H. Mead, with forty-one illustrations by Gray-Parker.

The Memoirs of the Margravine of Baireuth, eldest daughter of Frederick William I. of Prussia, translated by the Princess Christian, will be published in this country by Scribner & Welford.

The Worthington Co. will be the American publishers of Swinburne's 'Select Poems.'

'The Republic of the Future,' a satirical anti-Socialistic brochure by Mrs. Anna Bowman Dodd, is announced by Cassell & Co.

Prof. Wm. G. Hale's address before the recent meeting of the Classical and High-School Teachers' Association of New England, entitled 'Aims and Methods of Classical Study,' is in the press of Ginn & Co.

A. D. F. Randolph & Co. announce 'The Bible History,' in six volumes, by Alfred Edersheim, D.D., author of 'The Life and Times of Jesus the Messiah.' Also, an edition of the 'Memorials of William E. Dodge,' the first edition of which was printed for private distribution.

'The Life and Times of Jesus, as related by Thomas Didymus,' by James Freeman Clarke, just published by Lee & Shepard of Boston, is a reissue of a book which appeared in 1881 with the title 'The Legend of Thomas Didymus, the Jewish Sceptic.' No notice is given in the book of the fact of its having formerly appeared with a different title.

We have already referred to the technical part of Prof. Angelo Heilprin's report on the expedition undertaken by the Wagner Institute of Philadelphia, with the assistance of Mr. Joseph Willcox, to southwest Florida during the winter of 1885–86. The complete report is now issued, with an introduction by Dr. Leidy, a narrative of the journey by Prof. Heilprin, some additional descriptions of new species, and eighteen plates of new fossils, etc., made by an apparently new phototypic and rather murky process called the Levytype. The report will be of much value to all interested in the geology and palæontology of the region, and is creditable alike to the Wagner Institute and to the exertions of Messrs. Heilprin and Willcox.

Mr. W. J. Loftie's literary-historical 'Windsor Castle,' which, after running through the *Portfolio*, appeared in book form some two years ago, was originally written in a vein of rather effusive "loyalty." To give the book a "Jubilee Edition" was therefore both natural and easy, and this Macmillan & Co. have just done. Bidding good-bye to the *Portfolio* form, which had been determined by etchings now abandoned, the publishers have chosen a duodecimo of fair dimensions, scarlet-covered, illustrated with numerous cuts in the text, and with a phototype copy of Boehm's sitting statue of the Queen for a frontispiece. The print is large, and the price much below that of the larger edition.

An opposite policy has been pursued by Macmillan & Co. in the case of the "Victoria Edition" of Shakspere's works. Here a smaller, one-volume edition, the "Globe," with the text of W. G. Clark and W. Aldis Wright, has been expanded into three volumes, 12mo—the Comedies in the first, the Histories in the second, and the Tragedies and Poems in the third. A simple binding in green cloth has been given them. The page is in double columns, and the letter-press is clear, if compact. There are no introductions or notes, the "Globe" having had none. The price is wonderfully cheap, and would hardly have been possible before the Victorian era.

We commend, as we have done their predecessors, the latest volumes, xiii to xvi, in the Library Edition of the Waverley Novels (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.). They are, in order, 'The Pirate,' 'The Fortunes of Nigel,' 'Peveril of the Peak,' and 'Quentin Durward.' The large and liberal style of this edition makes it very attractive to eyes that admire fine typography, or need to be favored with print that can safely be read by candlelight.

Prof. Franklin B. Dexter's 'Sketch of the History of Yale University' (Henry Holt & Co.) is a thin, neatly-printed volume of about 100 pages, compactly setting forth what needs to be known, in due sequence to the present administration. Those who wish for detail on the earlier periods can find it in Prof. Dexter's 'Biographical Sketches of the Graduates of Yale College,' of which the first volume appeared two years ago and the second is in preparation. Other sources are mentioned in the short bibliography which succeeds the curious statistics that follow the main narrative. What is true of Yale, that the graduates bearing the name of Smith lead in number, with Williamses in the second place, is true also of Harvard and perhaps of some other colleges.

"The Gentleman's Magazine Library, being a classified collection of the chief contents of the *Gentleman's Magazine* from 1731 to 1868, edited by George Laurence Gomme, F.S.A." (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), has reached Part 1 of 'Romano-British Remains,' an octavo volume of 297 pages. It contains the accounts of local discoveries in England in the several counties, arranged alphabetically, as far as Somersetshire. The remaining counties of England, together with Wales and Scotland, stations, roads, etc., notes and index, are reserved for Part 2. This most useful compilation is introduced by a discussion by Mr. Gomme, in twenty-one pages, of the character of the Roman occupation of Britain, and the classification of the remains. Mr. Gomme takes issue with Mr. Coote and Mr. Seebohm on the question of the Romans in Britain, holding that their occupation was exclusively military: "that the Roman conquerors found the country occupied by tribes of more or less barbarous people, and they left it with the tribal organization still practically unbroken." This view, arrived at by the examination of classical and other sources of knowledge, appears to him to be sustained by the evidence of archæology. Mr. Seebohm's argument from the fact that "our modern villages are very often on these old Roman, and sometimes probably pre-Roman sites," he holds to be neutralized by the facts that the Saxon cultivator often turned "the site of the Roman villa into arable lands," and "that Roman villas by no means implied Roman villages; that for the instances which Mr. Seebohm advances where continuity in the occupation of one site may be shown by archæology, there are innumerable instances where archæology shows no such continuity."

There comes to us the first number of *Spelling*, "a magazine devoted to the simplification of English orthografy" (Boston: Library Bureau; London: Trübner & Co.). It is dated May, 1887. "Everything," we read, "that practically concerns spelling, and is wurth printing, wil be welcum to the pages of this periodical. The Spelling Reform Association, whose policy we shal follow, refers all theoretical and scientific alfabetic questions to the experts of the Philological Association. We shal set forth the views of the filologists. Articls in dissent from these views wil be admitted, and wil be answerd." But the main object of this periodical is to popularize the reform. As our extract shows, the (partially) amended orthography is employed.

The June number of the *Antiquary* contains several interesting papers, but none of special importance, except the conclusion of Prof. Conway's 'Exercitium super Pater noster.' This article gives much interesting information with regard to early printing, and arrives at the conclusion that the book in question was printed before 1440. Of "Old Storied Houses" we have Harvington Hall in Worcestershire; of "London Theatres," Whitefriars. "The Early Custody of Domesday Book," by J. H. Round, is directed

against the opinion of Hubert Hall, that this document, from about 1108, was preserved at Westminster; the article is to be continued. Other articles of interest are on Kentish neolithic implements, the Maltese nobility, the earthquake at Lisbon, and the Selden Society.

The *Magazine of American History* for July prints two of the papers read at the recent sessions of the American Historical Association in Boston. The more important of the two is that of President Winsor, on the "Manuscript Sources of American History—the Conspicuous Collections Extant," an extremely valuable indication for the student, and, we hope it may prove, an incentive to families which still preserve their own archives, of national moment, either to put them in the nation's custody or to insure them against destruction—following the example of the Adamses. Dr. A. B. Hart, instructor in history in Harvard, writes with a light touch the "Biography of a River and Harbor Bill," namely, that of 1887, which the President killed by not signing. This is a useful piece of work, and we wish it might have a circulation beyond the readers of the *Magazine*.

The relation between the postal rates on books and the sphere of the circulating libraries is not often considered; but the sixty-sixth annual report of the Directors of the Mercantile Library of this city favors the movement, which failed at the last session of Congress, to get a lower rate, inasmuch as it would enable this library to supply a demand for books from parts of the country where no library exists. In the same report we read: "It has been observed that as the number of cheap and poorly printed books multiply, the tastes of our readers become more fastidious and exacting. Books printed before the present glut of cheap literature, the typography of which appeared to be perfectly satisfactory at the time they were issued, are now refused, and editions with more legible texts demanded. As has frequently been the case, these books have not been issued in any other form; therefore it has not been possible for us to comply with the demands of some of our readers."

The twentieth annual report of the Trustees of the Peabody Museum of American Archæology and Ethnology is one of the most interesting of the series, particularly in the minute account, by Prof. Putnam, of the examination of mounds in the valley of the Little Miami River, Ohio, last fall. The Museum is in urgent need of enlargement, the plans for which are already under way.

It seems a little like the introduction of opéra-bouffe into real life when the Hydrographic Office announces, with all seriousness, that two quarts of oil an hour is sufficient to prevent much damage to ships in heavy seas. Mineral oils are said not to be so effective as vegetable or animal. The best result is obtained in deep water; but the use of oil is also recommended in a surf or where water is breaking on a bar.

Overruling a Scotch court, the House of Lords has sustained Dr. Caird, Professor of Moral Philosophy in the University of Glasgow, in his contention that he has a right of property in his lectures, as against students who report them for sale, and publishers who buy and print them. The question was a somewhat knotty one.

The fifth to ninth parts of Richard Andree's 'Allgemeiner Handatlas' (second edition) have been received by Westermann & Co. The maps are admirably executed, and present a good deal of novelty in the selection. Germany, of course, is particularly well served, and shown in almost every aspect, from physical conformation to language, religions, and mean temperature. Especially noteworthy in Europe is the map of the Balkan Peninsula, which we must still regard as a war-map of the future. Its fellow in that respect is the map of Central Asia and Further India, showing Russia's points of contact with British India through Afghanistan, and with China. Another useful Asiatic map embraces Eastern China and Corea. Germans have a special but not exclusive interest in the map of New Guinea and the Bismarck Archipelago, for comparison with which in area a map of Southwestern Germany, on the same scale, is annexed. We see the spreading of Germany, also, in the special map of German East Africa, which includes the great equatorial Nile lakes and Tanganyika. Very good to have, too, is the general map of Northeast Africa, whose compass takes in the territory from the Persian Gulf to the Upper Congo, and from Athens to the southern shore of the Victoria Nyanza. There is a fine map of the whole continent of Africa, with the international stakings-out called States, and a large and full one of Egypt. The maps of North America, the United States as a whole, and the Pacific States group, recommend this atlas to American buyers.

Dr. Theodor Barth has published (No. 1, 8 of the Popular Questions of the Day, *Volkswirthschaftliche Zeitfragen*, Berlin: Simion), in a modest pamphlet of thirty-one pages, under the title of 'Amerikanisches Wirthschaftsleben,' a summary of a lecture first printed in his journal, the Berlin *Nation*, on his impressions of America. As a Liberal member of the German Reichstag, as an experienced administrative officer in Bremen, where the German population stands in close commercial relations with America, and as the editor of a leading organ of anti-Bismarckian ideas, commercial, financial, and political, Dr. Barth is admirably fitted to interpret American economical opinions to his own countrymen. He regrets that American economists have not given more attention to the study of local prices, and thus made the groundwork for a better knowledge of home affairs, and deplores the time spent in threshing out the old truths of European and especially English writers. The Americans, with their wealth of endowments, ought to be able to correct the common errors still too prevalent abroad of the conditions of life in the United States. The publications of the Berlin Economical Society, of which Dr. Barth's pamphlet is the latest number, are well worth noting. Among its earlier issues are papers on American Harvests, by F. Kapp, on the Results of American Competition in Europe, by A. von Totis, and on a variety of topics, touching land, labor, wages, socialism, pauperism, education, discussed by men of recognized authority.

The tenth volume of the 'Catalogue général de la librairie française depuis 1840,' by Otto Lorenz (Paris: Lorenz; Boston: Schoenhof), is now in course of publication. We have already had occasion to notice the first numbers of the supplementary volumes (ix and x) which will complete the work to the end of 1885. The fascicule of nearly 400 large 8vo pages, just published, ends near the beginning of the letter P.

The "Bibliothèque Patriotique et Républicaine" (Paris: L. Boulanger; Boston: Schoenhof) is to be selected in a spirit diametrically opposed to that which presides over the choice in the "Nouvelle Bibliothèque Populaire," the similar Catholic publication, though both will have much common ground, as Molière, Corneille, and Racine already appear in each. The cover, as well as the name, of this newly started collection, which takes as its sub-title 'Les Livres du Peuple,' unmistakably indicates its object. Liberty is shown resting her right foot upon a tiara, and her left hand upon a slab on which are inscribed the words, "Les droits de l'homme." This series, like its fellow, is published at ten centimes a number. As yet only the first twenty numbers have been announced. The last we have seen, the tenth, is a very good selection from M. Jules Claretie's 'Les Derniers Montagnards.' Previously, two of M. Charles Floquet's speeches made up a volume, notably the one called "Le Cléricalisme," delivered at Lyons in 1880.

An expedition in charge of Prof. David P. Todd of Amherst College, sent out under the auspices of the National Academy of Sciences, and of Prof. Simon Newcomb, Superintendent of the Nautical Almanac, to observe the total eclipse of the sun in Japan, is now on its way across the Pacific in the *Abyssinia*, the first steamer of the line to Yokohama newly established by the Canadian Pacific Railway Company. On landing, about July 5, the party will proceed at once to Tokio, where, upon conference with the officers of the Japanese Meteorological Service, the precise point of observation will be determined. This is expected to be somewhere in the region within a hundred miles to the north and west of Tokio, the capital itself lying just outside the path of total eclipse. The work of the party will be photographic in the main, the Observatory of Harvard College coöperating in the specialized research upon the sun's corona. On the invitation of Prof. Todd, William J. Holland, Ph.D., the distinguished entomologist, is attached to the party, and will report upon the natural history of the expedition.

—*Scribner's* opens its second volume with an admirable number, and yet the high grade of its articles is so evenly sustained, and their interest is so equal, that one does not at once realize the excellence of this magazine. In the present issue, the portrait of Napoleon which serves as a frontispiece introduces a second series of selections from Mr. Ropes's cabinet of prints illustrating the times of the Empire, and, by its heavier and materialized expression, prepares us for the second period of Bonaparte's career, which is rapidly sketched. All these later portraits are indicative of a gross change from the noble youthfulness of the early ones, and, though power remains, charm has faded from the features. The attractive face of Wolfe, and the characteristic English vigor and manliness of Wellington's profile, together with some fine caricatures, give further distinction to one of the best of portrait articles. Thackeray's letters naturally stand first in literary interest, and in this last instalment there is no flagging; one feels almost a friendly obligation to the Brookfields for being admitted to peruse such human memorials of a great man's private life, so pleasant in themselves, and more charming for what they reveal of the author's self. The letters of Eliza Southgate Bowne, written in her girlhood eighty years ago, promise some interior views of old New York; but the first bundle of them is confined to the fashion of Portland, Salem, and Boston, to a Saratoga tour with the Derbys, and her own wedding journey. Very bright they are, and no doubt full of interest to maidens of the Newport era and the relics of the old American families. Dr. Sargent opens the number with an exposition of his methods of measuring the body and charting the data so as to determine the variation of any example from the normal; and though the article is only preparatory, his suggestions are of the highest practical value to athletic associations and all interested in physical development. In his own phraseology, he is opening a chapter in a new science, anthropometry, in the utility of which he expresses great confidence. We must find space to mention, also, Mr. W. C. Brownell's very careful article upon the national character of the French, which is of an enlightening kind, though burdened in its earlier portion by a strange mixture of sociology, architecture, and nationalities. We like his observation and his reasoning on it far better than his philosophizing

about history. The fiction is plentiful and entertaining.

—*Harper's* for July keeps even closer to the material facts of the age than is its custom. It presents little more than information in its pages, if one excepts its not remarkably imaginative fiction; and the interest which attaches to the number is that which belongs to facts simply as such. The processes which a book is put through in the making are the subject of its leading article, and are exhaustively described and well illustrated. The life of the cadets at West Point is treated with similar thoroughness, and gives occasion for some effective cuts; and "A Central Soudan Town" is the title of the third body-article, which also reaches the same high standard of execution in the literature of popular instruction. The perennial topic of the New South is utilized for a paper of mingled travel and fiction of the sort in which Mr. Warner's "Their Pilgrimage" was the pioneer; but it takes a peculiar talent to reconcile the diverse interests, and in this particular case the fiction is as transparent a fraud on the reader as were the children's moral stories of a generation ago. Mr. Warner is not at his best in his "Mexican Notes," which afford another chapter of facts. There is variety enough in this list, but the informing spirit and method of it are singularly monotonous; the intellectual life it represents is one of unrelieved materialism, and were it not for the very slight exception of Dr. Ely's paper on corporations, one would be forced to say that thought has no place in the body of this number.

—Prof. Conrad of Halle, in a recent series of articles on the evils of a cultured proletariat, undertakes to show that the danger to be apprehended from this source is much more formidable than any to be feared from an ignorant proletariat. It appears that the number of university students in Germany, which, twenty years ago, was 13,400, had risen to 17,800 ten years ago, and is now 28,000; during the last five years the number of students has increased twenty-six per cent., while the increase of population was only five per cent. It is shown by undoubted statistics that all the professions and trades which demand special training are becoming greatly overcrowded, and that a large and constantly increasing number of men who, at the sacrifice of not a few of the best years of their life, and considerable expense, have acquired a classical education, and have given evidence of ability, are forced to wait for years before they can obtain suitable positions. The inevitable consequence of this state of things, says Conrad, is a growing discontent among these classes, often stimulated by the pressure of actual need, and a lamentable disinclination to form family relations. Another consequence is the frequent abandonment of the profession for which a man has been trained, and the attempt to begin life over again in a new calling—a change involving the loss of years of training. Many, again, resort to emigration, and thus Germany loses some of her most promising sons, while those who remain form an element of discontent, and are only too ready to swell the ranks of the socialistic agitators. It is admitted that this overcrowding and competition has resulted in a demand for higher qualifications for all positions of responsibility, but this is considered a very insufficient compensation for the evil consequences. One of the chief causes of this condition of things is said to be the current prejudice in favor of intellectual as compared with manual labor—a prejudice which Conrad looks upon as a natural consequence of the highly developed school system, together with the strong bias towards classical culture, which, in Germany, secures for its possessor a higher degree of respect and social standing than is the case in any other country. Not only is a knowledge of Latin required in almost all civil-service positions, but it is said to be difficult for a man who does not possess a classical training to obtain due recognition of his abilities in any profession. Hence the necessity which parents feel of sending their children to the gymnasium, if they wish them to enter one of the learned professions.

—The course in the gymnasium is criticised as requiring too long a time, and it is shown that in 1885 51 per cent. of the *Abiturienten*, or pupils who had completed the gymnasium course, were over twenty years of age, and 27 per cent. were over twenty-one. The complaint is also made that in these schools two much stress is laid upon abstract mental work, so that not only are habits of observation not formed, but the faculty of observing closely is almost lost, while the entire attention of the pupil is drawn away from practical objects and directed towards intellectual culture. It may be well enough for the rich to educate their sons in this manner, but for the average man, who has to make his own fight for existence under many disadvantages, such an education is more hurtful than helpful. It enlarges the number of his daily wants, and if the means of satisfying these be lacking, the result is apt to be restlessness, discontent, and a distaste for the routine of business or industrial life. Moreover, many youths are carried through the gymnasium from class to class and pushed on to the university who possess no real desire or special aptitude for a scholarly life. For this the custom, which so largely obtains in German universities, of bestowing stipends upon needy students is in great measure responsible. It should be said that these stipends come from four different sources—the national exchequer, the university funds, city and school scholarships, and family or other private scholarships. The last class may be left out of the question, as they stand upon a different footing from the others. From the first two sources over $125,000 was distributed among German students in the year 1885-6, and it is estimated that from the third source nearly the same amount was expended, making in all about $250,000 bestowed annually in this way. The difficulty of obtaining exact information as to the number of students thus aided is very great, hence only an approximate estimate of their number can be formed. Judging, however, from the statistics available, it is safe to say that more than 25 per cent. of the German students are in receipt of more or less support from public funds. It is said that in cities where this system of stipends or scholarships is fully developed, it is often easier for a mechanic to help his son to a parsonage than to a position as a master mechanic; and every year large numbers of needy students, provided with letters of recommendation, are sent up to the universities, which find themselves obliged to provide for the needs of these beneficiaries without any certainty of bestowing their aid upon worthy recipients.

—M. Octave Uzanne's new essay on modern book-binding, 'La Reliure Moderne' (Paris: Rouveyre; New York: F. W. Christern), appears in a sumptuous quarto with sixty Dujardin photogravures, probably the best display of beautifully bound books ever contained in a single volume, and certainly the most novel and original, not to say eccentric. No doubt M. Uzanne himself would be the first to acknowledge that these engravings are of greater interest and of more importance than the characteristically rambling essays which they accompany—we were about to say illustrate, but this is exactly what they fail to do, as there is scarcely the slightest connection between the text and the plates. The text consists of five lively little essays on historic book-binding and those who have written about it, on the bibliophiles of to-day and the decoration of their books, on full bindings, on half bindings, and on fancy bindings. In the main M. Uzanne's book is a plea for unconventionality and freer fantasy. He protests against the slavish imitation of the great binders of the past, and advocates a more modern development of the art. He suggests the employment of a wider range of materials than those to be found in ordinary binders' shops; he advocates the use of old brocades, of Oriental stuffs, of Japanese leather-papers, and of the skins of animals not habitually employed. He urges a unity between cover and contents. In every binding there should be an appropriateness to the book or its author or its subject. From M. Uzanne's pages we should be inclined to think that alligator and seal bindings are almost unknown in France, and that tree-calf—a beautiful but frail binding—is almost forgotten there. We have not space to give the attention to the plates that they deserve. We may note only the best bit of irony in binding we have ever seen. There is an engraving here of M. Philippe Burty's copy of 'Napoléon le Petit,' bound in morocco, with a deep panel on one side, in which there is set one of the embroidered bees from the throne of Napoleon III., taken from the Tuileries after Sedan.

—The Nahuatl Dictionary of Rémi Siméon is a recent literary achievement of such vast labor and importance that a short review can hardly do justice to it. The author has endeavored to gather into one volume all the terms and proper nouns of the literary Mexican language found in the earlier dictionaries, histories, prayer-books, translations, and other Aztec texts. He took as a base to work upon the second edition (1571) of A. de Molina's Mexican Dictionary, as being the only comprehensive collection of words from the period when Aztec was still spoken in its purity, and thus succeeded in gathering about 27,000 items. Wherever it could be done with safety, the terms of the language have been reduced to their radicals or bases; of the verbs, the preterit and sometimes the future forms are indicated, thus showing whether the verb is construed with the personal (*te*) or the inanimate-object particle (*tla*), or with both. In the case of the nouns, the author has been careful to mention the forms of the plural, which is often double; for their better elucidation, an array of phrases and sentences is often added to words having many meanings. The definitions are well selected and to the point, and the authorities for statements are added whenever it seemed desirable to refer to them. From Siméon's list of those consulted, it would seem as if the vulgar Aztec language of the present day had been excluded from the book, though we have found no allusion to this circumstance. The introduction contains a grammar of the early Aztec, composed after that of Andrea de Olmos, the oldest but substantially accurate grammar of this Indian language (1547), which had been previously edited by M. Siméon. The sounds of the language are not described with all the precision desirable—a too common fault in similar works. Another part of the introduction reproduces the classification of all the Indian tongues spoken in the Mexican States from Pimentel's 'Cuadro' (1865), a work itself based upon Orozco y Berra. This classification is so full of evident errors that its presence in this volume can but be deeply regretted. The Dictionary was printed at the expense of the French Government at the "Imprimerie Nationale," and forms a beautiful large quarto volume of nearly eight hundred pages. Thus far only the Nahuatl-French part has been published; whether a French-Nahuatl part is contemplated or not, we have not learned.

RECENT RAILWAY PUBLICATIONS.

Railway Practice: Its Principles and Suggested Reforms Reviewed. By E. Porter Alexander. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1887.

Railway Rates, English and Foreign. By J. Grierson, General Manager of the Great Western Railway. London: Edward Stanford. 1886.

Railway Problems: An Inquiry into the Economic Conditions of Railway Working in Different Countries. By J. S. Jeans. London: Longmans. 1887.

The Handling of Railway Supplies: Their Purchase and Disposition. By Marshall M. Kirkman. Chicago: Charles N. Triviss. 1887.

THE growth of this kind of railroad literature in the last two years is something remarkable. Previous to this time, books on railroad administration were rare, and the few that existed were of a somewhat technical character. They dealt either with railroad engineering, railroad law, or the minor details of railroad operation. To-day, however, we have treatises on railroad economy in the broader sense; on the earnings and expenditures of railroads in their relation to the interests of the general public.

Gen. Alexander's book is a short one, but it contains no lack of vigorous and useful matter. He deals with the principles which govern railroad rates; and, unlike many of those who have written on this subject, he speaks from practical experience. He first describes at some length the actual scheme of rates which prevails in the United States; the way in which competitive and non-competitive points are treated; and the systems adopted by various traffic associations in forming their schedules of charge. His extracts from the rate-book of the trunk lines give an excellent idea of how railroad tariffs look. Most persons who read his pages for the first time will be astonished to find how small a proportion of our older tariffs violated the "long-and-short haul" principle. In one respect Gen. Alexander's presentation of the case is too favorable for the railroads. A reader who should take his ideas from this book alone, would not imagine how largely the practice of granting special rates had been abused. He would overestimate the importance of the tariff schedule and underestimate the deviations from it. But almost every one who reads this book will read some other book that falls into the opposite error, and the one will fairly enough offset the other.

Gen. Alexander next criticises proposed plans of railway reform developed by Prof. Ely and Mr. Hudson. He shows the difficulties involved in Mr. Ely's plan of State control, not merely as a matter of administration, but as a matter of political corruption; pointing out that the very dangers of which Mr. Ely complains to-day would be aggravated rather than lessened by a system of State ownership. Against Mr. Hudson's plan, by which the carriers were to be separate from the railroads, he brings up the old objections which occur to every railroad man, and a new one which is worth noticing:

"It must ever remain impossible," he says, "for many rival carriers to *occupy the same depots and make up their trains with shifting engines in the same yard.* Each carrier must have his own yards and terminal facilities. But available space for such facilities in our large cities can only be had at enormous expense. A few large transportation companies would speedily be formed who would monopolize the entire transportation business of the country. Small carriers could not possibly gain or maintain a footing against them. And the large companies would speedily unite and pool or divide territory. If Mr. Hudson had started out to devise a plan by which the transportation interests of the United States could be most rapidly consolidated into the most complete and irresponsible monopoly possible, he could not have suggested anything half so certain and speedy of operation as what he has suggested to bring about the very opposite result."

Mr. Grierson's book does for England on a somewhat larger scale what Gen. Alexander does for America. That is to say, it takes specific instances of English railroad tariffs and defends them against their critics. The book is not exactly of a kind to command general interest—at any rate, outside of England—but it is extremely good in its way. In the recent Parliamentary investigations, Mr. Grierson has habitually presented the general case for the English railroads very much as it has been done by Mr. Blanchard or Mr. Fink in the United States. He therefore writes as an advocate, though by no means as an extremist. There is nothing particularly new in his conclusions, but the facts by which he supports them are fresh and often highly instructive. To most American readers the chief interest will lie in seeing how the long-and-short-haul difficulty which is now perplexing the Inter-State Commerce Commission has come up in nearly the same form and extent in England and on the continent of Europe. The selections from English and Continental tariffs, though made with a view to refute a pamphlet of Sir Bernhard Samuelson, are well chosen and extremely convenient. We know of no other place where this material is so fairly presented to the English reader.

Mr. Jeans's book is disappointing. It is handsomely got up, and the general scheme looks interesting. But the writer is quite incompetent to deal with the subject; and, what is still more surprising in a professed statistician, he is careless in the use of figures. A few examples will suffice: On page 102 he gives the average earnings of the United States railroads per train mile in 1883 as eight shillings. They actually were only about two-thirds of this sum, and any one at all familiar with the facts of the case would have seen that this was an error. In fact, Mr. Jeans himself in one place in his book gives substantially the right figures; but he habitually uses the wrong one as a basis of his reasoning, and apparently does not notice the inconsistency. This mistake, however, shows in worse colors when we attempt to see how it arose. The earnings per train mile are, of course, determined by dividing the gross traffic earnings by the total train mileage. Now, Mr. Jeans's figure for the gross earnings is somewhat wrong, being a little too high. His figure for the train mileage is so absolutely wrong that it is impossible even to guess what he based it on. And, finally, if we divide his dividend by his divisor, we do not get his quotient. He seems to have acted on the principle that bad reasoning from bad premises might bring out a good result.

Examples might be multiplied almost indefinitely. One of the most remarkable is on page 68, where he makes out that in the year 1884 the percentage of dividends on railroads in the United States rose to five and four-tenths; whereas it was actually less than two and five-tenths, according to the figures given in Poor's Manual. And when it comes to dealing with facts, our author is as badly off as when he deals with figures. He says that in the United States there is a system commonly known as pooling or dividing the traffic receipts, which "has no exact counterpart in other countries"; that in the United Kingdom much the same results are arrived at by an arrangement as to rates and fares; and that on the continent of Europe neither system prevails to any great extent. It is simply incredible that a man could have been in Mr. Jeans's position as Secretary of the British Iron Trade Association and not know anything more about the facts. So far from neither system prevailing on the continent of Europe, both systems have been applied, as a matter of course more uniformly than in England or America, while in England competing traffic has been divided by no less high an authority than Mr. Gladstone himself; and English pooling arrangements have been the exact counterpart of those in the United States, except that they have been more steadily maintained.

Nor is our author any more trustworthy in the use which he makes of the facts which he has. In trying to determine the comparative economy of State and private management, he takes as a standard the percentage of administrative expenses to other operating expenses. Now, of course, such a percentage might be made to appear low by wastefulness in other items precisely as well as by economy in administrative ones. The comparison proves nothing. In point of fact, the question whether the percentage of administrative expenses is large or small depends almost entirely upon the extent of railways concentrated under a single management. In the majority of cases the State, where it owns part of the railroads, will have the main system and the companies the local lines. Where the case is reversed, as in France, the relation of the figures will be reversed. This is a perfectly simple and commonplace explanation of the facts on which Mr. Jeans lays so much stress.

It is a pity that the book is so untrustworthy; for if its figures and facts could be relied on, it would meet a real want. But we are bound to say that Mr. Jeans has not made use of a great many sources of information which were open to him, and that those of which he has availed himself have been carelessly used. It shows how little knowledge of railroad administration there is among economists and statisticians that the substance of this book should have been published in the Journal of the Statistical Society and in the Bulletin de l'Institut International de Statistique without meeting destructive criticism.

Mr. Kirkman is well known as a railroad man of experience and a somewhat voluminous writer on matters of railroad administration. What he says is generally good, but a little more care in putting it together would be greatly to the reader's advantage. The author is kept so busy by his practical work that he does not always find time to condense his ideas before he puts them in print. Some of the most amusing instances of carelessness occur in the index, from which we select a few headings by way of illustration: *Cause* of Envy; *Effect* of Climate on Coal—of Envy—of Saving; *Facilities*, lack of; *Fruit* of Riches; *How* to Acquire Wealth. In one sense these are trifles, but they indicate slovenly preparation which seriously detracts from the merit of the book.

BRITISH POWER IN INDIA.

The Rise of the British Power in the East. By the late Hon. Mountstuart Elphinstone. Edited by Sir Edward Colebrooke, Bart. London: Murray. 1887.

THE addition of this portly volume to the vast, dreary, and increasing mountain of Anglo-Indian literature is wholly without excuse. The Hon. Mountstuart Elphinstone was an able and accomplished member of the Indian Civil Service, who, after a distinguished official career, devoted the evening of his days to literary pursuits. Among other books, he projected a history of India from the earliest times to his own day, but he published during his own lifetime only those portions of it which dealt with the Hindu and Mohammedan periods. The present volume, which is concerned with the rise of British power in the East and the earlier exploits of Clive, has been published from manuscripts he left behind him. Had it appeared at the time it was written,

as an episode in a larger and continuous history, it would have needed no apology. Moreover, at that time the subject still retained something of novelty and freshness. But it so happens that, since Mr. Elphinstone's death, the story of the adventures, battles, and victories of Clive and his immediate successors has been told and retold several times over; and these pages do not add a single fact to those which Macaulay's well-known essay has made familiar to all readers.

In another way the treatment of the subject is grievously defective. Historians of British India have invariably fastened upon the campaigns —upon the records of battles and sieges—and have recounted these at tedious length, as if in them were comprised all that was of importance in the substitution of British rule for the sway of the native princes of India. Actually, in their consequences to the country and the people, these were of small significance compared with another series of facts which they have almost or wholly ignored. There was a man of that time who, though he had never been in India, apprehended the vital significance of this other series with the insight of genius; and in the great Indian speeches of Edmund Burke, and in his celebrated "Ninth Report," the student of history will learn more of the inner character of that marvellous revolution which conferred the sovereignty of the East upon a British trading corporation than in all the (so called) histories of that occurrence. To this hour the frightful poverty of the Indian agricultural classes is the difficulty which has baffled all the skill, thought, and ingenuity of Indian administrators. In spite of roads, railways, and canals, in spite of assessments which, *on paper*, can be demonstrated to be moderation itself, the Indian agriculturist insists upon remaining a wretched, unclothed, insufficiently nourished, and hopelessly indebted creature. His life is a life of toil, with nothing brighter than fever, cholera, or famine as its final goal. And yet it can be shown, beyond all reasonable question, that before the rising of British rule the state of this same ryot, notwithstanding the seemingly incessant disorder of the country, was sufficiently prosperous. Now, it was during the rise of British power in the East that the seeds of this dire poverty were sown. They were not perceived until they had, so to speak, struck vigorous root in the soil; and as with certain noxious grasses, well known to the Indian agriculturists, which spring up in the standing crops, spread abroad with appalling rapidity, and defy all efforts at eradication, so has it been with the after consequences of these early errors. Their true nature never having been understood—not being understood to this day—they have positively flourished upon the futile attempts to remove them out of the land. In his "Ninth Report" and his Indian speeches, Burke has pointed out the cause, in the unnatural combination, namely, of sovereignty and commerce in the mercantile rulers of India. The East India Company were driven by the exigencies of their position to treat their Indian Empire just as an Irish absentee landlord of the old time, and with extravagant inclinations, treated the tenants on his estates. Every farthing of surplus revenue was swept out of the country, year after year, in order to win the good-will of Ministers and provide dividends for the proprietors of East India stock. Under such a system, a lavish scale of expenditure in India itself presented itself to Anglo-Indian officials in the light of a virtue. There was, in fact, a perpetual struggle going on between the authorities in Calcutta and the Directors in Leadenhall Street as to the partition of the Indian revenues between them; and Burke has shown, with astonishing power and insight, the ruin wrought upon the trade, the manufactures, and the agriculture of India by this unnatural strife—a ruin from which the people have never recovered.

Of all these things Mr. Mountstuart Elphinstone would appear to have been ignorant. He is at least altogether silent respecting them. His history is a mere "drum-and-trumpet" affair, made up of "alarums," "skirmishes," and the like incidents. The Indian peninsula is, literally, the "theatre of war," and nothing besides. There might have been no inhabitants in it for all that we are permitted to hear about them. We do not mean to say that Mr. Elphinstone is, in this respect, a worse sinner than other of his countrymen who have written upon the same subject. All alike have deliberately turned aside from the path of inquiry which Burke was the first to open out. But the fact that Mr. Elphinstone had only walked in the old well-worn rut ought, we think, to have convinced his editor that the publication of the present volume was a waste of time and trouble.

Mr. Elphinstone, however, though he has nothing new to tell us, relates the old story with simplicity and spirit. And the founding of the British Empire in India is a history so strange and marvellous that it will stand a great many readings. The people of India, if they are impatient under subjection to an alien rule, must acknowledge, if they are candid, that the blame rests wholly with themselves. The odds were all on their side. Their princes commanded thousands, where Clive and Lawrence and Adams commanded but their tens. The world has never witnessed acts of more splendid audacity than the manner in which unknown captains and majors hurled their three or four hundred English soldiers against armies of eight and ten thousand Orientals holding entrenched positions, heavily mounted with artillery. After his varied experience of war, the Duke of Wellington said that, in the quality of reckless daring, no troops he had ever seen were the equals of the English regiments in India; and the incidents recorded in this volume are an abundant confirmation of this judgment. Take, for example, the battle of Udha-nálá. The army of the Bengal subahdar, 60,000 strong, was protected by a line of entrenchments, beyond which was a deep wet ditch fifty or sixty feet broad; and the position was further defended by one hundred guns. Major Adams attacked this huge host at the head of 700 Englishmen and 2,000 Sepoys, and utterly defeated it. The exploits of the small French armies, in the days of their greatness, were no less astonishing; and though the losses sustained in these actions look small, yet, relatively to the numbers engaged, they were very heavy, and indicate in the clearest way the indomitable pluck and endurance of the European soldiers. Curious, too, is it to contrast the behavior of the great Frenchmen of those early times, Dupleix and Bussy, with their English rivals, Clive and Hastings.

In these, its early days, the English East India Company had no higher ambition than to carry on a profitable trade with India. It dreamed not of conquest or empire. Its existence was, in truth, a precarious one. Its monopoly was an object of jealousy to the merchants of Great Britain, and it was obliged to be constantly upon its guard against the assaults of formidable rivals. Under these circumstances, its chief care was to efface itself as much as possible, to undertake no action of a kind to excite public attention and comment. The French East India Company, on the contrary, was the "spoiled darling" of the French monarchy. The Government freely supplied it with subsidies. Its leading officials were nominated by the State, and French Ministers took an active part in determining, not its commercial proceedings, but its political conduct towards the native princes. To Dupleix belongs the credit of having been the first to discover how, by means of a small body of European troops, skilfully employed, a French empire might be carved out of the crumbling ruins of the great Delhi monarchy. All his alliances with the native sovereigns were regulated so as to aid in the realizing of this idea. In the end, however, as Mr. Elphinstone points out, the intervention of the State at home, which seemed at first to give to the French so great a superiority over their English rivals, proved the cause of their ruin. It seemed to give them power, but, by restricting their initiative, and interfering at every step with their independence of action, it robbed them of much more than it gave. Clive could never have accomplished his great achievements had he been the servant of an English Minister dictating directions to him from his office in London. Next to his own audacity and fearlessness, he owed his success to the fact of his independence; but, unlike the French, his policy was at no time dictated by a prevision of empire, but only by the present necessities of the situation. And this difference in their outlook would seem to have impressed itself upon their manners in a remarkable way. Mr. Elphinstone quotes the following from the French translator of the 'Seir ul Mutakherin,' in which the difference is well described:

"If any one had seen M. de Bussy and Col. Clive or Mr. Hastings in the height of their power and influence, he may have taken from these two or three individuals a pretty good idea of the different geniuses of the French and English nations. M. de Bussy always wore embroidered clothes or brocade, with an embroidered hat, and, on days of ceremony, embroidered shoes of black velvet. He was seen in an immense tent, full sufficient for 600 men, of about thirty feet in elevation; at one end of this tent he sat on an armchair, embroidered with his King's arms, placed upon an elevation, which last was covered by a crimson carpet of embroidered velvet. At his right and left, but upon back chairs only, sat a dozen of his officers. Over against him his French guard on horseback, and behind these his Turkish guards. His table, always in plate, was served with three, often with four, services. To this French magnificence he added all the parade and pageant of Hindustani manners. A numerous set of tents, always on an elephant himself, as were all his officers, he was preceded by heralds on horseback and by a set of musicians singing his feats of chivalry, with always two head heralds reciting his eulogium. Col. Clive always wore his regimentals in the field, was always on horseback, and never rode in a palanquin; he had a plentiful table, but noways delicate, and never more than two services. He used to march mostly at the head of the column with his aides-de-camp, or was hunting to the right and left. He never wore silks but in town. Gov. Hastings always wore a plain coat of English broadcloth, and never anything like lace or embroidery. His whole retinue a dozen of horseguards; his throne a plain chair of mahogany with plenty of such thrones in the hall; his table sometimes neglected; his diet sparing and always abstemious; his address and deportment very distant from pride and still more so from familiarity."

Life and Services of Gen. John A. Logan, as Soldier and Statesman. By George Francis Dawson, ex-Librarian of United States Senate. Belford, Clarke & Co. 1887. Pp. 580.

This book has all the marks of a "campaign life," prepared for use in an election and afterwards adapted to publication as a *post-mortem* biography. It has the same indiscriminate praise of the subject, the superlative estimate of all he did, the assumption that at every stage of his career he was the chief figure of his time, the belittling or depreciation of everybody who was in contact with him, the scrap-book collection of laudatory newspaper notices of him, the usual excerpts from his "great speeches." It would seem to be written by a political henchman, with all the henchman's blind adoration of the man to whose fortunes he has attached himself, and to whom he looks for place and promotion. It is a

pity that the story of Logan's life should be told in this way; for there was enough in it of the romantic and the picturesque to have made a permanently pleasing book, if the material were used by a competent literary hand, and by a writer not dominated by the habits and influences of personal and political subordination. The book would not have been so big a one, but it would have had a longer life.

Logan was a born politician of a certain type. From his nature he was nothing if not partisan. He had a boiling energy which prompted him to be in the thickest of every fray, and a certain sounding fluency that captivated the average crowd. As things have gone in American politics, this passes for political leadership, but it is a purely physical leadership. Every crowd has its leader in this sense, whether it be a respectable mass meeting or an Anarchist mob. There is nothing of intellectual leadership in it. It means simply the infusing of working or voting zeal into a mass of people, in behalf of plans, ideas, or purposes that have been thought out by somebody else, somewhere else. Logan had nothing to do with originating. Whether he was following Douglas before the war in the rash attempt to fasten slavery upon Kansas under the absurd disguise of "squatter sovereignty," or following Lincoln in the general abolition of slavery after the war began, he was the same dashing, vigorous, reckless advocate of the views and purposes which he had accepted from the more intellectual men who were for the nonce his leaders. He was sincere in his convictions, for with such a temperament convictions are as much a matter of feeling as of reason. If there was any inconsistency in his course, he was not aware of it, and was never troubled with doubts. His vanity was great and made him see all minor matters in their relation to his own personality. This kept him in a condition of chronic chafing with others which he mistook for independence; yet his instinctive regard for organization was such that he could accept a disappointment, though not with a good grace, and, saving his right to grumble, would not cease to work because he had been defeated or thwarted.

The traits thus sketched are those of a man essentially a subordinate, though of a nature strong enough to push him to the most important positions of the second class. His early education was incomplete, and, once entered upon active life, he had no time to repair its deficiencies. This put him at a disadvantage in the Senate, as it would have done at the bar had he continued in active practice; before the popular gatherings on his "stamping ground" of southern Illinois he was in his element, and there was scarce any limit to his popularity there.

His military career was one in which his best powers found their fittest field, and his weaknesses were least obvious. He was never burdened with the responsibility of independent command, and as a subordinate, putting into execution the plans and orders of his commander, he was in many respects a model officer. His courage was brilliant, and he gloried in the stimulus of a ride down his lines under the hottest fire. His enthusiasm was demonstrative and contagious, so that his troops were roused to a sympathy with his own daring that made them again and again perform prodigies of valor. He cultivated the peculiarities of bearing and of costume which gave him individuality with his soldiers. He took pride in the cognomen of "Black Jack," and would not cut the long black hair and drooping moustache which made his swarthy figure everywhere noticeable. In command of a regiment, a brigade, a division, and a corps, he had a continuous and brilliant success, though always more or less insubordinate, and wilful to an extent that diminished the satisfaction of his superiors in their relations to him. He was often despotic and unreasonable with his immediate subordinates, though kind and considerate with those so near his person as to be dependent upon him.

In both his political and military life, the character is plainly identical; but the warlike experience was one in which, in his position, the duty before him was an almost purely executive one, in which courage, dash, and energy counted for so much as to make success certain. His was the physical much more than the intellectual part of war, and in every campaign he was under men of self-reliant will and of broader intellect than his own. He was probably at his best in the command of a division, where his person could be seen by all his men at once and his example have its full effect. In the higher commands, the influence and control become more intellectual, and the exhibition of personal daring and dash would be at the sacrifice of the larger grasp of the forces which are wielded. Had he remained in command of the Army of the Tennessee after McPherson's death, there is no reasonable doubt that he would have performed his duties creditably under the eye of Sherman. His ambition would have been gratified; but with such a man as Blair for his subordinate, whose intellect was of a much higher type, his career would not have been so desirable as in command of the Fifteenth Corps, where the devotion to him was enthusiastic and where no one questioned his military preeminence.

In both phases of his life he lacked the element of content. The restless desire for something different from that which he had, prevented the full enjoyment even of his own successes; and perhaps the only moments of unalloyed pleasure were when his soldiers cheered a daring exploit, or a vast popular audience made the welkin ring at one of his happy hits or extravagant figures. It is right to add that his patriotism was genuine and his ambition a frank and honest one. His last great public grief was at the attacks of party friends upon conduct of his which was dictated by generosity to a political opponent, and he felt it the more keenly because he was conscious that his partisanship had usually gone beyond that of his party critics. No one suspected him of corruption in pecuniary matters, and he had the distinction (if, with shame, we must confess it to be a distinction in American politics) of refraining from using the means of amassing wealth which are often pressed upon public men.

The First Nine Years of the Bank of England. An Enquiry into a Weekly Record of the Price of Bank Stock from August 17, 1694, to September 17, 1703. By James E. Thorold Rogers. Macmillan & Co. 1887.

THIS essay is a digression from Prof. Rogers's 'History of Agriculture and Prices in England.' While examining material preparatory to the fifth and sixth volumes of the larger work, the author became impressed with the special importance of a few records, seldom consulted, which have preserved the early history of the Bank of England. One of these was a weekly newspaper published by John Houghton, an apothecary, from August 17, 1694, to September 17, 1703. Houghton was a Fellow of the Royal Society and a friend of the astronomer Halley. His newspaper made its appearance regularly during the nine years and was much liked by his contemporaries. Its publication was suspended, not, as newspapers are commonly discontinued, by the chills of adversity, but for the contrary reason. The last number contained a statement that the editor's business had grown to such an extent that he could no longer find time to prepare the copy for the printers. One complete file of Houghton's paper exists in the Bodleian Library. Houghton published the weekly price-lists of the shares of the Bank of England, of the two East India Companies, the Hudson's Bay Company, and the African Company; also the rate of exchange on Amsterdam and the prices of corn and other staple articles in the principal market towns. Another original source of material, and an extremely valuable one, is Luttrell's Diary, first used by Macaulay and printed at his instance by the Oxford University Press. Prof. Rogers bears testimony to the "exceeding fairness and cautious accuracy" of Macaulay. "The picturesque character of Macaulay's style," he says, "has perhaps induced some dull persons to think that he strove after mere effect, but that, after all, his realities are unreal. I can only say that I have found him scrupulously just."

The charter of the Bank of England was granted by Parliament July 24, 1694, with the prime object of obtaining a war loan of £1,200,000. The privileges granted to the Bank were upon the condition that this sum should be paid into the Exchequer within a fixed time. The right to issue notes was one of the compensations for the loan. The powers bestowed upon the Bank were analogous to those exercised by the goldsmiths, the private bankers of the period. The goldsmiths received deposits and issued their own bills for them. These bills entered into trade and passed as the equivalent of money until returned for redemption. They were not simple storage receipts, like the early bills of the banks of Venice, Genoa, and Amsterdam, but were the I O U's of the goldsmiths. It was understood that the depositors' money would be loaned and that the goldsmith-banker would keep a sufficient cash reserve to meet any probable demand for the redemption of his bills. The early banks of the Continent, on the other hand, held the identical money they received from their customers, issuing no more notes than the equivalent of the coin on deposit. They derived their profit from the premium their notes bore over the heterogeneous coins in circulation, and from certain exclusive privileges that they enjoyed in the discount of bills of exchange. There was a panic and a run on the Bank of Amsterdam in 1672. It was then found that the practice of the Bank was in strict accord with the theory—the identical pieces, and all of them, being in the vaults corresponding to the outstanding bills. The Bank of England followed the course of the London goldsmiths. "It purported to give in its bills the equivalent of what it had received, but it never pretended to take the deposit for any other purpose than trading with it." The likeness of our national banking system can be seen in the birth of the Bank of England. The Bank's capital was loaned to the Government "to the last shilling," and it received in return interest on the loan and also the right to issue circulating notes on condition of redeeming them on demand.

The Bank had many enemies from the very start. The goldsmiths were violently opposed to it on business grounds: it interfered with their profits. The Tories were opposed to it on political grounds. The landowners were opposed to it on social and religious grounds, since it represented the rising power of commerce in the State and of dissent in religion. Its most formidable antagonist was Chamberlain's Land Bank, a ridiculous scheme, much favored by the aristocracy. Chamberlain was an accoucheur with a penchant for grand finance. He conceived the idea of establishing a bank with money borrowed by mortgages on land, lending the money to the Government and issuing notes to be loaned at three and a half per cent. to the mortgagors. The mortgagors were to receive the stock of the Bank and derive profits from the dividends paid by the

Government equal to the interest due on the mortgages, and obtain loans from the Bank when needed by them at one-half the customary rate of interest. Under such a scheme, it would be practicable for a landowner to borrow by mortgage to-day, invest the proceeds in Bank stock to-morrow, and borrow money from the Bank the next day to pay off the mortgage, retiring with a net income of three and a half per cent. on the amount juggled with. There was no restriction to prevent the same person from performing the feat a second time. This ludicrous project of the "man midwife," as Luttrell calls him, gained so much favor among the landed gentry that it passed both houses of Parliament, and was favored by King William so far that books of subscription were opened on the 9th of June, 1696, under the charge of commissioners appointed by the Crown. But subscriptions did not come in. The Land Bank collapsed in embryo. "The King and his advisers were embarrassed; the landed interest was disappointed, enraged, and probably thought that what they called 'crying down the Land Bank' was some financial witchcraft or evil eye on the part of the moneyed men, which cheated them of their reasonable hopes."

The episode of the Land Bank was the first crisis of the Bank of England. Chamberlain's scheme was the rallying-point of all the opposition to the Bank. So great a hubbub was raised by it that the shares of the Bank declined from 107 to 83. Other crises, and more trying ones, ensued—these connected with the war in the Low Countries. The first deputy governor of the Bank, Godfrey, was killed in the trenches at Namur, whither he and two other directors had gone to provide funds for paying the army. We get a glimpse of the method of transferring funds from one country to another for military use at that time by reading that the governor, deputy governor, and one director of the Bank went over to Antwerp and set up a mint to coin money to pay the army; but as the mint could not work fast enough, they (the Bank directors) borrowed £100,000 from the Bank of Amsterdam for the purpose. The capture of Namur, which took place soon afterwards, was ascribed to the good feeling produced by the punctual payment of the troops.

The state of the coinage at this time was so deplorable, by reason of wearing, sweating, and clipping, that exchange between London and Amsterdam in 1695 was as much as thirty-eight per cent. against the former. "In this crisis," says Prof. Rogers, "the Bank ran its greatest perils, did some of its best services, and established the confidence which has made it so famous." The restoration of the coinage cost the Treasury upwards of $2,700,000—a very large sum in those trying times, being nearly equivalent to a year and a half's ordinary revenue, and as hard to be borne, the author thinks, as a hundred millions at the present time. But its value to the country, in the way of establishing the public credit and imparting confidence to every department of trade and industry, was beyond computation. The name of Montague is rendered illustrious by this achievement.

The history of the Bank during the nine years is so closely connected with the history of the Government that our author deals necessarily with the political contentions of the time, and also with military operations on the Continent. These relations give to the volume a spice of interest usually lacking in financial treatises. There is scant room for criticism to one who has not access to the rare sources consulted by the author. We can only say that in this, as in all his work in the field of political economy, Prof. Rogers employs the best methods of study and the soundest rules of interpretation.

Obiter Dicta. Second Series. By Augustine Birrell. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1887.

THERE is in this volume just that blending of a just literary taste with an unobtrusive refined humor which makes a charming book. Milton, Johnson, and Burke are simply hopeless material for fresh essays, but by dint of keeping his individuality alert and responsive, and holding close by the perennial genuineness of these great lives, the author has made something new of them, something that causes us to forget they are classics, awakens our interest, and stirs us to the point of avidity to learn what he has to say in his lighthearted and truthful affection for the old favorites. He sums up Pope when he says he should as soon think of asking whether a centipede has legs or a wasp a sting as whether he was or was not a poet; and in the course of his very humane handling of that distorted body of sensibilities and rancors which was Pope, he pleads his very best defence by reminding us that Arburthnot loved him; there must have been something amiable in him, even if it only overflowed from the good, sensible doctor. The essay upon Burke is the most pleasing to ourselves; there is an absence of weight in it which is an altogether novel quality in the subject, and there is next to nothing about his speeches. The constant gleam of humor that plays over the page helps us to remember all the while that Burke was an Irishman. Apropos of his quarrel with Hamilton, the author remarks: "Few men can afford to be angry; it is a run upon their intellectual resources that they cannot meet"; and he praises Burke's exhaustless indignation accordingly. He says well that it is a sign of Burke's stupendous greatness that when "his name is pitted against the outcome of centuries, and we say Burke and the French Revolution, we are not overwhelmed by any sense of obvious absurdity or incongruity." It is exquisite to hear a man say that "the true mode of critical approach to copies of Latin verse is by the question—How bad are they?"—to have him find Dr. Johnson every whit as interesting in his life of Sprat as of Milton or Gray, and add, "he is also much less provoking"; to have Arnold's dealing with a hapless author succinctly described as "kittenish," and to read in the opening paragraph of a paper the chance remark—"You may live like a gentleman for a twelvemonth on Hazlitt's ideas." This is the true lover of books, perhaps a trifle too refined for the general public, it must be said. "Beshrew the general public," he says himself; "what in the name of the Bodleian has the general public got to do with literature? The general public subscribes to Mudie, and has its intellectual, like its lacteal sustenance, sent round to it in carts." He turns his eyes occasionally towards this country, and quotes with delicious appositeness, in regard to Mr. Howells's views of Thackeray and Sir Walter and the rest:

"My grief lies onward and my joy behind."

He touches on the sacred precincts of "Boston life and intellect" in Emerson's day: "It does not seem to have been a very strong place. We lack performance." He even finds a fault to peck at in Dr. Holmes, and declares that his "literary perspective" is "every bit as bad" as Emerson's, which he has just told us was "very early," and cites the Doctor's remarks about the redundant syllable—"Shakspere and Milton knew how to use it effectively; Shelley employed it freely, Bryant indulged in it; Willis was fond of it," and, adds our author, "I dare say he was, but we are not fond of Willis, and cannot help regarding the citation of his poetical example as an outrage." This comes the nearest to being an "explosion" of anything in the book, and it will amuse American readers. But the volume is full of "plums" of one kind and another, is solid in literary judgment, humane and truthful to an extraordinary degree, and thoroughly readable.

When I was a Boy in China. By Yan Phou Li. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.

THIS little book of about one hundred pages is a revelation of Chinese home life which all Americans ought to read. It is the frank story of a young man who tells the truth without reserve, with Biblical quaintness and antique simplicity. He seems to have no "purpose" or "tendency" in view, but only to inform as to the facts. Further, the style is terse, clear, straightforward, fluent, refined, and idiomatic. Mr. Yan Phou Lee is, or was, a student in Yale College, one of the number sent over a few years ago, under the auspices of Yung Wing, who has been able to remain until graduation from an American college. Belonging to the mighty tribe or family of Li (Lee), he was born on the 21st day of the second moon, in the first year of the reign of the Emperor Tung Che; which, if our calculations be correct, was April 11, 1861. His personal name, Yan Phou, means "Wealth by Imperial Favor." Like most Chinese and Japanese living abroad, he now arranges his name in accordance with the western method. In Chinese civilization, "the individual withers," and the clan is "more and more"; consequently, the family name comes first. With us, initials are vastly important, and family and locality less so.

While written originally for young people, and therefore lively and readable, Mr. Li's papers make solid and enriching reading for seniors. His twelve chapters would be very widening to the mental horizon of one fed wholly either on missionary reports or Sand-Lot eloquence. "Infancy," "The House and Household," "Chinese Cookery," "Games and Pastimes," "Girls of My Acquaintance," "Schools and School Life," "Religions," "Chinese Holidays," "Stories and Story Tellers," "How I Went to Shanghai," "How I Prepared for America," "First Experiences in America," are the suggestive titles of the chapters. Among those recounted in the last chapter are a midcontinent train robbery by masked road-agents, and a hug and kiss by an American lady, both being equally amazing to the lad.

Greek Lessons. Prepared to accompany the Grammar of Hadley and Allen. By Robert P. Keep. D. Appleton & Co. 1886.

DR. KEEP is well known to American schoolmasters by his elaborate school edition of the Iliad i-vi, and his useful translation of Autenrieth's Homeric Dictionary. His name is a sufficient guarantee for the accuracy and thoroughness of the scholarship of the present volume. It is strictly a companion for Hadley and Allen, as it professes to be, and follows closely the grammar arrangement in its topics. These are illustrated by numerous exercises and explanations; but constant reference to the grammar is made from the beginning, and the language of the grammar rules is retained as exactly as the connection will allow. From different points of view, we should say the book attempts either too much or too little. It should have been either a complete skeleton, in its Accidence at least, of the grammar, or it should have been confined to exercises and explanations only, with references to the parent work for formal statements of principles. As it is, it suffers in directness and perspicuity from its divided aim, and, worst of all, seems likely to prove very inflexible in use.

The Vocabulary at the end of the book is meagre. The Greek-English part should contain either full statements of peculiarities of inflection in the words, or references to the grammar

for them. Space could readily be found for this by omitting the rather aimless "Classified Vocabulary" in the middle of the book. An attempt is made to indicate the quantity of the doubtful vowels; but since it is not carried out consistently, it seems more likely to confuse than to help beginners, besides marring the appearance of the page. The *iota subscriptum* given to *σώζω* looks like an affectation, while that of *θνῄσκω* is really puzzling. We noticed a circumflexed *καί* on page 146; but generally the book is clearly and handsomely printed, and free from misprints. The stitching is as bad as that of all American school-books seems to be. Nothing short of "breaking the book's back" will make it lie open at a given page. When a book is designed, as this one is, to be used simultaneously with another, this stiffness of back becomes a serious annoyance. The duty of the maker of school-books does not end with the last "revise."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, Mrs. Forging the Fetters, and Other Stories. Henry Holt & Co. $1.

Baker, T. Manual of Counterpoint. G. Schirmer.

Barrows, S. J. and T. C. The Shaybacks in Camp: Ten Summers under Canvas. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.

Bates, Arlo. A Lady's Love. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $1.

Bok, E. W. Beecher Memorial: Contemporaneous Tributes to the Memory of H. W. Beecher. Brooklyn.

Brotherton, Alice W. The Sailing of King Olaf, and Other Poems. Chicago: Chas. H. Kerr & Co. $1.

Cleland, J. Scala Naturæ, and Other Poems. Edinburgh: David Douglas.

Colvin, S. Keats. Harper & Brothers. 75 cents.

Cotte, A. M. Contes tirés de Molière. No. 1. L'Avare. Wm. R. Jenkins. 20 cents.

Cunningham, H. S. The Cœruleans. A Vacation Idyll. Macmillan & Co. $1.

Daudet, A. Which? Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. $1.25.

Davis, S. M. H. Norway Nights and Russian Days. Fords, Howard & Hulbert.

Dawson, Sir J. W. The Story of the Earth and Man. New ed. Harper & Brothers.

Dexter, Prof. F. B. Sketch of the History of Yale University. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.

Dilwyn, E. A. Jill and Jack: A Novel. Macmillan & Co. $1.

Dodgson, W. A Choice of Change: A Novel. Harper & Brothers. 20 cents.

Emory, A. M. Told at Tuxedo. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.

Genung, J. F. The Study of Rhetoric. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.

Harrison, Mrs. Burton. Bar Harbor Days. Harper & Brothers.

Hill, G. B. Boswell's Life of Johnson: including Boswell's Journal of a Tour to the Hebrides, and Johnson's Diary of a Journey into North Wales. 6 vols. Macmillan & Co. $16.

Hugo, V. Les Misérables. Cosette. Wm. R. Jenkins.

Isham, C. The Fisheries Question: Its Origin, History, and Present Situation. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.

King, E. A Venetian Lover: a Poem. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.

Lloyd, A. P. Treatise on the Law of Divorce. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.

Loftie, W. J. Windsor Castle. Jubilee ed. Macmillan & Co. $2.

Miller, J. B. Trade Organizations in Politics; also, Progress and Robbery. Baker & Taylor Co. $1.25.

O'Neil, C. A. The American Electoral System. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.

Pater, W. Imaginary Portraits. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.

Preston, D. S. Columbus; or, A Hero of the New World. An Historical Play. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.

Scott, Sir Walter. Waverley Novels. Library ed. Vols. 13-16: The Pirate, Fortunes of Nigel, Peveril of the Peak, Quentin Durward. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

Shakespeare, W. Works. Victoria ed. 3 vols. Comedies, Histories, and Tragedies [and Poems]. Macmillan & Co. $5.

Sheppard, N. Saratoga Chips and Carlsbad Wafers. Funk & Wagnalls. 50 cents.

Stall, Rev. S. Methods of Church Work: Religious, Social, and Financial. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.50.

Sylvester, H. M. Prose Pastorals. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

The Poems of Giacomo Leopardi. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.

Thucydides. Book I. Edited by Prof. C. D. Morris.—Book VII. Edited by Prof. C. F. Smith. 2 vols. Ginn & Co.

Tolstoi, Count L. N. Ivan Ilyitch, and Other Stories. T. Y. Crowell & Co.

Winsor, J. Was Shakespeare Shapleigh? A Correspondence in Two Entanglements. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75 cents.

Zöckler, O. Wider die unfehlbare Wissenschaft. Nördlingen: C. H. Beck; New York: Westermann.

"Every child in America should have them."—*New England Journal of Education.*

"The 'Young Folks' Cyclopædia' should be in every juvenile library."—*From a Report of the Connecticut Board of Education.*

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HENRY HOLT & CO., Publishers, New York.

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